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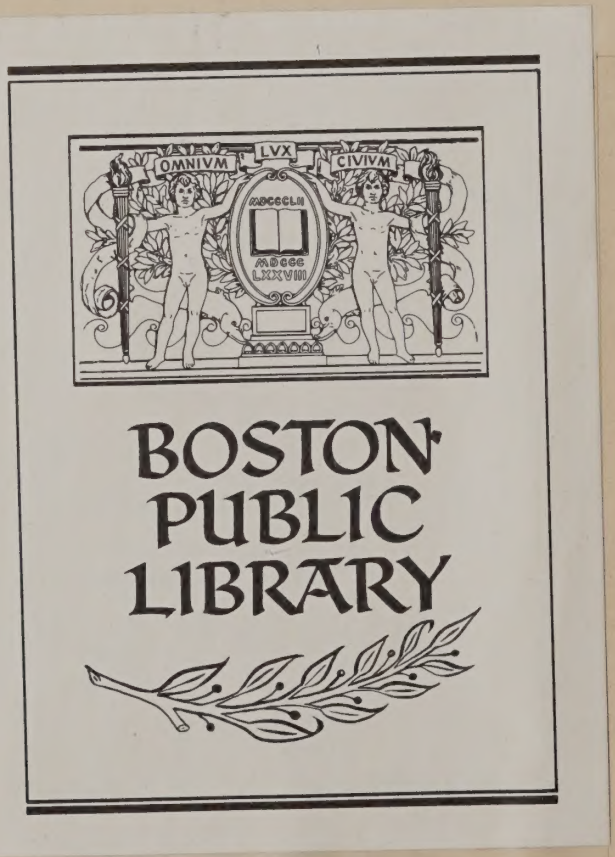

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 4, 1878.

The Week.

THE Illinois Republicans held their convention last Wednesday, and though the offices for which nominations were made were unimportant, the meeting was marked by a large attendance and great "harmony" and "enthusiasm." The platform declares the "unfaltering faith" of the Illinois Republicans in the party, denounces the Democrats for their "lack of honor and patriotism," shows that they "cannot be safely entrusted with the administration of the affairs of the Government," approves the Republican financial policy, opposes further contraction, and demands a currency to be maintained "at par with and convertible into coin at the will of the holder," and receivable for import duties. It insists on the "permanent pacification" of the Southern States, and the "complete protection" of all citizens "in all their civil, political, personal, and property rights," and promises a vigorous forward movement in the good work, "until peace shall come through right-doing and contentment through justice." There is one plank which proposes a definite plan of action, but this only contemplates an amendment of the criminal code for the protection of savings-bank depositors against dishonest bank managers, and a national campaign can hardly be carried on with this alone. The enthusiasm of the convention appears to have been created partly by the fact that it was what is known as an old-fashioned "rally," and partly by the fact that it was made the means by the Illinois "Stalwarts" of bringing forward Illinois' Favorite Son, General Grant, as the party candidate for 1880. The principal speech was made by Mr. E. A. Storrs, of Chicago, who acquired some celebrity as counsel for General Babcock in the whiskey trial at St. Louis. Mr. Storrs followed the advice given to the party by Mr. James F. Wilson, of Iowa, to "make it hot under the old flag," and concluded with a pointed nomination of General Grant for the Presidency in 1880, with the view of stemming the tide of Communism in the United States, and assuring alike to capital and labor their just reward.

It appears from a good many Republican platforms, and notably from that of the Illinois State Convention, that a state of war still exists in this country, and that there is a body of public enemies encamped on our soil now seeking to seize the Government, and that in order to foil them all other subjects must, and very properly, be neglected. This is now asserted so often, and in so many quarters, and by such very respectable citizens, that though we have been inclined to disbelieve it, we feel that it would be useless to go on denying it any longer. So, therefore, admitting the fact, what we now ask is whether something cannot be done to bring this unnatural struggle to a close? It began in 1861, and is therefore now in its seventeenth year, the longest war on record, except the Peloponnesian, the Thirty Years' War, and the last war of England with France, if we do not count the short peace following the Treaty of Amiens. There is something inexpressibly shocking in its continuance by a Christian people of one blood and one faith, speaking the same language and inheriting the same glorious traditions. Is there not humanity and religion enough left among us to bring the opposing parties together to treat? Why should not the Republicans despatch a commission to the enemy, wherever he is, and see whether, on some terms or other, he will not give up his nefarious designs and go home? We solemnly call the attention of the ministers of the various denominations to this deplorable state of things. As long as they look on in silence they are responsible for every drop of blood shed. It is our duty as Christian men to lay aside false pride, and seek out the foe and offer him conditions of peace. Not one word is said about this in the Republican conventions, but this is doubtless due to the prevailing ignorance about the theatre of the war. This can readily be got over by the offer of a small reward. Indeed, we do not doubt that $500 would procure a revelation of the exact situation of the hostile camp.

In the mass of contradiction and equivocation which makes up the body of the evidence taken by the Potter Committee it is a satisfaction to come upon any testimony which is clear and to the point. This seems to be the marked trait of that given by Mr. Noyes last Friday. Mr. Noyes's name was made prominent in the resolution authorizing the enquiry, and it was at least fair to suppose that the Democrats had some plausible grounds for suspicion before they compelled a man of his position and a representative of the country abroad to come home to exculpate himself from charges of election frauds. Mr. Noyes declared at the outset that he went to Florida without Mr. Hayes's knowledge; that during his stay there he never communicated with Mr. Hayes, except on the occasion of his telegraphing to him the decision of the Returning Board; that before the Returning Board pronounced its decision he had no private conversation with McLin on any subject, never saw him alone, and made no pledges, promises, or assurances of any kind; that he advised him to do his duty fairly and impartially. He declared, further, that the Republicans made out such a strong case in Florida as would satisfy "any unprejudiced court in Christendom." After the Returning Board's decision McLin represented to him that his position was desperate, and asked him to intercede with Mr. Hayes and try to get him an office. This Mr. Noyes said he did do. Mr. Noyes also read two letters from McLin which corroborated these statements. General Lew Wallace, who was with Mr. Noyes in Florida, also testified to the same effect; but his relations with McLin seem to have been not quite as much above suspicion. He swore that on one occasion McLin told him that Manton Marble had said that there was no reason why he should remain a "poor man" if Tilden became President, to which Mr. Wallace replied that if Hayes were elected he would take care of his friends, too. This declaration the general says he did not make with any corrupt purpose, and he maintains that there was a great difference between Marble's proposition and his own, because McLin and he belonged to the same party, while Marble was a Democrat. This shows that the general is a little confused as to the connection between morals and politics. It is only fair to Mr. Marble, by the way, to say that he denies utterly having used the language attributed to him by McLin. A brother of Anderson's "pal," Weber, has testified to his own entire falseness as a witness before the Senate Committee a year ago, and also that he found the Sherman letter and destroyed it, knowing it to be genuine.

We frequently took occasion during the last Presidential campaign, as our readers will bear us witness, to caution all whom it might concern against giving too much credence to stories of Southern political outrages. Our reasons were that in the condition of Southern society outrages were frequently committed by all sorts of persons, and that negro testimony was always easily procurable by party friends for any purpose. A remarkable illustration of the truth of these observations is furnished by the recent developments in the Eliza Pinkston case, which convulsed the country two years ago. Eliza Pinkston, it will be remembered, was a negress who was carried before the Returning Board and the "Visiting Statesmen" to testify to a horrible outrage committed in Ouachita Parish by a party of Democrats, resulting in the death of her husband and her own shocking mutilation. She testified that this was done on account of the Republican politics of the Pinkston household. She has now

made an affidavit to the effect that she was induced to give this evidence by promises of reward held out by O. H. Brewster (a Republican elector) and one Dinkgrave; that she was paid $500 for her testimony; that her husband, Pinkston, never took any part in politics, and had never given any offence to any person on account of politics; that the murder was in no way connected with politics; that she has every reason to think that one of the persons engaged in the killing was a colored man with whom her husband had had a fight; that she was brought from her home and instructed to testify so as to lay all the blame of the killing on the Democrats, and to pretend that her wounds were more serious than they actually were and that she could not walk, when as a matter of fact she could walk very well; that she was induced to be carried on a sofa into the room where the Returning Board were, although she had just walked a part of the way up-stairs; and finally that, previous to giving her testimony, she was visited by John Sherman and other "Visiting Statesmen," and that they had ample opportunity to know what her real condition was. Still another affidavit has been made by the stenographer to the Democratic "Visiting Statesmen," who swears that on the evening of the day on which Eliza Pinkston gave her testimony he saw and heard Sherman conversing in one of the rooms of the St. Charles Hotel, and heard him "laugh hilariously" about the Pinkston testimony, and remark to a third person that "it was laughable to see how Governor Bigler had taken in the whole thing," and make other remarks from which he understood Sherman "to be rejoicing over the successful imposition of Pinkston's action and testimony."

Two bills to create a Pacific Railroad Commission are left pending by the adjournment of Congress. Both of them appoint Messrs. C. F. Adams, Jr., Albert Fink, of Kentucky, and Judge Cooley, of Michigan, Commissioners. The Senate's bill is merely one of enquiry. The House bill gives them general supervisory power over all the roads receiving Government aid; makes it their duty to inform themselves of the condition of the roads, the manner of running them, their rates, and so forth. This bill is, we believe, based on the statute creating the Massachusetts commission, which has produced such excellent results in that State. The Commissioners are well selected. Mr. Adams is the head of the only railroad commission in the country whose reports are weighty and valuable contributions to the solution of the great railroad problems; Mr. Fink's standing is well known all over the country, and Judge Cooley is a lawyer of excellent repute. There is a good deal of reason to hope that this measure, or one like it, will be passed next winter. The plan of the Commission at the start avoids two great stumbling blocks which have wrecked so many State boards. In the first place, the selection of its members is not left to political intrigue; and in the second, it is not directed to attempt the impossible task of reorganizing the railroad system which it is to supervise, fixing its freight and passenger tariff, or in any way assuming its management. Its duties will be merely those of enlightened supervision, and its main reliance will be not on the strong arm of the Government, but on what has always proved in the long run the sure eradicator of all railroad abuses—publicity.

The success of the Kearneyites in carrying a very large number, if not a majority, of the delegates to the California Constitutional Convention has taken the public and press of that State completely by surprise. There were, it seems, six tickets in the field, including the Republican, the Democratic, and a fusion ticket made up of both of these. The Kearney party is out-and-out Communistic, though the platform on which it carried the election was much more conservative than the bloodthirsty and revolutionary talk of Kearney himself would give any one the right to suppose; it will have, if it controls the Convention, the task before it of remodelling an American constitution in the interest of communistic ideas. This has never been attempted before, and will present problems of some magnitude. It seems clear that the victory of the Kearney party is due in great measure to accident, and does not by any means indicate that Communism has yet become a really popular movement in California. It has been a violently anti-Chinese movement, the hope of driving the Chinaman out of the labor market having helped to make the vision of a Communistic Utopia doubly sweet to California workingmen.

The scene of the Indian disturbances in the Northwest, which unpleasantly recall the Nez-Percés campaign just a year ago, is in Eastern Oregon, from Klamath Lake to the Idaho border, and even to the Camas Prairie, of evil memory. This time the Bannocks are the leaders, and they have drawn large numbers of allies from the numerous tribes inhabiting this broad area. On Sunday week the hostiles were overtaken near Camp Curry by Colonel Bernard, charged upon, and defeated with the loss of the camp and of a significant number of braves; but they saved their immense stock and continued their march northward towards the headwaters of the John Day River, where the settlements have already been invaded by them. General Howard, who has joined Colonel Bernard, had anticipated that this would be the line of advance, and as he had directed the movement of other troops with a view to it, another battle is imminent. There is, as usual, too much reason to believe that this outbreak could have been prevented by just dealing with the Indians. In fact, General Crook, their successful opponent on more than one hard-fought field, has openly declared that the Bannocks, when he visited them at their reservation last spring, were in a starving condition, which naturally drove them to desperate measures for relief. Congress had been derelict in making appropriations for their support, but at best they were only half supplied, and for half the year were turned out to pick up a subsistence as best they could. In short, we are having a fresh illustration of the cost of Congressional economy, which, when applied to the Indians, has always the effect of giving full employment to the army which has just been pronounced useless, and of running up bills for transportation vastly in excess of the sum needed to feed the Indians to satiety.

The preparation and delivery of instructions to our delegates to the International Monetary Conference have made much stir at the State Department, the Commissioners having been summoned to Washington to undergo the ceremony. The net result was the giving of a dinner to three of them—the fourth, Mr. S. Dana Horton, who is named in the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill as Secretary of the Commission, not being present. It is now promised that the instructions will be forwarded to the Commissioners before their departure, and that the substance of them will be that they shall represent in a forcible manner to the monetary experts of Europe the state of public sentiment in this country with reference to the double standard. This will be extremely helpful to the Conference, and it is to be hoped that Mr. Evarts will give all the powers of his mind to the composition of the paper. The absence of Mr. Horton is looked upon as injurious, and the method of his appointment as even more so. The original act of Congress providing for the Commission did not authorize a secretary. After the Commission had been appointed it was deemed important to send somebody along to "coach" them in the French language, and to lend a helping hand in the matter of political economy. Accordingly the Senate adopted an amendment to the Sundry Civil Bill providing for a secretary and two or more clerks. The House struck this out for the alleged reason that the character of the appointments already made did not justify the creation of new offices to be filled by the same appointing power. The conference of the two houses settled the matter by striking out the clerkships and naming Mr. S. Dana Horton as Secretary. Mr. Horton has not yet accepted the appointment. He may possibly be in doubt whether he should send his acceptance to Secretary Evarts or to Speaker Randall.

The end of the fiscal year for the U. S. Treasury makes a comparison with a year ago interesting. The public debt was reduced during the year $24,371,391, against $39,281,121 during the fiscal year ending July 1, 1877. The coin balance of the Treasury was

$197,415,132, against $115,122,473 then, or, less coin-certificates issued to the owners of coin left for safe keeping with the Treasury, $151,585,532, against $73,549,873 on July 1, 1877. The legal-tender note circulation was $346,681,016 (which, in view of recent legislation, must be accepted as the minimum for the future), against $359,764,332 a year before. The fractional currency was reduced during the year from $20,403,137 to $16,547,760, and the silver coin outstanding was increased from $33,088,813 to $39,057,083. The special legal-tender note fund for the redemption of fractional currency was filled up from $7,963,213 to $10,000,000. While the changes are for the most part satisfactory, they are not nearly so favorable as they might have been, or would have been except for the pernicious effect of the silver agitation on our credit, as shown by the return of bonds from Europe—a movement which was at flood-tide early in April. The foreign trade of the country for the first eleven months of the fiscal year was favorable in a marvellous degree for the improvement of the Treasury finances. The exports of domestic merchandise amounted to $647,948,000, while the imports of foreign goods were valued at $401,420,000, leaving an excess of $245,528,000; the excess for the corresponding time in the preceding fiscal year was $155,877,000. The excess for the eleven months of the last fiscal year furnished the Treasury with an opportunity for putting the currency on a gold basis such as seldom comes even in the lifetime of a nation. As it was, it prevented the country from being well-nigh ruined by the blundering course of legislation on silver, and permitted the improvements noted. During the week silver has fallen in London to 52½*d.* to 52⅝*d.* per ounce, and at the close of the week the bullion value of the new silver dollar was only $0.8855. Gold closed at 100⅝, making the gold value of the U. S. legal-tender note $0.99375. U. S. bonds were "strong to buoyant" on the demand to employ money in securities that, whatever may be their ultimate value, are always available as a means to get cash.

The condition and result of the negotiations at Berlin are pretty fully discussed in another part of our columns. There is, as will be seen, little to add to our summary of last week except that Rumania and Montenegro have been declared independent, according to the Russian programme, the latter receiving an accession of territory, though not as much as the Treaty of San Stefano provided for. Rumania gets the Dobrudscha and loses Bessarabia, also in strict accordance with the Russian programme, but it is still doubtful whether Russia will get Batum. To crown all, Austria is to occupy Bosnia and Herzegovina as long as she pleases and organize them as she thinks best, a result long ago foreshadowed, and which practically detaches these provinces from the Turkish Empire. The form of trying to persuade Turkey to accept these little changes is now going on, and the Turk is making a show of resistance, just as Lord Beaconsfield made a show of deploring the persistence of Russia in taking Bessarabia, and Prince Gortchakoff of pain at the amount of concession Russia has made. A correspondent exposes in another column the delusory character of the famous calling in of the Indian troops. In fact, the whole performance of resistance to Russia now begins to wear the look of a peculiarly bold piece of jugglery, and it remains to be seen whether the Tories can really put up with it.

The recognition by the Congress of the independence of Rumania and Servia has been made, it is said, dependent on the concession of complete civil rights to the Jews resident in these countries. A memorial was presented to the Congress on their behalf by delegates of the Universal Israelite Alliance, which set forth that in Servia they had been expelled from the country districts and most of the cities, excluded from all offices and callings, and reduced to misery, and that under this régime their number had diminished one-half. In Rumania, they say, they have been for the last two years exposed to the most cruel persecution, and constantly made the victims of murders, riots, plunder, and expulsion, and have by a series of laws been excluded from all the liberal professions, from all public offices, and from numerous branches of trade, and severe restrictions put on their public worship. It must not be supposed, however, that this persecution, which really has been ferocious, both in Servia and Rumania, has been due to the religious fanaticism of the Christians. It is due mainly to the fact that the Jews have long been the only portion of the population engaged in trade and money-lending, and have practised usury both in giving credit and making loans to a degree unknown elsewhere, and only possible among a purely agricultural peasantry and an extravagant and idle upper class. The extent to which they had put the community literally under bonds would appear incredible in the West if the figures were known, and the fury against them is that of the "debtor class" against "Shylocks" and "gold sharks."

The probable effect of the news of the decisions of the Congress at Constantinople is now looked for with some interest, though hardly with anxiety. When the first Conference met in that city the Sultan was able to defend himself against a good many exactions by pleading his fear of the Mussulman mob, but the mob has proved most disappointingly tranquil and resigned, and the volcanic fanaticism which was under certain circumstances to cause a general rising of the true believers has not shown itself. The Sultan has, in the meantime, been trying every variety of combination in the formation of ministries, having appointed as many as seven different vizirs in six months, and he will probably keep on changing in the same way. A broken-down debauchee, with his nerves shattered, and bullied by the women of his harem, he of course makes and remakes cabinets as a child would, through momentary pet or caprice, and the folly of making treaties with him the execution of which is of any importance to Christendom becomes daily more apparent. The malcontents seem to have fixed their hopes so firmly on Murad, the deposed brother, and make him the object of so much intrigue and sedition, that he will probably before long commit "suicide."

The German Reichstag has been dissolved, and the election of the new one is to take place on the 30th inst. The motion for the dissolution made at the Federal Council by the Ministry attributes it to the necessity of appealing to the country on the Socialist question. The late Parliament would not give the Government the necessary powers to deal with the problem, but it was believed the new one would act differently. The liberty of the press and the right of meeting are to be restrained, and passport regulations more rigidly enforced. The revelations made by the police investigation in the Nobiling case are said to be alarming, but they have not been communicated to the public. The Crown Prince acts as Regent during the Emperor's disability, but it is of course doubtful whether, even in case of his recovery, the old man will again be able to attend to business. A great many arrests and convictions for the use of disloyal language about the Emperor have taken place, but it will be surprising, and indeed unprecedented, if these measures do not aggravate the evil.

The overthrow of the Clerical Party in the Belgian Parliament after bearing sway for seven years would have excited a real sensation in Europe if the Berlin Conference were not absorbing public attention. The Belgian Government has been of late the only one of which the Ultramontanes managed to keep hold, and they owed their success to the powerful influence of the Catholic clergy over the peasantry, and their active and even fierce interference in elections. Their majority in the chambers was small before the late election, only four in the Senate and six in the House, but it was sufficient and appeared impregnable, and produced extraordinary insolence of language on the part of the clerical deputies, which the Minister, M. Malou, deplored, but could not repress. The result has been a reaction giving the Liberals a majority of six in the Senate and ten in the House, and M. Frère-Orban, who is well known as an economist, goes into office at their head. The Pope is now left without a single government which pays any attention to the recent Papal pretensions.

THE DEMOCRATIC DESIGNS.

THE investigation into the Florida and Louisiana counts has gone far enough, and is evidently sufficiently near its end, to verify very fully our earliest prediction as to the probable course and probable object of the proceeding. It has not greatly damaged anybody, and has not cleared anybody of any thing of which impartial observers suspected him. It has simply confirmed the popular belief that the persons who carried on the Republican governments at the South from 1868 down to 1876 were unscrupulous adventurers of very low character, who were quite capable of doing the worst thing they have been accused of. Dennis, of Florida, for instance, in his late examination did not admit that they had wrongfully given the State to Hayes, but he admitted, with much naïveté, that when they suspected the Visiting Statesmen of not caring what became of the State offices provided they secured the electoral vote for the Republicans, they determined, if this proved true, to give it to Tilden. It has shown, too, hat it was a very serious thing for the American people to have their Presidency lying for three months in the hands, and, indeed in the gift, of such men as McLin and Dennis and Anderson and Wells, and that no respectable Republican could or should have approached them or had any private dealings with them without exposing himself to grave imputations. That it would, however, bring any actual corruption home to the Visiting Statesmen was from the first very unlikely, both because these Statesmen were too shrewd to commit themselves in writing, and because the oral testimony of these scamps, even when they "confessed," was sure to be received by the public with incredulity. The Stanley-Matthews letters were a genuine surprise, and so was the news of the so-called "Sherman letter." But even the Sherman letter, if produced, would not be conclusive, any more than the Matthews letters, because it would, like them, be capable of being interpreted as a promise to reward courageous officials for having done their duty, and in this view the badness of their character would not be a sufficient refutation.

At the same time the enquiry has not, as some of the Republican papers have been cheerfully assuring us, vindicated anybody. It has not raised the Visiting Statesmen in anybody's estimation. One can readily understand a good man's closeting himself with a knave, for he may be exhorting him to the practice of virtue; but when immediately afterwards a suspicious act of the knave's puts a sum of money in the good man's pocket, or gives him a good office, the testimony of the knave about the particulars of the interview puts the good man just where he stood before. The public at best drops a tear over the transaction and directs its attention in sorrowful silence to some other subject. The President has certainly come out harmless, as regards any attempt to influence the count by any bargain with or promise to the counters; but his readiness to use the civil service to reward them, whether for having done their duty or not having done it, was not what we had a right to expect from a Republican officer who held the Cincinnati Platform and the Letter of Acceptance smoking hot in his hands. The general result is a ridiculous failure, if we regard the investigation as the first step in a bloody revolution; but tolerably successful if we regard it as simply furnishing materials for a campaign document containing very unsavory details about the class of men whom the Republicans upheld for seven years in the government of the Southern States, and whom, at a most important crisis in the nation's history, prominent Republican chiefs were not ashamed to counsel and co-operate with and reward.

That it will have any serious effect on the fall elections is, however, very unlikely. That is to say that, while it may not have convinced anybody that the Republicans were guilty of fraud at the Presidential election, it has not convinced anybody that they were not guilty who had previously thought them guilty. It probably leaves the whole matter in the public mind just where it was. The number of persons who think the Democrats ought to come into power will probably be very little, if at all, increased by it, nor will the number of those who think the Democrats cannot safely be entrusted with power be sensibly lessened by it. The Democrats have probably suffered somewhat by the failure of the investigation to prove the "greatest fraud of the age"; but, on the other hand, the Republicans have suffered through the manifest disinclination of the investigators to "inaugurate a bloody revolution." The Republicans would have profited by Mr. Hayes's clearance from complicity with the counters, if he had been really liked or supported by them; but their recent course towards him prevents the goodness of his character from reflecting any credit on them.

But the fact is that both parties have already begun to look forward to the next Presidential election, and the investigation and legislation and everything else have reference to that. To any one who believes this, the notion the Republicans are trying to spread, that the Democrats will, if they obtain a majority in both Houses in the next Congress, at once enter on desperate courses, and prepare to pay for the slaves, repudiate the public debt, and replace all the rebel officers in the army, is simply wild. The Democrats have not shown much political sagacity during the past fifteen years, but they have during the past two years shown a considerable increase of it. The return of the Southern element to their councils has plainly steadied them, and it will be observed that not one dreadful thing have they ventured on in which they were not sure of Republican help, and not one odious or alarming piece of legislation have they passed which could have been passed without Republican assistance. They are not likely to grow more foolish during the next two years; on the contrary, they are likely to grow wiser, and it is very improbable indeed that they will venture on any measure, or series of measures, which would in 1880 bring the whole North to the polls in fury against them; such, for instance, as an enormous addition to the national debt to pay for slaves, or a great national disgrace, or financial convulsion, such as would be caused by a failure to provide for the public debt. On the contrary, they will probably try and march up to the canvass of 1880 with the air of fair-minded and moderate men, who would not hurt a hair of the national head, but who have been grossly slandered and foully cheated, and carrying with them the martyred Tilden on a litter.

They are the more likely to play this part, even if it were not the one obviously dictated by the commonest prudence, by the growing signs of a disposition on the part of the Republican managers to bring General Grant into the field again as a candidate for a third term. These managers are evidently trying to find support for this otherwise amazing proposal by imputing alleged revolutionary and dangerous schemes to the Democrats, and nothing but a firm popular belief in these charges could give the General a chance of success. But this *would* give him a chance of success. People would say that the scandals of Grant's administration were no doubt great, and his capacity as a civil ruler small, but that if the very existence of the Government was again to be put in peril his defects would be as nothing compared to his merits as a defender of social order. In short, people would turn to him, as other peoples have turned when they have made up their minds that their government was a failure, not as a statesman, but as a soldier who would know how to knock the turbulent on the head. Without this, on the contrary, the Republicans will be considerably embarrassed. They have not a single Favorite Son who is not in some way discredited and out of the question as a candidate, and we believe the "First Choices" even, who are an inferior kind of Favorite Son, might be counted on the fingers of one hand. So that, unless they can put up General Grant as a Saviour of Society, they will be sorely puzzled to know what to do. The experience the managers have had of Hayes is likely to make them exceedingly cautious about trying another good, obscure man, so as to impose on "the theorists," and the production of any one of their own number would leave them at the mercy of the Democrats, who would only have to present—we say only, and yet it is hardly possible they will have the grace to do it—a man of high character and ability like Mr. Bayard to sweep away from the Republicans the few independent thousands to whom, after all, either party must owe its victory. For the election of Grant is not, we feel sure, possible in even a tolerably tranquil time. Now, when people's pride is touched by seeing him fêted as a

national military hero by the haughty despots and pampered nobles of Europe, the shortcomings of his administration are half forgotten; but the picture of the "Old Man" and his companions at the White House which the campaign would produce, and the correctness of which could not be gainsaid, would make his defeat as certain, and almost as crushing, as that of the lamented Greeley.

"THE PUBLIC LAW OF EUROPE."

DURING the earlier part of the Russo-Turkish struggle the policy of Great Britain, as defined by Lord Derby, towards the combatants consisted simply in the protection of "British interests," and these interests, at the request of Russia, he defined, and the Russians promised not to meddle with them, and in point of fact did not meddle with them as thus defined. At the close of the struggle the sudden change in this policy was announced which drove Lord Derby out of the cabinet, and England was made to stand forth as "the defender of the public law of Europe," and to readers of the Government organs it was curious to see how neatly and deftly the change of front was effected. It was accompanied, too, by a curious elevation of tone. Of course a defender of "the public law of Europe" necessarily stood on higher moral ground than a mere protector of the route to India, and the language of the Ministry and its supporters accordingly began to have the air of a comminatory sermon, because the moral rise of England involved the increased moral degradation of Russia. That Power was sufficiently odious as a threatener of "British interests," but as an assailant of "the public law of Europe," which to most of the "Jingoes" was about as intelligible as "that blessed word Mesopotamia," she excited a holier as well as deeper reprobation; this last "dodge," too, as Mr. Bright called it, appears to have really touched the French imagination and excited great admiration of Lord Beaconsfield, even in such men as Gambetta. The particular portion of the public law of Europe which England was defending was said to be the inviolability of treaties without the consent of all the parties to them; but nobody has ever been able to tell when this became the law, because, as has been frequently pointed out, every treaty made since 1815 has been violated without the consent of the Powers which made it and without any protest on that ground from England until 1871. This fact alone made Lord Beaconsfield's new rôle an odd one, but it became odder when the Congress met. The "public law of Europe" is described as a moral code intended to be obeyed by all the states of Europe, and having their happiness and security for its object. In making or changing it, therefore, it was natural to expect that the English political moralists would insist on the participation of all the states in the Congress without reference to the amount of brute force at their command, and that certainly those of the smaller Powers, such as Greece and Rumania and Servia, which are directly interested in the Treaty now under discussion, and those of them, such as Denmark, Holland, and the Scandinavian states, which are exposed to danger from the cupidity and ambition of powerful neighbors, would be allowed to aid in the amendment of the common code. Nothing of the kind, however, appears to have occurred to the English Ministry. The Congress was, with their consent, composed simply of the Powers having the largest armies and able to kill the most people in order to have their way, so that the public law of Europe would seem to be simply a fine name for the will of the strongest.

But this is not all. We pointed out a fortnight ago the fact that the modifications in the public law of Europe to which England consents, without regard to the wishes of Turkey, are fully as great in their effect on Turkey as those imposed on Turkey by Russia. She loses, with English connivance, the possession of Bulgaria and the direct government of Rumelia, leaving her nothing worth mention in Europe except the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, with which it was one of the complaints of Lord Salisbury's circular the Treaty of San Stefano left her no adequate means of communication. But now the news has come that Austria is to be permitted to occupy these provinces also, with what force she pleases and for an indefinite period, and to organize them in such manner as she thinks best. This, of course, as any one can see, amounts in practice to annexation. The provinces pass under Austrian rule, and will never be restored to Turkey; the longer they remain separated from her, the less willing would the civilized world be to see them given back to the Porte. So that Turkey in Europe has virtually ceased to exist. Constantinople and the patch of territory around it cannot, in the nature of things, be held very long by an effete monarchy and a declining and barbarous race. Now, Turkey either deserves this fate or she does not. If she does, what term are we to apply to the attitude of the English Tories towards Russia during the bloody and costly war by which all this wreck and ruin has been brought about? What to the gross vituperation of the Russian Government and people, and the gross eulogies on the Turks which made Osman Pasha too good company for a Russian Grand Duke, and made the wretches—as foul, most of them, in their origin as in their career—who compose the Constantinople Government do duty for a whole year as "an oppressed nationality"? If she does not deserve it, and this partition, in its completeness closely resembling that of Poland, is simply a remorseless use of superiority of force, what are we to think of the defence of the "public law of Europe" on which the Beaconsfield Ministry has been engaged since last April?

The final overthrow of the Turks will be a source of gratification to every one who knows anything about them and hates oppression, and they and their odious tyranny will soon be forgotten; but we doubt very much whether the world will as readily forget the extraordinary way in which the English people have allowed themselves to be led and duped in this matter by a man who possesses none of the traditional and customary holds on their confidence, and who possesses in a marked degree the characteristics of the Imperialist type of political adventurer. Those who most admire his talents have never pretended that during his long political career he has made the slightest pretence to convictions on any subject, and his most prominent moral and mental traits are such as have always been supposed to be peculiarly odious to the English country gentleman. Nevertheless he has managed to obtain the control of the national resources, the unusual friendship of the Queen, and the admiration and devotion of society, almost with ease, and to retain them while carrying on negotiations and uttering diplomatic threats of the most transparent charlatanry, and heaping abuse on a sovereign people whose friendship it is obviously English interest to cultivate. The effect of the whole transaction cannot but be to lower the foreign estimate of the moral tone of English "society."

THE RACE AT NEW LONDON.

NEW LONDON, June 28, 1878.

THE race rowed this morning on the river Thames marks an epoch in the history of American college-rowing. Down to the present time this history has been mainly one of experiments. No novelty has been left untried in boats, water, crews, steering, or courses. We have seen boats of wood superseded by boats of paper; races in fresh and races in salt water; crews of six without a coxswain developing into crews of eight with one; courses with a turn changing to straightaway courses, and a plain college race swollen into a "grand, intercollegiate aquatic tournament," and again voluntarily reduced to a college race again. If in "boating," as in the world at large, history is philosophy teaching by example, enough examples have been accumulated in the last twenty-five years of American racing to furnish us with a very complete philosophy of the subject. And this, I think, was the general impression after the race this morning—a prevalent feeling that now at last something final had been reached; that it was at length settled that the true and only form for future challenges between the two leading American colleges would necessarily be for a straightaway four-mile race for eight-oared shells on the New London course.

The advantages of New London as a place for seeing a race are so obvious that it is hardly necessary to recapitulate them. For any aquatic contest in which Harvard and Yale are alone concerned, it is the most natural ground for meeting. Of the course too much can hardly be said. It is nearly straight along its whole length, and in ordinarily

fair weather there is no reason to be afraid of the condition of the water. The finish is some three miles from the river's mouth, and there are no high mountains to bring down sudden squalls. Besides all this the admirable arrangements of the citizens' committee kept the water clear of boats, and the flagging of the course made fouling almost an impossibility. Then, no course could be more favorable for employing the American invention of a movable Grand Stand (first tried, I believe, along the lake shore at Ithaca), consisting of a train of flat cars arranged with tiers of seats like those in a theatre. Every one who has followed a race in a boat, unless it be on a piece of water so large as to afford a space which no river can give, knows that it is an amusement which is pursued under many disadvantages. In the first place, there are all sorts of rules and regulations to be observed, which, in the second place, are not usually observed at all. The result is apt to be a great deal of confusion and considerable danger of collision. Besides this, the boats get away from all but the fastest steamers at the start, and when they are overtaken only a foreshortened view of them can be obtained, and it is unnecessary to say that in a foreshortened view of a fairly close race the spectator is lucky if he can tell which boat is ahead, and as for any notion as to "form" or the details of the stroke, it is out of the question. All those difficulties were removed at New London by the moving Grand Stand. A locomotive, of course, easily keeps the spectator abreast of the boats, and the bank of the river is so near the course that most of the race can be seen from the cars quite as easily as a performance can be witnessed from the gallery of a large theatre. With a good glass I think an expert would have had at the end of the race a very good idea of the style not merely of each crew, but of every man in each crew. The committee which had the press in charge, perhaps because the locomotive stand was an experiment, put the representatives of the newspapers on a press-boat. The result of its voyage showed, I think, the justice of the above observations; for a little way down the river this craft, freighted with the hopes and ambitions of a whole battalion of the most imaginative observers of this or any country, had a collision with a steamer from New York, and nearly capsized. The proper place for the press in the future will certainly be the cars, from which the race can really be seen. With regard to the cars themselves, they furnished, when in motion, not only an advantageous but a comfortable place of observation. A marked proof of the careful attention to details on the part of the local management was afforded by the distribution of printed notices among the passengers of the projected movements of the train, and a Bulletin of the race giving all sorts of valuable information. The traditions of our railroad system, except on the New London & Northern Railroad, require that the passenger should be kept in ignorance as to the intentions of the company with regard to their disposition of his person and effects, and this fact alone would make the New London movable stand remarkable in the history of transportation as well as racing.

The race this year was a very one-sided affair. Harvard had the best crew got together for many years, and the result was a complete demonstration of the carefulness and thoroughness of the training they had received at the hands of their excellent coach, Mr. Watson, and captain, Mr. Bancroft. It is difficult to know exactly what to say of the Yale boat. In material the two crews were not unfairly matched. The average weight of Harvard was not very different from that of Yale. But it was clear from the first stroke that Yale could not win. Not much can be inferred as to the pulling from the time made, for the race was rowed down stream on a fast-running ebb-tide. Harvard's time was nearly four minutes, and Yale's over three minutes, better than Harvard's winning time at Springfield last year; but the one remarkable feature of the Yale rowing that must have impressed itself on the mind of any one who went down the river abreast of the boats, was the extraordinary badness of its appearance. Of course, a very bad-looking stroke may be a very strong stroke, though with amateurs who have the benefit of all the traditions on the subject of "form" the presumption is against it; but the Yale stroke, if that may be called a stroke which every man pulled differently, looked like a weak as well as an ugly stroke. The faults observable, moreover, were not such as reveal themselves on minute inspection, but were elementary. Every oar appeared to be pulled with a different weight; the finish of the stroke was managed at haphazard; the "hang" at the beginning of the stroke was so marked as to suggest an unwillingness to row at all; some of the men appeared to pull with their arms rather than their whole bodies, and number four pulled a stroke of his own, from the beginning of the race to the end, which had hardly more apparent connection with that of the other seven than if he had been in another boat. While their oars took the water with a certain amount of regularity, the action of their bodies suggested the favorite English comparison of a "chime of bells." At the end of the stroke several of them lashed the water up in a manner fearful to behold.

Now, it is perfectly safe to say that no crew composed of such material, turned out by a college like Yale, ought to present such an appearance on the water. The faults of the Harvard Crew could not, without a glass, be easily detected. That they had faults is quite certain. Those that were most conspicuous were that the whole crew were rather "short," and that, while the time of the oars was fairly good, there was a marked deficiency in swing and finish, and a sluggishness in getting the hands off the chest, while one of the crew had a very bad trick of meeting his oar. But to ninety-nine hundredths of the crowd that came to see the race they appeared absolutely perfect. Young girls who had never seen eight men in a boat before were quite wild with delight over the fact that they all pulled a uniform stroke. Uniformity in stroke, however, is not the last touch, but one of the rudiments of the art.

The question as to why a boat loses a particular race is usually one of those delicate problems which had better be left for settlement to those most immediately concerned; but when a race is lost as this was, from the start, it is impossible not to venture a guess or two as to its causes. The difference between the two crews looked to an outsider like the difference between training and the want of it, between experience and skilful adaptation of means to end and untrained emulation of it. Whether this was the real cause or not, the race of last Friday would have ended in precisely the way it did and looked precisely as it did if Yale's defeat had been due to bad training and discipline. If it can be imagined that Yale had placed her fate in the hands of a coach or captain who had an abiding conviction of his own skill, combined with a remarkable lack of ability to impress upon a crew any systematic form, and great over-confidence in his power to win a race by sheer pluck, it would not be difficult to explain the easy victory of Harvard on Friday. Whether it is Mr. Cook who is responsible for it or not, we do not pretend to know; but clearly some one was responsible.

The race would of course have been more interesting if it had been closer, but as it was it was a great success. The problem of American college races seems at length to have been solved. It will not do to have them at Worcester, for there is no straightaway course; nor at Springfield, for there is not room enough; nor at Saratoga, for it is too far off, and the water cannot be counted on. To the New London course there seems to be absolutely no objection, and it is safe to predict that the Harvard-Yale regatta will be rowed here hereafter. The management of the race was so good this year that there are few criticisms to be made. The moving stand, however, is capable of improvement. When in motion the breeze made by the cars prevented it from being uncomfortably hot; but before the start, the heat for those who had to secure seats by sitting in them was far from agreeable. All the cars ought to be provided with awnings; and the seats ought to be numbered and reserved, so that the spectator need not get aboard till the last moment, nor be obliged, in order to make sure of his seat, to sit in it for a couple of hours before the race begins.

In conclusion, it may be worth while to call attention to the fact that the race this year has conclusively demonstrated the wisdom of the change from the inter-collegiate tournament to the plain Yale-Harvard race. The notion that this race is not sufficiently interesting to draw a crowd without the assistance of Brown and Princeton and the rest of the minor colleges is now effectually dissipated. Probably twice as many people as ever have really witnessed a boat-race in America saw that at New London, and saw it ten times as well as ever before. The thing that draws the crowd is, after all, the desire to see the two best-known American colleges—the "crack" American colleges—have a trial of strength. It was in this desire that American college-rowing had its origin, and it is through it that the American university race has reached its present importance in the annual national sports.

THE ANGLO-RUSSIAN AGREEMENT.

LONDON, June 16, 1878.

EIGHT weeks ago I was talking with a political friend in the South of France about the prospects of peace or war between Russia and England. It was at the most critical time during the last six months—a time when the relations of the two nations were strained to the utmost, and when, not only in this country but in every country in Europe, it was expected that war might break out at any moment. Our conversation turned on

the chances of Russia giving way to the demands of the British Cabinet and consenting to yield the point on which we insisted—namely, that the Treaty of San Stefano should be tabled in its entirety. My friend had every facility for knowing the turnings and twistings of the diplomatic game and had recently been in communication with some of the most accomplished proficients in that game. He said, in answer to my question as to what he thought would be the upshot of the whole business: "You may depend upon it there will be no war. Russia will yield in point of form. We shall yield the substance." Till two days ago I thought my friend had merely indulged in the habitual cynicism of English critics when talking of the diplomacy of their country. The days have passed into weeks since he spoke, and the weeks have formed themselves into months, and during all those days and weeks and months many English people have been living in a fool's paradise. We have been told by all our newspapers, and by all the club-gossips, and by all the talkers in society that Lord Beaconsfield has triumphed, that Russia has "knocked under," and that our Prime Minister, mounted on his war steed "Jingo," has brought the Muscovite to his knees and has resettled the map of Europe. Eight days ago, when Lord Beaconsfield and his private secretary started from Charing Cross Railway Station (which was dressed in imperial crimson for the occasion) for Berlin in a special train, he was at the pinnacle of his prosperity. A body-guard of the most warlike and demonstrative of his supporters in Parliament accompanied him to his carriage, and the old man went away upon his triumphal march as happy as a *débutante* when she has been for the first time called before the curtain. There was not one of those enthusiastic gentlemen but believed that Russia was trampled under the feet of "Jingo," and that their idol of the moment was cantering gaily over his prostrate body.

They have changed their tone to-day—those of them, at least, who believe that the remarkable state paper which came to light the day before yesterday is authentic. If this paper, which, strange to say, has been published through the agency of a leading ministerialist journal, really is authentic—and there is every reason to believe it is—then my friend of eight weeks ago was a good deal nearer the truth of the matter than the newspapers, and club-gossips, and society talkers of yesterday. The paper purports to be a sort of contract between Russia and England as to the modifications of the San Stefano treaty which are demanded and agreed to as between those two Powers, and it is binding as between those Powers, though it does not commit any of the other Powers assembled in Congress. And what is the upshot of it? The upshot is very much what my friend said it would be. Russia has put herself right in point of form and our diplomatists have gained a sort of verbal victory. But it is a victory of the Cadmean kind, which has left the vanquished stronger than the victors. Russia, with the consent of England, secures all, or nearly all, the material points she asked; and England, if she has secured anything at all, has secured the partial rehabilitation of the Turkish Empire and the grave and dangerous responsibility of keeping that Empire in order. If this is a triumph to any one it is a triumph to the Turkish bondholders, who, if all tales be true, through a portion of the press and through the agency of a knot of influential financialists operating upon the idiosyncrasies (the honest idiosyncrasies, because no one here suspects the Prime Minister of any personal or financial susceptibilities) and vanity of Lord Beaconsfield, have exercised a much greater influence upon the ministerial policy than ever has been exercised in this country in any foreign question heretofore. Turkish bonds have risen more than 50 per cent. in the last four weeks, and if it be known that England is going to exercise a sort of protectorate over Rumelia and Asia Minor, these bonds may, and probably will, rise still higher. But the triumph of a set of financial speculators, very few of whom are of English origin, is hardly the triumph which a large portion of the people of this country, including the whole of the ministerial party, have so largely discounted already. When we voted six million sterling for warlike purposes; when we consented to allow our reserve men to be called out from their industrial occupations, leaving, as many of them were compelled to do, their wives and children to be supported by the poor-rates and the contributions of the benevolent; when we winked at the straining of the constitution and the arbitrary exercise of the prerogative in the matter of the Indian contingent; and when we opened a new leaf in the history of the British Empire by employing Indian troops in European matters—when we did all this, and a good deal more, at the imminent risk of a bloody war, we thought the country, and not a body of non-English speculators, was to reap the benefit. If, however, the state paper published in the *Globe* be authentic, and if there be nothing behind it which has not yet seen the light, the financialists are the only people in England who have secured any triumph. Russia has got all, or nearly all, she fought for, and England has got nothing but a tremendous and inglorious responsibility.

Rumors of an immediate dissolution of Parliament have been rife during these recent days of discounted splendor. We have been told on the best authority that Lord Beaconsfield would come home in a blaze of glory, with a substantial settlement of the Eastern Question in his pocket; a dukedom and the Garter—or, as some one said, the two vacant Garters, one on each of his triumphal legs—for himself; a general election and an overwhelming majority for his party; and a new lease of power for his administration. There were many reasons, independent of the anticipated diplomatic victory, to suggest the probability of an early dissolution. The Parliament has become old and demoralized. It is in no mood for work. The leadership is weak and the troublesome members strong. There is no discipline in Parliament as a whole, though the party discipline of the Ministerialists is as good as it was in 1874. These conditions inside Parliament are enough to raise the presumption that it will not last long, and outside Parliament there are causes at work which tend in the same direction. The additional taxation necessary to meet the enormous expenditure of the past year has not yet been felt, but it will be felt before many months are over. It is obviously, therefore, the interest of the Government to try their chances with the constituencies before the latter have begun to feel the irksomeness of an additional twopence a pound upon their incomes and fourpence a pound upon their tobacco. In these circumstances a triumphant peace would have proved a wholesome antidote to the poison of discontent produced by increased taxation, and would have been a powerful auxiliary to the ministerialists in their appeal to the country.

It may be doubtful, however, if such a peace as is foreshadowed in the state paper referred to will be regarded by the "Jingo" party in the state as triumphant. It may almost appear ridiculous, considering all the fireworks which have been set off in honor of it during the past four weeks. It must appear a dear purchase at the price we have paid for it, and it probably will be embarrassing both to this and to future administrations. When, therefore, the country comes to count the cost of the machinery necessary to keep Disraelism in full swing, it may be inclined to say of it, as the Yorkshire farmer said of a Yorkshire parson who had led a disgraceful life, and was finally hanged for forgery—"Well, he was a bad 'un, he was, and if the devil don't get he it is no more use of us keeping a devil." To the bulk of the Liberal party the conditions of peace as furnished in the state paper are satisfactory except in two important particulars—the cession, namely, of Bessarabia and the Protectorate. The first they admit to be a question for Austria and Germany rather than for England, but they dislike the ingratitude and brutality which Russia displays in exacting this bit of territory from her ally. The Protectorate fills the Liberal mind with vague doubts and fears: a protectorate of Rumelia and Asia Minor means so very much; it is so big a thing, and it involves such an embarrassment of detail. There are plenty of men in England—retired Indian civilians and others—who could be found at twenty-four hours' notice well qualified to discharge the duties of administrators in the Asian or European provinces of Turkey, and they would discharge these duties with integrity and ability; and it may be that in the interests of civilization no better solution could be found. But the difficulty consists in the military question, and in the jealousy likely to be engendered in the minds of the other powers. Unless we had complete military ascendency, our influence would be wasted. Every quarrel between Maronites and Druses, or between any Christian and Mussulman sect in a country village, would be a source of disquietude and danger. We should have no peace. But then the question arises, How would the Mediterranean Powers—France, Italy, or Greece—view any proposal which entailed a British military ascendency? The protectorate may be a grand conception, but it is one that strikes the imagination of a man of the Disraeli temperament rather than the practical intelligence of a hard-headed and perhaps unimaginative Liberal.

THE MILITARY POWER OF THE QUEEN OF GREAT BRITAIN AND EMPRESS OF INDIA.

CAIRO, EGYPT, June 8, 1878.

NEVER has a nation more clearly demonstrated her weakness as a military power for the time being than has the Government of Great Britain under Lord Beaconsfield. During some months past that Government has been boasting before the world that while Great Britain, from economical and personal-liberty views, maintained only a small military

force within her own borders, she yet held in India an immense reserve army, ready and willing, ay, greatly desirous, to operate in Europe in defence of the power and honor of the "mother" country. It might have answered the purposes of the moment to vaunt in the public press this great power. *Perhaps* the nations of Europe might have been led to believe that a real military power in the form of a large and reliable army, though distant, existed at the disposal of the British Government, and that only motives of love of peace and of prudence restrained Great Britain from displaying this great military power before the eyes of Europe. I do not say that wise European Governments *would* have believed this, but that some *might* have believed it. Unfortunately, however, for the reputation of Great Britain as the possessor of practical military power in a great land force, the Earl of Beaconsfield, in his love of stage effect, saw fit to attempt to impress Europe by a mobilization of a portion of this great auxiliary force, and its introduction into Europe. And what has been this effect?

The first detachment of these auxiliaries, amounting to possibly seven thousand armed men, has reached Malta *two months* after the order for embarkation, and at an expense of a little more than three-quarters of a million pounds sterling. Probably there is not a government in Europe of the first, second, or third rate which could not have put into the field from its *reserves*, within two weeks, twice that number of good soldiers, and with the same amount of money have maintained that double force for more than a year. If we are to judge by the time taken in thus sending from India a force of seven thousand armed men, how long a time would be required to convey to the Mediterranean a force of one hundred thousand men, with their horses and material of war? As regards the question of expense, it need not be now discussed, since the prevailing impression on the Continent, and especially in the East, is, that Great Britain has at her disposal inexhaustible supplies of guineas, and can afford to pay even double the amount per man which this expedition of seven thousand men has cost. That is a question to be discussed, not by the soldier but by the political economist and financier. But supposing the money to be forthcoming as may be desired; supposing it were possible for Great Britain to despatch in *one day* from India a force of one hundred thousand men, and that, for that purpose, she could assemble the necessary number of steamships and sailing vessels (to be towed by the steamers) for that force—supposing all this possible, what time would be required for the assembling of one hundred thousand men in the Mediterranean Sea, and what would be the cost?

It must be remembered that the shortest line between Bombay and the Mediterranean Sea is via the Suez Canal, and even in the case which we have supposed, that all the ships required could leave India on the same day, there is still to be considered the capacity of the Suez Canal for passing ships, and especially sailing ships, towed safely and regularly by the steamtugs of the Suez Canal Company. If we take this into account, it will be found that a fleet bearing the army of 100,000 men, with their horses and material, could by no possibility assemble in the Mediterranean Sea ready to proceed to a point of landing in less than sixty days, under the most favorable circumstances of wind and weather. The cost of this rapid transportation alone could not fall under £10,000,000 (ten millions of pounds sterling). Now, any second-rate power in Europe—say Belgium, Switzerland, or Denmark—could mobilize within half that time the same number of troops, and for half the money could maintain them for one year. But any soldier must know that it would be quite impossible to transport an Indian army of 100,000 to the Mediterranean with all the means of the British Imperial Government even in double the time stated; that is, it would require not less than four months to concentrate 100,000 Indian troops in a position suitable for a base of operations to act against any European Power. Were the order for the embarkation given on the 15th of June, the force could not be in place before the 15th of October. How could a campaign be commenced with those troops before the 1st of November, that is to say, in the commencement of the European winter—for Indian troops?

But there is something much more fatal than all that has been stated to the idea that the Indian troops would add strength to the British army to such an extent as has been set forth. The composition of the Indian army itself makes it incapable as against a European army fighting in Europe. The British Indian army is, for the holding in subjection of the millions of Indians, made up of men of three different religions, those of each religion bitterly hating and despising those of each of the other two. This composition of the army is necessary in India in order that the Government may guard against revolt on the part of the men of any one religion. It accomplishes thoroughly this object, and makes these troops, when well watched by British European troops, useful in holding in subjection their own countrymen. But it necessarily destroys anything like a spirit of comradeship among the soldiers, and takes away all confidence in each class in the support, in time of danger, of the other classes. This was noted during the passage of the 7,000 through the canal of Suez. On one ship would be found three different kitchens for the soldiers of the three different religions, for those of one belief would not eat that which was cooked or touched by a man of another creed. This went so far that, if the *shadow* of a Moslem comrade fell on a dish prepared for a Brahmin, the latter would instantly throw away the food thus contaminated and call for a fresh supply! Leaving out of account the slight, warm-weather physique of these Indians, who would scarcely be capable of fighting on equal terms against the strongly-built, well-developed European soldier, how could a force of such composition be maintained in Europe, and what chances of success would it have in fighting troops of one nationality, one national sentiment, and one religion? As no Indian is permitted to rise to a grade higher than that of a company commander, all the field and staff officers of these troops must be British—of yet another race and yet another religion, as well as of a different language. With all these difficulties to contend with, while a European nation finding itself at war with England should count 100,000 Indians as 100,000 soldiers in estimating the military strength necessary to put forth in a struggle against that country, a prudent British general, in estimating his own force, could hardly count them for 50,000, if as much as that.

The moral question involved, as to the *right* of England to employ such troops against those of civilized Europe, is for others than military men to consider, and the question of the effect which must necessarily be produced on the British army and on the British nation by the employment of such troops against a nation which fights with its own blood against such auxiliaries, should be discussed only between the people of Great Britain. Englishmen should be among the first to remember that a country is always eventually ruled by that portion of its people which is willing and ready to fight for it; and if the special force of the Empress of India is to do the main fighting for the British Government, Great Britain must be content to have the order of title reversed, and to acknowledge frankly that "Empress of India" has become the first title of the sovereign. "Victoria, Empress of India, Queen of Great Britain and Ireland," should be the future title; and, should Her Imperial Majesty still retain the title so proudly borne by her ancestors—"Defender of the Faith"—justice would require that the world should know which of the faiths—Christian, Moslem, Brahmin, or other—is the one intended, and which she is bound to defend.

Correspondence.

THE COUNTESS POTOCKA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to correct the false impression conveyed by an anonymous correspondent in the *Nation* of last week. The materials for my historical sketch of the Countess Potocka were necessarily drawn from German sources, and from Polish writers in French, and of this the editor of *Scribner's Monthly* was duly informed. To establish "a case of plagiarism," a few lines picked here and there from my paper are compared with the text of a German article of half the length. I confess that the lines chosen are unwarrantably literal—a result of my carelessness in handling translated notes. But the fault is made to appear flagrant by a dextrous use of those excerpted lines supplemented by the phrase "etc.," which unjustly conveys the impression that the comparison made is a fair sample of the whole, whereas careful examination shows that nine lines out of four pages of the article are all that can fairly be put in the place of the misleading phrase "etc." That the article should afford *any* ground for such suspicion is to me a matter of regret.

Respectfully, C. C. Buel.

13 Park Avenue, July 1, 1878.

WESTERN CULTURE AND FARMING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You will perhaps consent to add my observations of the West to the estimate of your correspondent in your last number. I have often noticed the isothermal line of culture he speaks of (though I am not familiar with Texas), and I think he is generally correct. I should draw it,

however, a little farther south, so as to take in Iowa generally and the eastern counties of Nebraska. The great tract north of this line varies very little in its social character on any large scale, though it presents many minor local differences in its clusters of settlers of one or another nationality. The traveller frequently comes across little communities of New-Englanders, with their book and magazine clubs, and an interest in literary matters, though they are the exception, even here. The mass of the people certainly are all through this country "bright, quick, and industrious," and I may add that the farming class is honest and economical. This whole tract is essentially a farming country, very fertile, but requiring steady hard labor to develop its fertility, and the settlers understand this. The difference in the proportion of the corn and wheat raised does not materially affect the social characteristics, and these are such as justly to inspire us with hope. The great mass of foreigners which is filling these fertile plains is decidedly superior to the native-born squatter class which preceded it. It has adopted the best of our New England characteristics and improves rapidly with each generation. On the other hand, even in the most favored spots, the children of the best class of New England settlers retrograde very perceptibly from their fathers' standpoint, becoming ruder and rougher and less attentive to either the niceties or the intellectualities of life. Yet, as your correspondent remarks, they are still superior to the lazier, amusement-seeking population farther south.

You are mistaken in supposing that there is land to be had for the taking in this region that is worth taking, but prices are generally so low beyond the Mississippi that large farming profits are the rule. It is often said in the East that Western farmers cannot afford to pay ten per cent. interest on their farms; but Western men know better. Rented farms usually pay more than that, while leaving a fair share to the tenant, and this seems conclusive evidence. The Eastern theorizers forget that ten per cent. on twelve dollars an acre is a good deal easier to meet than five per cent. on a hundred dollars an acre. Then, farmers do not generally live as expensively as in the East. They have no carpets on their floors or room papers on their walls, which are often not only unpainted but unplastered. They do not buy pianos or books, or even newspapers. The only thing they are extravagant in is machinery sold on credit. Unfortunately the town population is generally inferior to them in honesty, and the legal profession is especially low; but these evils are slowly being cured.

The principal mistake that settlers are making just now is in going too far West. We have had three extraordinarily wet seasons, during which farming has been very profitable in the western parts of Kansas and Nebraska, where it has not succeeded before. But there is no sufficient reason to think that there has been any permanent climatic change on any large scale; and if not, it must be expected that farming will again be comparatively poor after you get one hundred miles west of the Missouri. The soil shows that vegetation never was as luxurious as further East; it is thinner and more rapidly impoverished by the exhaustive Western method of cultivation. Official records show that the average rain-fall diminishes suddenly from one-fourth to one-third. In the first five years of the 1870 decade three years were of heavy loss from drought. Every Western man remembers how the farmers were leaving in 1874 the land they are now pouring into in such numbers. Very probably the general setting out of trees and breaking of the soil temper the season somewhat and equalize the part of the rain-fall detained by the soil; but, after every reasonable allowance is made for this, no immense change is to be expected, and the fact remains that a great many settlers have gone in the last year to lands which, in average seasons, do not pay to farm, and that the first dry year or two will send them back in swarms, for the new farmer is almost always heavily laden with debt and cannot stand two successive years of drought. The Western land-grant railroads have, no doubt, acted very shrewdly for themselves in pushing the sales of their most western lands as strenuously as they have done in the last year; but it may probably be unfortunate for the farmers that their memory is not a little longer. H. D.

July 1.

A DISAPPOINTING BOOK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: When a scientific man who lives by his profession buys a new book in his special department, at a high price, he has reason to demand an equivalent for his money. If he finds that he has been deceived by the title, and has bought a new reprint of an old work, he is apt to be doubly vexed on finding that he has paid money for a manual everything contained in which he has in a half-dozen other books. I am led to make these remarks from the fact that I was recently misled by a title, and bought an old book for a new one. In buying the new edition of 'Industrial Chemistry, a manual, etc., . . . edited throughout and supplemented with chapters on the metals, etc.,' I had reason to think from the advertisements that I was buying a hand-book brought down to the times. I find I have been—cheated. I do not think this a too harsh expression. I venture to say that this work contains nothing not found in Gmelin, or Watts's Dictionary, or Wurtz's Dictionary, or the new 'Handwörterbuch,' while each and every one of these books surpass this new (?) manual in fulness and freshness of material.

In the index of this professedly modern work the word Aniline does not occur. Under Nickel a foolishly absurd process of nickel-plating is given, and no hint or allusion is made to the Adams process, upon which the whole modern art is grounded. Under Zinc the old stupid mistake about the color of the oxide under heat is perpetuated, though a reference to a 40-year-old Berzelius would have corrected the error. No notice is taken of the recent prominence attained by Vanadium and its salts in manufactures, and under Cobalt (I open the book at random and this is what first strikes my eye) we have the amazing statement, "Cobalt is never used in the arts; its metallurgy is confined to laboratory processes." Upon p. 275 is a drawing of an apparatus for the analysis of carbonate of sodium, and at the end of the description is the remark, wholly needless and untrue, "Scheibler's apparatus for determining the amount of carbonic acid is of like construction." Benzol, anthracen, and naphthalin are merely glanced at; fulminates of mercury and silver seem to be omitted; the German word *Surrogate* is translated by the English word surrogate; there are gross misprints and mistranslations, and the book, with some exceptions, appears to be a piece of job-work very badly done.

Yours, etc., J. M. Merrick.

Boston, July 1, 1878.

FLORIDA ELECTION FRAUDS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your summary of the evidence taken by the Congressional Sub-Committee, lately in session at Jacksonville, in relation to the electoral fraud perpetrated at Precinct No. 13, Leon County, is as follows:

"Testimony was also given of the ballot-box stuffing in Leon County, Florida, at Precinct No. 13, by Inspector Bowes, who holds a position in Washington, D. C. He put in 73 or 74 'jolly jokers,' and made his count to correspond, and boasted that he had saved the State for Hayes."

Now, the audacity which enables "Thomas W. Lion, 222 Second Street, Washington, D. C.," in the *Nation* of the 20th inst., to represent these "jolly jokers" as "legitimate ballots for the Presidential election of 1876, cast by legal voters, and proved to be legitimate at the counting of the ballots," is nearly overpowering.

I send one of the "jokers," an exact presentation of which, if you choose, you can give to your readers. It is a diminutive scrap of paper on which are found the names of *four* candidates for Presidential electors, *one* for governor, *one* for lieutenant-governor, *one* for Congress, First Congressional District, and *four* for the Assembly, Leon County, eleven names in all, with the offices to be filled all printed in full, on the space of a little more than one square inch.

The existence of these slips of paper was discovered by the Democrats the evening before the election. Their purpose was not doubtful, viz.: to be folded in tickets of the ordinary size, thus enabling the Republican voter to duplicate his vote. Democratic runners were at once despatched throughout the county denouncing the contemplated fraud. No serious attempt was therefore made, I believe, to carry out the scheme at any of the numerous voting places except No. 13 (Richardson's school-house), where the inspectors being Bowes and two negroes, all Republicans, Bowes was able to work into the ballot-box 73 or 74 of the "jokers."

The proof of the fraud was established by overwhelming evidence before the Congressional Sub-Committee which met at this place a short time after the election, at the head of which (the sub-committee) was Mr. Thompson, of Mass., Gen. Butler's successful competitor. Bowes promptly disappeared, and when next heard of is in office at Washington—as why should he not be, having "saved the State for Hayes"? The Circuit Court for this (Leon) County indicted him for the frauds, and the sheriff has now in his hands a capias for his arrest.

When the ballots were counted, 73 or 74 of the "little jokers" came *out* of the box. Not one was seen to go in, as proved by Amos Rouss, a white man of excellent character who stood (or sat) by, and was closely watching all day, and by S. R. Booth (colored Republican), inspector,

who lately at Jacksonvillet estified that "he saw none of the 74 'little-joker' tickets about the place or voted on that day, and first knew of them by seeing them in the ballot-box on counting the votes with Bowes and Dent, the other inspectors."

The testimony of Mr. Charles H. Edwards, County Clerk at the time, now residing in Jacksonville, was this :

"C. H. Edwards testified: Was County Clerk in Leon County before, during, and after the canvass; was told before election that 'jolly jokers' had been prepared, but understood they were not to be used; think Purman had them in his possession before election ; had conversation with Joseph Bowes, now holding a position in Washington, who was one of the inspectors at Precinct No. 13. Bowes told me afterwards that he got in or put in 73 or 74 of the jokers; remonstrated with him about it when the Congressional Committee was there, and told him his bungling manner of doing the whole thing had got the party into trouble; he said he didn't care; that those 73 votes had given Hayes a majority in Florida. I understood he put the tickets in himself. The canvass made by the County Board included all the votes, as shown by the returns of each precinct. Bowes said the poll-list had been made to correspond with the number of 'jokers,' put in. My opinion, when told before election about the 'jokers,' was that they were to be used fraudulently, and for that reason I and other Republicans remonstrated against their use. Purman told me that he knew of an election that had been carried by the use of such votes, and showed me one or two of those it was proposed to use."

(Purman's name you will see on the "little joker." He was Republican candidate for Congress.)

Judge McLin swore as follows :

"Witness was shown by Bowes one of the 'little-joker' tickets prior to the election, and was informed by Bowes that the use intended to be made of them was to fold one in each ticket of the ordinary size, so that the voter would vote two instead of one vote at a time. Witness remonstrated against this, and thought at the time the plan had been abandoned."

If Bowes desires to give his evidence, by all means let him be present at the term of our Circuit Court, and an opportunity will be given him under the humane provisions of the Florida statute which permits criminals to testify in their own behalf. Will he come ? But perhaps he cannot be spared from his official duties at Washington.

Your obedient servant, R. B. Hilton.

Tallahassee, June 26, 1878.

[We annex a fac-simile of the diminutive ballot which accompanies Mr. Hilton's letter, and which *prima facie* certainly suggests a fraudulent intent.—Ed. Nation.]

Presidential Electors.—Frederick C. Humphries, Charles H. Pearce, William H. Holden, Thomas W. Long.
For Governor.—Marcellus L. Stearns.
For Lieutenant Governor.—David Montgomery.
For Congress, First District.—William J. Purman.
For the Assembly, Leon County.—William F. Thompson, William H. Ford, Edmund C. Weeks, Denard Quarterman.

Notes.

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS will issue by the middle of this month a novel, 'The Cossacks,' by Count Leo Tolstoy. This work, which Turgeneff has pronounced on the whole the best Russian work ever written, has been translated at Turgeneff's instance by Mr. Eugene Schuyler. For some particulars about Count Tolstoy one may consult the article "Russian Contemporary Thought" in the *Contemporary Review* for June. ——Another translation which deserves to be welcomed is that of Paul Lacombe's 'Short History of the French People,' in the press of H. A. Young & Co., Boston.——A work which ought to be interesting, 'Amy and Marian's Voyage Around the World,' is announced by D. Lothrop & Co., Boston. These young ladies are the daughters of the Rev. Nehemiah Adams, who accompanied them. The illustrations will be from photographs, and in this respect the book should therefore compare favorably with Mrs. Brassey's.——Mr. John Bartlett has got upon the track of that familiar quotation, "Tho' lost to sight, to mem'ry dear." It was composed in the present century and probably during the past fifty years by George Linley, as part of a song which he also set to music (about 1848) for the vocalist, Augustus Braham. Linley was an Englishman, born in 1798, who died so recently (1865) that it is a wonder he did not step forward and claim the authorship. The song had six stanzas, the first beginning with the line in question ; the third and sixth ending with "To mem'ry thou art dear" repeated as a refrain.——The American Philological Association will hold its tenth annual session at Saratoga, beginning on Tuesday, July 9. President Gildersleeve's address will be delivered on Wednesday. The place of meeting will be the Opera House connected with the Grand Union Hotel.——Vol. ii., Nos. 45–46, a double number, of *Psyche* contains the first annual address of the President of the Cambridge Entomological Club, Mr. Samuel H. Scudder. It possesses chief interest for specialists, but on the subject of ants the general reader will be greatly edified.——The sixth annual report of the Directors of the Chicago Public Library shows an unfortunate difference between themselves and the City Council in regard to the support due the institution for its proper working. This difference, expressed in figures, is $21,025. The actual expenses of the library for the year ending May 31 were $33,787 ; the Council appropriates but $23,000.——Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, has published a striking photographic likeness, imperial size, of the late Dr. Charles Hodge, Professor of Didactic and Exegetical Theology at Princeton. Dr. Hodge's fatal illness was brought on by his attendance at the funeral of his contemporary, the late Prof. Henry. The portraits of these two eminent men afford excellent types of the scientific and the clerical physiognomy ; Mr. Galton's composite portraiture could hardly produce better. Mr. Gutekunst, by the way, has just had the cross of the Knights of the Austrian Order of Franz-Joseph conferred upon him by the Emperor of Austria, in recognition of his artistic merit. ——It appears that we were in error in ascribing the article in *Lippincott's* for July called "A Levantine Picnic" to Captain Strong of the U. S. S. *Canandaigua*.——Cassell, Petter & Galpin have furnished a liberal example as employers by announcing their intention to set aside yearly a fixed proportion of their profits as a fund for payments on account of the death or incapacity from age, illness, or accident of employees who have served seven years or more. The sum set aside for this year is £600. ——In *Hermes* appears a valuable article by Theodor Mommsen on the family of Germanicus.——In the *Rheinisches Museum* we may note an article by W. Foerster on the difficult subject of the determination of the quantity of Latin vowels in syllables long by position, which, in addition to the means already employed for that purpose (scattered notices of Roman grammarians, the "i longa" and the apices—and, we may add, the vowel-gemination—of the inscriptions and Greek transliterations of Latin words), seeks to recommend a criterion hitherto little regarded—viz., evidence drawn from the vocalism of the Romanic languages.

—The history of a great building like that of a great man has its lessons, and of all our recent architecture what more worthy to be commemorated than the Harvard Memorial Hall ? A hundred years hence something more than a thin pamphlet will be needed to review its associations. How it came to be thought of, how the money was raised, and how the building grew into a harmonious whole, answering a four or five-fold purpose, is told in forty pages of the 'Final Reports of the Building Committee and of the Treasurer of the Harvard Memorial Fund,' June 26, 1878 (Cambridge : Press of John Wilson & Son). The original idea of a memorial is herein attributed to the late ex-President James Walker ; to the late Mr. Charles G. Loring were due the suggestion that the memorial should take the form of a building, and the happy thought of combining dining-hall and theatre for the everyday needs and uses of the college. The total cost of the building was $387,039.36, of which the alumni and friends contributed somewhat more than half ; the college $15,000 ; the Sanders bequest nearly $65,000, and Mr. Henry Lee (a model treasurer) upwards of $18,000. So well was the fund managed that the $73,705 of interest and profit represented an average of nine per cent. The alumni's list of contributors begins with the late Horace Binney (class of 1797) and ends with the class of 1870. Nevertheless, eighteen classes that might have been represented took no part in the subscription, and only one in five of the living alumni responded to the committee's appeals ; the larger number of the non-contributors, as the treasurer says pointedly, "voluntarily omitted to contribute to the erection of a building intended to commemorate the self-sacrifice of their brethren." However, the building is there, triumphant over timidity, stinginess, or party feeling ; a lasting monument of courage, patience, wisdom, and gratitude as well as of heroism, with an indispensable educational function whose value time will steadily increase.

—A remarkable instance of the vitality of a clever lie is to be seen in the repeated references to the pretended will of Peter the Great. A writer in the July *Atlantic* has even taken the trouble to reprint the will *in extenso*, as being "little known" and of "well-attested" "authenticity." It is to be presumed that this writer had never seen a little brochure published in 1872 by E. Dentu at Paris, and attributed to the late M. Thiers, entitled "Les Auteurs du Testament de Pierre le Grand : page d'Histoire," or the researches on this subject of Professor Berkholtz of

Riga, printed not long ago in, we believe, the *Russische Revue*. These authors have plainly shown that the pretended will was, in all probability, originally forged by order of Napoleon just previous to the campaign against Moscow, with the purpose of frightening Europe about Russian designs. It first appeared in a book published at Paris in 1812 by Lesur, of the French Foreign Office, entitled "Des progrès de la puissance russe depuis son origine jusqu'au commencement du XIXe siècle," many copies of which were taken with the army by the Duke de Bassano. In 1836, when the Eastern question came up for a while, the will reappeared in a more precise and diplomatic form in "Les Mémoires du Chevalier d'Éon" by Gaillardet, who is chiefly known as having aided Dumas in writing the drama of "La Tour de Nesle." The Chevalier d'Éon was declared to have discovered its existence and to have copied it. Léonard Chodzko, a Polish writer, in 'La Pologne illustrée' in 1839, adds details as to the time the will was written by Peter. Apart from the intrinsic impossibility of the ideas and the language of the pretended will being used in a Russian state paper of the time of Peter the Great (note the term "schismatic Greeks" in Art. xii., and "our swarms of Oriental hordes and greedy nomads" in Art. xiv., which, by the way, does not appear in the translation given in the *Atlantic*), the archives of Russia down to the end of the last century, including the most secret papers, and all documents relating to Peter the Great, are open to historical students, foreign as well as Russian, and no such document has ever been discovered there, nor has any one ever succeeded in finding in the French archives the copy alleged to be brought by the Chevalier d'Éon to the Abbé de Bernis in 1757. In the *Academy* of June 1 there is an article on this subject based on an article of Prof. Harry Bresslau in the *Deutsche Revue* for April, 1878, giving additional evidence of the forgery.

—As usual, *Scribner's* for July challenges attention by reason of its wood-cuts, but the articles are of less than the usual interest and of slight merit judged merely as literary productions. We except the serial tales —Mr. Eggleston's "Roxy," now in its 44th chapter, and Miss Trafton's "His Inheritance," concluded in this number at the 38th ; and we certainly mean no disrespect to Dr. Brewer's third authoritative paper on bird-architecture, with its copious illustrations. The designs of "A Few Antiques," representing sundry articles exhibited in last summer's Loan Collection of the Society of Decorative Art, are a valuable memorandum as far as they go, and hints of other treasures are given in the accompanying letter-press. There is some post-mortem glorification of Chief Matsell in the account of the "Police of New York." A plain summary of the relations of Italy to the popes of the present century, by Mr. Luigi Monti, can be profitably read even by those who do not labor under the errors which he seeks to combat, viz.: in regard to the confiscation of monastic corporate property, and the general status of the "prisoner of the Vatican" under the Law of the Guarantees. Mr. Burroughs, in his fantastic discourse on the weather, fails signally to answer his own question, "Is it going to rain?" Quotations about probable showers of muriatic, nitric, and sulphuric acid on Saturn and Jupiter (as to the possible coexistence of which the chemist might have something to say), and a few old saws, make us none the wiser about getting in our hay or leaving our umbrellas at home.

—In the 'Prairie,' the last of the five Leatherstocking Tales of Cooper, the old woodsman dies, drawing himself up stiffly like the soldier that he was, answering "Here!" and falling back dead. In the 'Newcomes' the old colonel goes back as a poor brother, a pensioner, to die in the Grey Friars where he had studied as a lad. And there at last the end comes, described in words that easily cling to the memory :

"And just as the last bell struck, a peculiar sweet smile shone over his face, and he lifted up his head a little and quickly said, 'Adsum!' and fell back. It was the word we used at school when names were called ; and, lo, he whose heart was as that of a little child had answered to his name and stood in the presence of The Master."

This coincidence was long ago pointed out, but though the 'Prairie' was published years before the 'Newcomes,' and was doubtless familiar to Thackeray, with this author a charge of plagiarism must be dismissed as soon as raised ; nor, to our thinking, need it be raised in the latest instance of the employment of the same idea. In the June number of *Appleton's Journal* is published the final instalment of 'By Celia's Arbor,' a novel, by James Rice and Walter Besant. In its last chapter a sea-captain dies :

"And then a strange thing happened. His voice, which had been sinking to a faint murmur, suddenly grew full again and strong. He lifted his figure and sat upright. His eyes flashed with a sudden light as he raised his voice and looked upward. He lifted his right hand to the peak of his cap—the old familiar salute of a sailor—as he reported himself.

"'Come aboard, sir!'

"Then his hand dropped and his head fell forward. The captain was dead."

—The death of Sir Thomas Duffus Hardy, the Deputy Keeper of Her Majesty's Public Record Office, in London, on the 15th ult., is a loss to the country and to men of learning all over the world. A truer, more indefatigable, and more accurate antiquarian never lived. He entered the British civil service in his fifteenth year, as a junior clerk in the branch Record Office "in the Wakefield tower" of the Tower of London. He died, in his seventy-fourth year, the virtual keeper of the whole of the public records of the realm, the highest position to which he could attain in the public department having custody of the national archives and state papers. He was really without a rival in his recondite knowledge of all the sources of the history of the English nation, and, like all real scholars, he was as modest and retiring in putting forward his strength as if he were but a beginner in his almost limitless field of labor. To him alone belongs the credit of throwing open the use of the national records to the public without fees of any kind, and the honor of suggesting and superintending the series of 'Chronicles and Memorials of English History,' which, for the most part, are worthy of the country whose great past they enshrine and illumine. Sir Thomas D. Hardy was born in Port Royal, January, 1804. He was twice married, and leaves behind him two daughters, one by each marriage.

—In the settlement of the Eastern Question all civilized nations must approve whatever extension of territory or influence falls to Greece. Her claims on European consideration as one of the subject nationalities of Turkey are second only to those of the Slavs, and of course in some parts of Turkey they are not subordinate, but precedent. In spite of oppression the Greeks of the empire have kept alive the spirit of learning by means of schools and literary and scientific institutions, and their efforts have been "such as would deserve the highest praise even if they were living in a free country with all the rights of citizens." We quote from an interesting communication from Mr. Schuyler, writing from Constantinople, in the *Athenæum* for May 18. "Throughout all the smaller towns of Thrace, Macedonia, Thessaly, Asia Minor, and the islands," he continues, "there is a complete system of Greek schools, under the supervision of the Greek bishops, nearly all of which were founded by private subscriptions or by some syllogos or society. In all the larger towns, such as Constantinople, Adrianople, Smyrna, and even Philippopolis, there are high-schools of different grades, almost colleges," whose instruction is excellent. Greeks from all parts of the world have been the founders of these schools by legacies or gifts. The chief of the literary societies is the syllogos of Constantinople, which holds frequent meetings and provides lecture-courses, and has a fair library (replacing a more valuable one lost by fire), and a museum, principally of inscriptions on stone from the neighborhood of Constantinople. The Thracian syllogos and Epirote syllogos are the guardians of education in their respective provinces. Most active and successful of all is the Society of the Evangelical School at Smyrna. The school was founded in 1743 by a Greek teacher and now numbers 1,500 pupils. A few years ago some of the young Smyrniotes undertook to improve the library and museum connected with it, and the former now contains upwards of 15,000 volumes, very rich in works pertaining to Asia Minor, and freely accessible to everybody. Inscriptions, statuettes, bas-reliefs, a fine collection of coins, beautiful and rare MSS., etc., make the museum an important adjunct to the library for the study of the history and antiquities of the East, which, indeed, says Mr. Schuyler, can nowhere else be pursued to advantage in Turkey.

—The *Nederlandsche Spectator*, in translating the collection of blunders which we printed lately, mentions that Gervinus ascribes a work of Prof. David of Leuven to D. Leuven ; and the translator adds another to the list by rendering one of our clauses thus : "*Mr.* Andover is an authority in ecclesiastical matters." Indeed the blunder crop has been large lately. *Polybiblion* refers to the "Critical dictionary of Sir Austin Allibone" ; the *Bookworm* for May, in its Burns bibliography, makes one German edition to be published at Uebertragen, and calls the publishers of two others J. G. Gotta Schen. Lagrange, in his recent "History of English Humor," quotes from the American wit, O. W. Holms. The *American Bookseller* classifies "An exposition of betting and book-making [*i.e.*, making up betting-books]" under Literary Criticism. In the two follow-

ing instances let the reader see if his conjectural criticism can restore the original text. From a French catalogue :

Ivan et Noé, par Walther Coq.

Asked for at a Boston library :

Liton's Rinzy.

GARDINER'S PERSONAL GOVERNMENT OF CHARLES I.*

"ENGLAND may well be proud," writes Mr. Gardiner, "of possessing in Wentworth a nobler statesman than Richelieu, of the type to which the great cardinal belonged." Is this estimate of Strafford (to call Wentworth by the name under which he is known to history) borne out by Mr. Gardiner's own narrative ? The cardinal stands pre-eminent among statesmen by his influence over others, by his sagacious and enlightened adaptation of means to ends, by his keen insight into the requirements of the age, and by the determination with which he followed a policy which, whether bad or good, has been in one form or another pursued by every king or minister who has permanently influenced the destiny of France. In each of the points in which the cardinal was strong Strafford will, even on Mr. Gardiner's view of the facts, be found to have been weak.

Strafford towered by a head and shoulders above all the other politicians who supported the personal policy of Charles I. His strength of will, his energy, his vigor as an administrator, are confessed even by his foes. But it is striking to observe how little influence he seems to have exerted on a master who was a mere puppet in the hands of Buckingham. Strafford's administration in Ireland was thwarted by Charles's desire to job. Strafford, again, was opposed to the bootless intrigues which Charles was pleased to consider a foreign policy, yet he could not keep the king from pursuing schemes abroad fatal to the success of his policy at home. Strafford thought it of consequence that he should obtain a public recognition of the monarch's esteem, yet the coveted title was only obtained with difficulty. If Strafford disapproved of the means by which Laud attempted to strengthen the Church, his incapacity to put a check upon the clerical fussiness of a colleague whose intellect he must have despised, affords a curious example of the failure on the part of a strong man to influence men inferior to himself. If, on the other hand, it be said that Strafford approved as a statesman of Laud's ecclesiastical policy we have at once the measure of his incapacity. Assume, as Mr. Gardiner does, that Strafford's aim was to found an enlightened and benevolent despotism ; of all the means by which this object could be obtained the most hopeless was to drill the English people after the manner which naturally approved itself to an archbishop who carried to Lambeth all the love of petty discipline which well became the president of St. John's. Moreover, the errors of Laud are intellectually more pardonable than those of his lay colleague. A churchman who *bona fide* thought Presbyterianism a sin might sacrifice worldly advantages in order to combat spiritual evil; but a statesman cannot urge in mitigation of his blunders the pleas which may be advanced for the errors of a bigot. The cardinal who was willing to give toleration to Protestants in France and active support to Protestants in Germany, would have laughed at the fatuity of politicians who lost the chance of strengthening the royal power because they must needs move the communion-table from the middle to the end of the church.

But Strafford (it may be urged) was compelled to support Laud in schemes which a layman's sagacity disapproved. Let, then, his powers as a statesman be judged by his acts within his own special province. If in any place he appears to advantage it is in Ireland. Firmness, strength of will, and energy he undoubtedly possessed, and the government of Ireland has been so bad that the rule of an energetic despot was for centuries at least a considerable improvement on governments which had all the evils without the strength of despotism. Yet even here the statesman who is compared to Richelieu shows but slight traces of statesmanship. To introduce order of some kind was, on Strafford's own view, his primary duty. He began his task by an act of which the perfidy is far less remarkable than the rashness. He unsettled titles to land which, but for a formal error on the part of a government clerk, would have been as good in law as the claim by which he held his own estates. To do this he broke the plighted faith of the crown ; and at a time when his obvious policy was to strengthen royal power in Ireland in order to overpower popular opposition in England, he estranged from the king land-owners whom he might easily have led to feel that the strength of the throne was the security for their own possessions.

If there be one test of statesmanlike skill it is the power of subordinating private animosity to considerations of policy. If Strafford be tried by this criterion it is hardly possible to give him credit for the powers he undoubtedly possessed. His whole conduct to Mountnorris is the conduct of a man swayed by personal hatred. A statesman might have found it worth while to get rid of an opponent by a judicial murder, but no man who could lay claim to a statesmanlike character ought to have thought it advisable to pass on an opponent an unjust sentence of death which was not to be executed, in order to compel a rival to surrender office. It is, however, possible that a man of profound insight into the wants of his age may yet be unable to control his own passions, but there is nothing on earth to show that Strafford was one of those men who, as the expression goes, understood his time. The total failure of his policy is not of itself an absolute proof of his incapacity. Cromwell's lifelong efforts to make the ideas of Puritanism supreme ended in failure, but the Protector's bitterest foes do not deny that he stands, as regards statesmanship, on a level with the greatest monarchs who have governed England. The bigotry of Louis XIV. ruined half the results of Richelieu's policy, yet no one doubts the cardinal's claim to fame. What condemns a political leader is not mere failure but the obvious want of power to perceive what are really the great forces of his age and country. The course of history has proved that in the central government and in the people of France, as opposed to the nobility, lay the strength of the country ; and Richelieu made the strength of the government and the depression of the nobility the centre of his policy. The course of events has also shown that in religious toleration lay the solution of the difficulties which harassed the seventeenth century ; and the cardinal, if he cared little for moral or intellectual freedom, had the sense to perceive that the prosperity of France depended on extending something like toleration to French Protestants. The course of history has also shown that the English nobility and the English middle class have in the long run more than outweighed the power of the crown ; and Cromwell, if from his position he could not build his policy on the support of the nobles, tried, though in vain, to found a commonwealth strong in the support of the middle class. He saw with far more clearness than even Richelieu that religious toleration was what the age required, and granted to all except Roman Catholics a religious freedom almost unknown in Europe.

In what respect can Strafford compare for insight with men like these ? His policy rested on the support of a king whom no one could trust, and of an archbishop who thought he could bully the English people as he might bully the undergraduates of his college. Nor were Strafford's political ideas really suited to his age. Every page of Mr. Gardiner's history proves that Charles might have made himself a despot if he could have identified himself with the sentiments of his people ; but neither Strafford nor Charles seems to have recognized the elementary truth that no nation of any spirit ever gave up its freedom unless it obtained some benefit in return. Strafford, it may be supposed, borrowed his ideas of government from the traditions of the Tudors, but he seems to have forgotten that if Henry VIII. was a despot he represented all the feelings and prejudices of his subjects. Strafford, no less than Charles, seems to have fancied that England might be ruled by a monarch who, when he had usurped all the powers of the state, used them to oppose the most cherished wishes of Englishmen. That Strafford was a man of iron will and reckless boldness no one will deny, but to compare him with Richelieu, Cromwell, or even Walpole, is like the attempt to put a daring swordsman on a level with Napoleon. If the question be asked how it happened that Strafford, if not a man of real genius, impressed his opponents with dread no less than with hatred, the answer lies in the circumstances of his time. The most important conclusion which Mr. Gardiner's work enforces is that but for Charles's incredible folly the nation was hardly prepared to resist his despotism. There was, no doubt, much discontent, but there was no violent outbreak. The country was prosperous, the powers of the crown were ill defined, the judges supported the prerogative, and resistance to the king was almost identified with resistance to the law. To secure his power Charles needed but an army, and this need Strafford strove hard to supply. That a man of Charles's calibre could under any circumstances have crushed the liberties of England it is hard to believe, but men who saw the prerogative extended day by day might well dread as well as hate the one man of talent who was attempting with apparent success to provide the king with a permanent army.

It is probable, also, that men influenced by well-founded hatred somewhat overrated Strafford's power to do evil. Mr. Gardiner, who occa-

* 'The Personal Government of Charles I., 1628-1637. By S. R. Gardiner.' London : Longmans & Green.

sionally appears to know what passed in Strafford's "own mind," and who seems to assume that Strafford's own statement of his motives may be treated as gospel, hardly enters into the strength of the detestation felt towards him by men who saw in Strafford a renegade from the cause of freedom, plotting against the liberties of his country. Nor can we, after reading Mr. Gardiner's candid statement of facts, come to the conclusion that Strafford suffered injustice at the hands of his contemporaries. When he threw in his lot with the cause of the king there seemed every chance that for a generation, at least, there would be no career for any politician who withstood the pretensions of the crown. Strafford saw the road to power, and pursued it. That he never cared much for what in modern days would be termed liberalism we can well believe; that his ambition was not a sordid ambition may also be admitted; but that the patriots whom he opposed should look upon him with hatred seems, to us at least, as natural as that the impartiality of Mr. Gardiner should try to devise defences for Strafford which Strafford would perhaps hardly understand, and might probably repudiate. In any case, careful students should beware lest the overestimate of Strafford's ability, fostered strangely enough alike by contemporary hatred and by the overcandid appreciation of a modern historian, should lead them to the conclusion that a bold politician, deficient both in resource and foresight, belonged to the same class as did the man who built up the centralized despotism of France.

OTIS'S INDIAN QUESTION.*

THE main divisions of this treatise are upon Colonial Indian policy, that of the United States Government, the treaty system, and the reported corruption in the Indian Bureau; and these topics are discussed, with evidence of careful research, in 175 pages—about two-thirds of the volume. The author's conclusion is that there would be legality as well as expediency in the utter abandonment not only of treaties but of tribal contracts, and in the subjection of the whole race to such direct and enforced provisions of law as may be for its benefit in common with the whole body of our citizens. In this consideration the objects of immediate peace, temporary settlement of difficulties, and local advantages, often hitherto exclusively aimed at, properly yield to that of the incorporation into our community of all Indians who can be elevated into a state of civilization. The problem is well stated to be—How shall the Indian be converted into a law-abiding, self-supporting member of society? and not, How shall tribal structures be preserved or the native races built up?

It must be admitted that our past system, whether true or false in mere theory, grew necessarily from the relations of the two races on the coast in the Colonial period. Temporary safety to the colonists was the paramount need when they were weak and the natives by comparison strong. The latter readily compelled recognition of what were assumed to be their political organizations, and indeed these, however rude, contrasted not unfavorably with those of the separated and formless bands of immigrant adventurers. The ignorance and humility which gave their royal titles to "King" Powhatan and "King" Philip among Algonkins who were not only utterly ignorant of sovereignty, but seldom tolerated even a limited and temporary rule beyond the headship of a few individuals connected in consanguineous relationship, show the false views held by the early settlers which colored all subsequent action. The aborigines had also the great advantage of holding for a century the balance of power between the contending forces of England and France, both of which were ever ready to forgive past injuries and to enter into leagues with any portion of the natives, whose demands were always satisfied if practicable, or, if not, met with promises, and whose vanity was inexpensively gratified by ceremonious address as free and independent nations. After the Treaty of Paris, in 1763, England formally recognized tribal relations and native organizations, thereby settling the system upon our Confederation; and the policy formulated in the Ordinance of 1787 has guided the course of our Government in all its Indian treaties made since that time. The Indian nations have been fully recognized as distinct and independent political communities, lawfully possessing the soil by right of immemorial occupancy, and only such restrictions have been imposed upon them as necessity compelled, chief of which were that they could not convey the fee of the land except to the United States, nor hold foreign intercourse. In other respects they were allowed to conduct themselves as they pleased under their own laws and customs. The consideration given by us in our three hundred and sixty treaties with them, besides some money and articles of more apparent than real value, were the protection of the United States and its promise to maintain the native party to the treaty in the quiet possession of certain tracts of land, from which all whites were to be excluded except a small number licensed for trading purposes. The Indians on their side engaged to refrain from hostilities against the Government, to give up any of their numbers who should rob or murder any citizens, and surrendered large bodies of territory.

Col. Otis does not confine himself to the assertion, for which there exist arguments even stronger than any he has adduced, that the several bodies of natives never possessed such a status as entitled them to be a party to treaties in their true international sense, nor to denouncing the obviously fictitious character of many of the transactions wherein the representatives of our Government could always find or create some so-called chiefs to affix their marks to any instrument for their personal and immediate advantage. He not only boldly declares that the theories of our forefathers upon the law of nature, though correct in the abstract, were not applicable to the tribes, but decides that if they ever were so, there can be, under wholly changed circumstances and after many successive relinquishments of liberties before asserted, no collective rights left for the operation either of treaty or of tribal compact. He presents a statement of inconsistencies and absurdities connected with these pseudo-diplomatic conventions which is more clear than has ever before been arranged. Without dwelling upon some frequent covenants of the Indians themselves for immediate conversion, temperance and virtue, which were ridiculously impossible of observance, we must admit that there have been few of these state documents which a sharp lawyer retained by the tribe could not invalidate before an impartial tribunal. Amendments have often been made by the Senate vitally differing from the actual compact and never re-submitted for concurrence. In some cases it was stipulated that after the treaty the President, with the consent of Congress, should have power to modify that and all former or subsequent treaties, thus throwing the whole subject-matter into the legislative branch. The Executive and Senate, having obtained jurisdiction under the fiction about independent sovereignties, exceeded their province by bestowing the citizenship, not only of the United States but of particular States, upon the members proposed to be severed from the very same organizations; bartered away the public domain by conveying lands in permanency to individuals, sometimes exempted from taxation in the State where they were situated; regulated trade and intercourse, and negotiated in detail upon all possible inter-relations. The national legislature, on the other hand, performed all of the above-mentioned acts without regard to the treaty-making power, and sometimes, in reference to lands, before any treaty had extinguished the conceded Indian right of possession. Several treaties in effect set aside United States statutes, and finally a statute, in 1871, prohibited the further exercise of the constitutional power of treaty. Apart from the illegality of some and the unconstitutionality of others of these proceedings, the tribes in general bargained away every vestige of freedom they possessed, and became, in fact, dependent on the Government for all effective management, as well as for the necessaries of life. If they ever had sovereignty they sold it, and, as even the semblance of nationality had expired, the promised self-government became a mockery, and the members of the defunct organization passed under the United States laws as individuals. Granting that there once were real international compacts, their continued validity as binding, unexecuted agreements is questioned.

The reader's sympathy must perforce attend this course of argument against an anomalous system which propped up an antagonistic tribal authority, hampered the force of some beneficent laws, and delayed, by the interposition of unnatural, the operation of natural, influences tending toward civilization. The artificial relation attacked has, doubtless, been equally costly to the United States and unfortunate to its wards. Still, admitting all weight to legal perplexities and practical inconvenience, there is involved a point of absolute national honor, rather grudgingly allowed by the author. It was not the Indian but the Government, as successor to Great Britain, that invented the treaty machinery and engrossed the contradictory or unconstitutional covenants, and if the false theory has induced consecutive deceits, they are not abolished by a new comprehensive breach of integrity. No judicial allowance will be given us to plead our own wrong in invalidation of our own seal; and to repudiate hundreds of the highest governmental acts, covering the entire century of our responsibility, rather suggests the Alexandrine mode of resolving a knotty point. If the view under consideration as to the settlement of our Indian affairs is common in the army, there may be

*'The Indian Question. By Elwell S. Otis, Lieut.-Colonel U. S. Army.' New York: Sheldon & Company. 1878.

propriety in hesitating as to the amount of control to be placed in the hands of military officers, when troublesome questions of law can be contrasted with the easy sword-exercise.

The author is certainly refreshingly original in his remarks about the reported frauds in the Indian Bureau, yet, however startling his propositions, they are consistent with his general determination to prove that whatever has been done in the old or is now done in the present system was and is wholly wrong, and therefore the less that was done in the direction of the same the better. Frauds, he says, undoubtedly prevailed, but under such circumstances of temptation and facility as to be unavoidable, and their effect was to keep at all events a portion of the objectionable annuities and gratuities from reaching the Indians, which was rather for their advantage as diminishing their degree of pauperism. He thinks the worst result has been to demoralize the enterprising white Western population, who shared largely in all illegitimate profits, and even yet will not allow an agent to be honest, should he try ever so hard. Though on this head the author gives some shrewd practical suggestions, clearly derived from personal observation, they will not contribute to the popularity of his volume in the Territories.

While much that is urged as to the outrageous cost and unwise direction of our past efforts to civilize the Indians must be acknowledged, the assertion that nothing of consequence has yet been accomplished is not well supported. Colonel Otis says that the best of them are only tamed, and that such proofs of their civilization as can be offered are only externally impressed, and will disappear whenever the pressure may be removed; but he makes this dictum with almost no facts or figures from which it may logically be deduced. He is perfectly correct in his criticism on the expectations entertained and promises made to the public by the several philanthropic and religious commissions, that the native barbarians would in some short period of years be elevated to the plane now attained by us only after many centuries and under circumstances favorable to development; but any candid statement of what has actually been done, compared with the inherent difficulties as accurately presented by himself, would lead to a more sanguine conclusion. The future environments of the Indians can be made such as greatly to hasten their evolution, so long retarded, and, in the absence of race prejudice regarding intermarriage, amalgamation will assist in absorption. With special reference to these objects, and in virtual concession of their attainability, Col. Otis recommends that, instead of the plan now entertained of a few large reservations kept isolated from the whites, the tribes should be compelled to live upon a large number of small tracts, which should be located so as now or soon to be surrounded by a population of citizens. In pure theory this proposition is to be commended, for the best success in such a scheme as is now on trial in the Indian Territory can only prolong tribal power and customs and delay absorption; and if it is now confessed, contrary to the old dogma, that civilization will not kill the natives, it should be applied with much less insensible gradations than has hitherto been deemed judicious. The objections to the plan are purely practical, arising from the absence in our Government of any arbitrary power to sway many conflicting interests by the strong hand, persistently for many years. The more reservations, and the more they are in contact with settlers, the more they will produce grumbling and angry collision, with complaints to Congressmen both from their influential constituents and from the official guardians of maltreated wards. To multiply reservations now would certainly at first multiply points of resistance, and develop such active hostility, both on the Western war-path and in the still more dangerous Washington lobby, as would defeat or repeal any legislation. After one generation of local restraint, with diminishing external aid and increased self-support, compulsory education and gradual intercourse, all objections would probably be reconciled; but during the unavoidable crisis the opposition of both races from diverse reasons would require stringent, unprecedented, and odious laws to be imposed upon both by a force far beyond that now or likely to be entrusted to the Executive.

The respect which an educated commissioned officer entertains for the discipline of law in an orderly hierarchy, with its uncompromising execution, naturally leads Col. Otis to offer as a panacea the immediate subjection of our Indians to the general, and more especially to the criminal, code of the country, to be enforced so long as requisite by what he calls the police, but which necessarily would be the army. There can be little doubt that if our wards were those of the czar this project would long since have been resorted to, with more success than has attended our feeble and piecemeal expedients, but our Government does not yet permit the employment of such paternal strength. The hope to be found in a gradual change of habits and character by the individual acquisition of real and personal property is not, indeed, wholly ignored in the treatise, but is noted as of secondary importance. There is no discussion upon the main and fundamental obstacle to the civilization of the Indians arising from their persistence in the archaic institution of consangineous clanship or totemicc onnection. No statement can be complete which neglects this most important element, common to every linguistic stock found on this continent, which not only underlies but controls all their sociological divisions, and determines every relation of their lives, in especial preventing the idea of individual ownership, transmission, or even exclusive use of any description of property. Valuable as the present work is, viewed from the standpoint it presents, it is defective in that it fails to comprehend the esoteric characteristics of the race as essential features in its stage of evolution, and considers it as only an aggregation of individuals differing from us but in obvious degrees of mental, moral, and religious education.

Around the World in the Yacht "Sunbeam." By Mrs. Brassey. With illustrations. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1878.)—A family voyage around the world in a steam-yacht was never, we believe, before recorded, because it had never been undertaken. The interest of this daily log is therefore, first of all, personal and domestic, and for the rest we mostly have an agreeable retelling of what other travellers, of local or equally wide experience, have made pretty familiar to the diligent reader. The *Sunbeam* sailed from Cowes, England, July 6, 1876, and the Brassey family consisted of the well-known M. P. (here always irreverently spoken of as "Tom"), the author, and their four children—a younger Thomas, and the three Misses M. A. B. (for they all have the same fairylike initials), of whom the youngest was a baby, and came very near ending her days on the Pacific. Her oldest sister was almost washed overboard on the third day out, and as for Master Tom, he left the yacht at Rio to return to England, which leads Mrs. Brassey to remark: "It is extremely uncertain when we shall hear of our boy's safe arrival; not, I fear, until we get to Valparaiso, and then only by telegram—a long time to look forward to." The phrase "only by telegram," considering the points thus connected and the very simple nature of the message required, shows forcibly how commonplace the greatest marvels have become to our age and generation.

The safety of this floating household was assured as far as it could be by a Commander, R.N., a Captain, R.N.R., a sailing-master, and "Tom" himself, who kept the bridge in the more perilous passages, with a success highly creditable to an amateur. In the Pacific he sailed over a charted island without discovering it. He directed when to steam and when to sail. He had the great satisfaction of rescuing an English crew from their burning vessel, and the alarm of finding the *Sunbeam* twice on fire, though the danger was quickly averted by good discipline and the use of *extincteurs*. In heavy weather some spars were lost and a boat smashed, but the yacht came home as trim as at her departure. Mrs. Brassey's crushed thumb was the most serious accident of the voyage, and a case of small-pox among the seamen in the Straits the most threatening illness. But Mr. Brassey had the pain of learning by telegram at Yokohama of the death of his mother.

Of the people of Madeira Mrs. Brassey remarks that many of them "have never left their native villages, even to look at the magnificent view from the top of the surrounding mountains, or to gaze on the sea by which they are encompassed." Teneriffe "appeared less perpendicular than we had expected, or than it is generally represented in pictures"; an observation which might also have been suggested by Fuzhi-yama, though she does not make it. Among the curious visitors to the yacht at Madeira were "some very handsome Spanish ladies, beautifully dressed in black, with mantillas, each of whom was accompanied by a young man carrying a basin. It must, I fear, be confessed that this was rather a trial to the gravity of all on board." Mrs. Brassey is here a little unfeeling, for, when the voyage of eleven months is half over, she can only say for herself: "Nothing annoys me more than to find that, after having sailed tens and tens of thousands of miles, I cannot cure myself of sea-sickness."

The first landfall after leaving African waters was Cape Frio:

"After even a fortnight at sea, an indescribable sensation is produced by this cry, and by the subsequent sight of the land itself. When we came up on deck this evening, after dinner, we all gazed on the lighthouse on the still-distant shore as if we had never beheld such a thing in our lives before. The color and temperature of the water had perceptibly changed, the former from a beautiful, clear, dark ultramarine to a muddy green; innumerable small birds, moths, locusts, and grasshoppers came

on board ; and, having given special orders to be called early the next morning, we went to bed in the fond hope that we should be able to enter Rio harbor at daybreak."

Their disappointment in this regard was followed by wet and vaporous weather, which made their stay at Rio much less delightful than it would have been. In the Argentine Republic they were more fortunate, and, besides the usual sights of the country, they encountered a swarm of locusts—"first singly, and then in gradually increasing numbers, until each step became positively painful, owing to the smart blows we received from them on our heads, faces, and hands." On the pampas Mrs. Brassey joined in a deer hunt : "I and two others of the party followed the doe, and after another short burst of ten minutes, at a tremendous pace, we ran into and killed her. As soon as she had been despatched we wanted to follow the buck." The voyagers were doubly fortunate in having the finest weather throughout the Straits of Magellan. We will not quote Mrs. Brassey's description of the incomparable scenery, but here are two odd experiences a little later. At the point where a lake falls into the sea,

"The gig was drawn under this waterfall, and having been loaded to her thwarts with about three tons and a half of excellent water, she was then towed off to the yacht, where the water was emptied into our tanks, which were thus filled to the brim. A small iceberg, also towed alongside, afforded us a supply of ice ; and we were thus cheaply provided with a portion of the requisite supplies for our voyage."

North of the Gulf of Peñas :

"A large shoal of whales came . . . swimming alongside, round us, across our bows, and even diving down under our keel. There was a shoal of small fish about, and the whales, most of which were about fifty or sixty feet in length, constantly opened their huge pink whalebone-fringed mouths so wide that we could see right down their capacious throats. The children were especially delighted with this performance, and baby has learned quite a new trick."

An earthquake was denied the travellers in Chile. Fairly launched on the Pacific, "this ocean seems to give one, in a strange way, a sense of solemn vastness, which was not produced to the same extent by the Atlantic. Whether this results from our knowledge of its size, or whether it is only fancy, I cannot say, but it is an impression which we all share." The interest of Mrs. Brassey's narrative culminates (speaking for ourselves) in the South Sea Islands, but we have not space for extracts, romantic as were the landings on some of the atolls before reaching Tahiti. The ascent of Kilauea from Hilo (Sandwich Islands) is well described, with impressive proofs of the hazard which always attends it. Japan was reached in February's snow and sleet ; of China only the southern ports were visited. From Canton the *Sunbeam* sailed homeward *via* Singapore, Ceylon, Aden, and the Suez Canal.

Each day's progress of the round voyage is marked on the chart accompanying the volume, and there are numerous illustrations ; but Mrs. Brassey, who herself took photographs on the summit of Teneriffe and amid the glaciers of the Straits of Magellan, and bought freely at the various stations, might, we think, have done better with her material. In taking leave of her eminently pleasing work we must express the hope that she will choose the United States as the next field of her family wanderings. She already prefers our railway-cars to the "too familiar, close, stuffy, first-class carriage of English manufacture"; an American three-seated wagon at Tahiti (in which a Chinese coachman drove the party to a French restaurant) prompted the flattering remark that "our transatlantic cousins certainly understand thoroughly, and do their best to improve everything connected with, the locomotion they love so well"; moreover (still at Tahiti), "American tinned fruits and vegetables beat English ones hollow"; and finally, the American ships' compasses at Hong Kong were "not in the least affected by the climate," whereas the English became unsalable. All this ensures Mrs. Brassey a warm welcome in "the States," which will be still warmer if she will in a second edition correct the opinion of Messrs. Smales Brothers (p. 117), that the English are more ready than the Americans to help distressed vessels at sea. A minor correction will place the beautiful Percé Rock on the coast of Lower Canada, and not (p. 13) on that of Nova Scotia.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Benjamin (S. G. W.), The Atlantic Islands	(Harper & Bros.)	$3 00
Bennett (D. M.), Champions of the Church: their Crimes and Persecutions	(D. M. Bennett)	
Duruy (V.), Histoire des Romains, new ed., Parts 1-10, swd	(F. W. Christern)	
Edwardes (Mrs. A.), Jet, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.)	30
Ella (Prof.), Musical Sketches	(E. Schuberth & Co.)	2 75
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Farrar (Rev. F. W.), Life of Christ, Parts 21-24, swd	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin)	25
Gréville (H.), Dosia	(Estes & Lauriat)	1 50
Ariadne: a Tale	(D. Appleton & Co.)	75
Haug (Prof. M.), Religion of the Parsis, 2d ed	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	4 50
Heim (Clementine), Child and Woman	(James A. Moore)	1 50
Isaacs (A. S.), A Modern Hebrew Poet	(*Jewish Messenger*)	
Johonnot (J.), Principles and Practice of Teaching	(D. Appleton & Co.)	1 50
Lindau (R.), Gordon Baldwin: a Tale, swd	" "	25
Linton (Ethel L.), Misericordia: A Tale, swd	" "	20
McCrindle (J. W.), Ancient India as Described by Megasthenes and Arrian	(Trübner & Co.)	
O'Meara (Kathleen), Frederic Ozanam	(Cath. Pub. Soc.)	1 50
Pattou (A. A.), The Voice as an Instrument	(E. Schuberth & Co.)	50
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TWENTY-NINTH SEMI-ANNUAL

STATEMENT

OF THE

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ASSETS.

Real estate	$456,780 37
Cash on hand and in bank	125,967 52
Loans on bond and mortgage, real estate	2,301,729 63
Interest accrued on loans, but not due	58,423 74
" " " due one month	10,793 03
Loans on collateral security	22,200 00
Deferred Life premiums	59,703 21
Life premiums due and unpaid	51,140 69
United States Government bonds	372,367 50
State and Municipal bonds	173,256 00
Railroad stocks and bonds	224,485 20
Bank and Insurance stocks	596,547 00
Total Assets	$4,453,393 89

LIABILITIES.

Reserve, four per cent., Life Department	$2,894,984 54
Reserve for reinsurance, Accident Department	208,954 64
Claims unadjusted and not due, and all other liabilities	123,970 00
Total Liabilities	$3,227,909 18
Surplus as regards Policy-holders	$1,225,484 71

STATISTICS TO JULY 1, 1878.

Whole number Accident Policies written	494,000
Whole number Accident Claims paid	32,000
Total amount Accident Claims paid	$2,900,000
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 11, 1878.

The Week.

THE price of gold fell during the week to 100⅜; in other words, the legal-tender notes of the United States advanced to $0.99625. There were two reasons for this. The first was, that the gold payments of July interest swelled the stock of gold in the market at a time when there was no increased demand for it; and the second was, the semi-official announcement by the Treasury that it will soon begin to pay out gold on ordinary currency obligations, the paper-currency balance of the Treasury being small. The foreign exchanges are favorable for such an experiment by the Treasury, the rate for bills on London being now nearer to the point at which gold coin can be imported than to the point at which it can be exported. Very soon, too, bankers will begin to anticipate cotton exports by drawing sixty-day bills, to be covered when the cotton arrives; so that the Secretary has most favorable conditions for taking the step contemplated. The United States Treasurer, on the 6th inst., issued a statement which shows that the coin balance of the Treasury was $180,222,502; that if 35 per cent. reserve is sufficient to keep the legal-tender note circulation at par with gold, the Treasury has $59,222,502 in excess of that amount; and that, making every deduction for interest due and unpaid, coin certificates, called bonds, etc., the excess of coin reserve above 35 per cent. of the $346,618,016 legal-tender notes is already $2,474,822. The new silver dollars have not yet begun to have any practical effect on the Treasury finances, but most certainly will so soon as there are enough issued for use in payment of import duties. Silver in London has fallen to 52¼*d.* per ounce, and closes at 52⅛*d.*; and the bullion value of the new dollar at the close was only $0.8855. Whenever there are enough of these dollars for use, they will become the practical unit of value, and their gold value will be the par of every coin obligation in the country. Unless silver bullion before that time advances to 59*d.* to 60*d.* per ounce, it is inevitable that we shall have currency troubles in comparison with which those that we have had will appear simple and easy of adjustment.

Emil L. Weber, a brother of Don Weber, Anderson's partner in the negotiations with the Visiting Statesmen, has testified before the Potter Committee in an interesting if not in a credible manner. He "entered actively" into Louisiana politics ten years ago, and at the time of the last Presidential count he had "free access to the rooms of the Republican Visiting Statesmen, and to the rooms of conference and caucus occupied by Packard, Kellogg, and the members of the Returning Board and the Custom-house officials, and was used more than once by the Statesmen as a messenger to secure interviews" with his brother and Anderson, in order to induce them to file a protest against the election returns from East and West Feliciana. They were at first unwilling to do so because the elections there had been peaceful, and because it had been the policy of the Republican managers to let these parishes go by default in order to throw them out on a fictitious protest. He was present when the several affidavits were prepared and signed, and here he corroborated Anderson's testimony. He had Sherman's verbal assurance that his brother would be protected and provided for, and afterwards his brother showed him the famous letter containing this guarantee, in Sherman's handwriting, and reported he had received it direct from the writer. On the 8th of March following, D. A. Weber was murdered for having threatened to publish a list of defaulting tax-payers. A letter written by the witness at the time to a cousin, strongly declaring the murder to have been purely political, having been produced by Mr. Cox, the witness said that "the statements were made for political effect"; he supposed the letter would be published by the person to whom it was addressed, and "would create a feeling in the North in favor of the Packard government," he himself being then a senator under that government. Among his brother's papers he came upon the Sherman letter, and destroyed it in the summer of 1877, at which time Mrs. Jenks was very anxious to obtain it. Weber's testimony was mainly read from a statement already prepared.

Weber's "perjury"—for no one can doubt that he has been indulging freely in that crime—has shocked the Republican press to an extraordinary degree, which is a gratifying proof of their own purity and innocence; but it does not say much for their worldly experience, for it shows plainly that they think Weber, like Anderson and the rest of them, was a good and strictly truthful man in 1876, when he was aiding in Hayes's election and writing letters about "outrages" for Northern consumption, and conclude that he has suddenly fallen from grace and plunged into all manner of wickedness. But we must warn these simple-minded brethren that this is a very improbable view. All experience of human nature warrants the belief that Weber, Jenks, Anderson, McLin, and Dennis were all as sinful and corrupt two years ago as they are to-day; the only difference between their spiritual condition now and their spiritual condition then is that they looked for their reward at that time in a different quarter. Other Republican papers seek consolation, too, for the Louisiana depravity in the reflection that Louisiana always was a corrupt State—witness the Plaquemine frauds forty years ago. But here again we must remind the brethren that this fact was also well known in 1876, and that the knowledge of it ought to have made the Visiting Statesmen very cautious in their intercourse with the local politicians, and have prevented them also from writing eulogies on them as Mr. Sherman did.

On the Fourth the Greenbackers had a "grand rally" in Newburyport, Massachusetts, at which General Butler made a speech on the questions of the day, and he announced the platform on which he means to stand for the next three or four months. He is in favor of issuing $400,000,000 non-interest-bearing notes of the United States, to settle the unemployed laboring man upon the public lands. This, he says, will do no harm to any one, because, as long as they draw no interest, they are no burden upon the masses. He enquired at length into the evils which now beset the country, and promised to tell his audience "more truth" than they would hear "on another Fourth of July within a generation." What is the reason there is so much poverty and distress when we are surrounded by abundance on every side? It is clearly not the want of railroads and cheap transportation, nor over-production. The trouble, the General pointed out, was *under-consumption*, and "under-consumption is when men cannot get those necessaries of life which they ought to consume." The enterprise of the country is all stopped, because, in the present condition of the finances, "it is better and more for the profit of the capitalists to put their money into bonds of the United States, which are not taxable, than it is to employ it in enterprises, and therefore all enterprises cease." At the beginning of the war the Government had to have money, and consequently it issued paper. This went down because our credit was doubtful, and because the "money kings," who, it seems, had then the control, put into this war measure two provisions, "both of which made that grand old man, Thaddeus Stevens, shed tears as he came away from the conference room of the Conference Committee." The first provision which caused his tears to flow was that this money "should not be received by everybody for everything"; the second, that "it might be funded in six per cent. gold-bearing bonds, and bought up at thirty cents

in gold-bearing bonds at 100 cents on the dollar." That was the beginning of the trouble. No wonder, the General says, that laws of this sort have produced misery. He does not complain of individuals, but of the system; and he points out to the workingmen of Massachusetts that they must not think of violence or disorders, but must unite in a law-abiding manner to change the laws. The meeting does not seem to have been a great success; but the speech appears to be generally taken as a bid for the Governorship from what General Butler believes to be the party of the future.

A correspondent calls our attention to the fact that we did Mr. Groesbeck injustice in classing him with the paper inflationists. He has really gone no further in that direction than in supporting the silver movement, and did, in his address before the Bankers' Association in this city in September of last year, which we had overlooked, take strong ground against irredeemable paper, and we presume holds the same position still.

The Alabama Republicans held a convention on the Fourth. They refused to adopt a resolution endorsing the Administration, and nominated no State ticket. A correspondent of the Cincinnati *Gazette* gives a frightful picture of the Democratic misrule in Alabama. He says that when in 1870 the Democrats, by "force and fraud," got possession of the State government the people of all classes were rapidly recovering from the war; property was increasing in value; immigration was pouring in; internal improvements were going forward in a flourishing manner; railroads were constructing in every part of the State; owing to the "wise and judicious" management of the Republican administration the credit of the State was good and its bonds were "eagerly sought." But in 1870 the Democrats came into power. What was the result? These madmen at once began an assault on all the sources of the prosperity of the State; they began "a furious war" upon the railroads, and in the short space of two years they had involved the State in litigation to the extent of hundreds of thousands of dollars; had destroyed its good name abroad, caused its bonds to depreciate 50 per cent., and "squandered the taxes of the people in paying lawyers' fees." In 1872 the Republicans succeeded in stopping them for a moment in their wild career by carrying the State ticket; and in 1873–74 succeeded "to a very great extent in undoing the mischief of their predecessors." But by a series of crimes, which the correspondent shrinks from describing, the State was again lost; and now mark the result! The debt is repudiated; the blacks are not allowed to vote; white Republicans are ostracized, and Alabama, with four of her eight Congressional districts fairly Republican, returns to Congress eight Democrats. This, we are free to admit, is a blood-curdling tale. There could not be a stronger proof of the political insanity of the Southerners than this. Credit, immigration, education, prosperity, freedom, all are nothing to them compared with Congressmen. This is a state of feeling unknown in any Northern community.

Mr. Charles Foster, of Ohio, in a speech just published, has undertaken to show that the Democratic pretensions to having reduced the expenditures of the Government are a sham. The Democrats, he says, asserted that they had made a reduction of $30,000,000 over 1876 for 1877 and 1878—in all $60,000,000; whereas, according to Mr. Foster, the actual reduction for these two years was $24,000,000, a difference of $36,000,000. He shows this by figures which we cannot go into, but which seem plausible. The subject of the reduction of expenditures by the two parties is one of those mysteries of State and national politics which it requires a carefully-trained "arithmetic man" to unravel. There was the same sort of conflict of veracity between the two parties at the last election in this State for governor, when the Democrats showed that they were paying off the State debt, and the Republicans showed that they were paying it off because the Republican honesty and economy of a previous administration had made it possible. It is a good sign when parties begin to engage in a struggle of this sort, and we are glad to observe that the politicians, while differing among themselves as to the facts to the extent of several millions, are all agreed on one point—that "the people" will ascertain who are the real and who are the sham reformers, and will reward the former and punish the latter.

The fall campaign in this city has been begun already by the organization of a great anti-Tammany movement, with a general committee of twelve hundred and all the appliances of an active canvass. Never before, we suppose, since the Tweed times have the respectable and quiet portion of the inhabitants of New York been so utterly at a loss to know what party or faction it is for their interest to support—and this, too, on the eve of elections which in their results are likely to be of far-reaching importance. Between the regular politicians of "Tammany" and "anti-Tammany" there is not, perhaps, a great deal to choose. The committee of twelve hundred will not be a band of saints, any more than John Kelly's committee will be. On the other hand, some of the best Democrats appear to be closely connected with the leadership of anti-Tammany, while there is no question that Kelly's long hold of power has begun to have its usual effect, and to unfit him for the responsible exercise of it. His faction has, too, evidently made a bargain with the Republicans for the control of the Assembly. How this bargain is to be carried out it is difficult to see, inasmuch as it involves the transfer of a number of city assembly districts to the Republicans. This might be easily done if the anti-Tammany movement were a sham got up to let in the Republican candidates; but this it is clearly not. Then, a mysterious political force has made its appearance in the shape of a Morgan movement, said to be supported by George Bliss and Collector Arthur, the next friends of Mr. Conkling. Besides all this, there are the new parties, the "Nationals" and the Communists, and so on, the effect of whose action it is quite impossible to predict. Altogether, there never was a time in which there was more confusion and obscurity, or in which it would probably be easier for any party which really identified itself with the cause of reform in city government to carry the county ticket. The disgraceful position into which Kelly has got himself will no doubt give anti-Tammany this year an unusual chance, and strengthen the popularity which it always seems to have in certain quarters as the unbought and unpurchasable defender of the people's rights against "Bosses" and the "One-Man power."

There is, it is said, a queer outbreak of Communism in the Western States, in the form of an attack by gangs of discontented persons on labor-saving machinery. In some cases reapers and mowers have been seized in the fields and destroyed; in others the barns and haystacks of farmers who use mowers and reapers have been burned down. The Chicago *Tribune* recommends the farmers to use violent measures in retaliation, and reads the tramps a rather useless lecture on the folly of their proceedings; it is an error to suppose that gangs of tramps engaged in burning and destroying property read editorial articles on the subject of the division of labor. We beg, moreover, to point out to the Chicago *Tribune* that the persons who are mainly responsible for any outbreaks of Communism in the West now are those who fostered the Granger delusion before the panic, and taught the Western public to believe that there was no relation between supply and demand, or cost and prices. It is instructive to read in the Chicago *Tribune* such a paragraph as this:

"As every mile of railroad built through agricultural districts enables farmers to produce something more than they consume, by affording them a means of transporting their surplus to such points where it may be needed, so the labor-saving machinery on farms enables the farmer to produce more grain to sell than he could otherwise do; and, between the railroad and the reaper, there are twenty bushels of grain produced and taken to market to the one that could possibly be produced and delivered without them."

This is very true; but it was true six years ago, when the Chicago *Tribune* was echoing the demand of the farmers that they should fix the charges of transportation at such a figure as would yield them a profit in sales of wheat, no matter whether it ruined property in-

vested in railroads or not. The same blind desire to make up for one's own losses by getting the better of somebody else that was at the bottom of the Granger movement, is also at the bottom of the anti-labor-saving movement.

The last mails bring abundant expression of the anger of the Tories over the agreement with Russia published by the *Globe*, and it was intensified by the defences put forward by Lord Beaconsfield's closer adherents. They said that the agreement was obtained for publication surreptitiously; that there was no knowing what other agreements he had made with other Powers—Austria, for instance—which would neutralize the effects of this one; that anyhow he had not played his last card, and that the full power of his magnificent intellect had still to be seen—which was, under the circumstances, another way of saying that he had no end of similar tricks still in store. The affair was rendered all the more mortifying to the "Jingoes" by the fact that their principal charge against Russia has been that she was underhand in her dealings, and was trying to settle affairs of European interest without the knowledge or participation of Europe; and now here was their hero and champion convicted of having joined with her in being underhand, and of having agreed with her secretly and apart from Europe to help her in carrying out her original designs. In fact, the Beaconsfield-Salisbury defence of "the public law of Europe" closely resembles the course of the Cornish minister who, when the news of the wreck reached the church during service, called on the congregation not to leave their places till he got down from the pulpit, so that all might start fair.

The worst feature in the case is acknowledged on all hands to be the abandonment of the Rumanians in the matter of Bessarabia. The seizure of that is from every point of view indefensible. It does not belong to the Turks, or to an ally of the Turks, but to a people from whom the Russians received invaluable aid against the Turks during the war. It contains no oppressed population of any faith or nationality. It belongs to Rumania under "the public law of Europe," solemnly settled in the Congress of 1856. Its transfer is therefore the one act of Russia which more than any other the Beaconsfield Ministry were bound by the terms of their own gospel to resist to the last. They, however, actually secretly agreed before the Congress met not to oppose it. Earl Grey comments on this in the language of honest wrath in a letter to the London *Times*, which opens with what is substantially a charge of deceit against Lord Salisbury for his mode of answering an enquiry about the Memorandum when the first version of it appeared in the *Globe*. He said the statement (of its substance) which had appeared in the *Globe* was "wholly unauthenticated and not deserving the confidence of their Lordships' House," and this in reply to the question "whether there was *any* truth" in the statement. Lord Salisbury's position in "the Asian mystery" continues to excite increasing surprise on the part of his friends, particularly as he has been relegated at Berlin to mere office-work, while his chief figures as the star of the Congress.

The "last card" has now made its appearance in the form of a secretly-concluded alliance with Turkey, by which, in return for the cession of the island of Cyprus, Great Britain agrees to defend the Sultan in the possession of what remains of his Asiatic dominions. The reason assigned for this is that the recent conquests of Russia in Asia, combined with the general results of the war, will diffuse through the Asiatic world the belief that Russia is to be the heir of Turkey, and that it is necessary for the safety of British interests in that quarter of the globe to counteract this impression by some striking demonstration of British determination to resist any further Russian advance. Cyprus, which is only about forty miles from the mainland, commands the entrance to the Euphrates Valley, at the seizure of which, the Tories have been maintaining, Russia has all along been aiming, and in which they dream of some day seeing a railway leading down to the Persian Gulf, and thus shortening the communication with India. It would appear that the nominal title to Cyprus is still to remain in the Porte, but the island is to be governed by a British administrator; Sir Garnet Wolseley, who is an ardent admirer of the Beaconsfield policy, being selected to fill the place for the present. The event is a happy one for the people of the island, and the treaty is to be welcomed as putting an end to the pretence of high moral aims on the part of the British Ministry.

Our correspondent writing from Egypt, in the letter published last week, threw some useful light on the military value of Lord Beaconsfield's stroke of calling on the Indian troops. He showed that it took two months to bring 7,000 men of all arms to Malta, and cost $3,750,000, nearly. This would make the expense of bringing 100,000 men about $50,000,000, and they would probably nearly all disappear in one Bulgarian campaign. Additional figures since published show that it took 28 ships, sailing and steam, to bring them, so that 100,000 would need a fleet of about 400 ships. It must be admitted that, as a piece of imposture perpetrated on the British public, the stroke has been very successful; but if it in any way frightened the Russians, their staff must be in a far worse condition than even their enemies have supposed.

The Henley regatta came off on the 4th and 5th insts., resulting in a great victory for Columbia in the race for the Visitor's Cup in the remarkably good time of 8m. 41s. The Steward's Cup was won by the London Rowing Club, the "crack" amateur English Club, in 8m. 26s. The length of the course is one mile and five-sixteenths. The result of the race, when taken together with the victory of the Beaverwycks at Philadelphia in 1876, shows the enormous advance that athletic sports have made in this country since the war, and proves that we now have no reason to suppose that American rowing is not entirely on a level with what has hitherto been the best in the world. The Columbia four were a very strong crew, and they were all in the eight which were beaten last year by Harvard—a fact which furnishes a still further means of comparison between English and American rowing. The Michigan crew, the "Shoe-wae-cae-mettes," came very near winning the Steward's Cup, but were obliged to stop rowing owing to the illness of one of the men. This crew has attracted an enormous amount of attention on account of their light weight, their rapid, short stroke (going up to the unheard-of point of fifty to the minute), their disregard of all rules of training, their want of "form," and their recent unexpected victory on American waters. So far as this crew was concerned, the race was a trial between sheer barbaric pluck and the civilized traditions of athletic sports. In this way their defeat may be almost a source of satisfaction. In a thoroughly trained crew it would have been possible for one of the men to have had an attack of diarrhœa, but the danger of it would have been reduced to a minimum, and it would have been quite out of the question for him to have concealed his illness from his comrades.

The Woman's Suffrage Bill has once more been brought before the British House of Commons, this time by Mr. Leonard Courtney, who, in his speech moving the second reading, acknowledged that the tide of public opinion was running against the measure, and that some of its most valuable friends in the House had deserted it. He repeated the old arguments and predictions in their regular order, was listened to languidly and replied to feebly by second-rate speakers, and then beaten by a vote of 219 to 140, his supporters being all present, and the rest of the House taking little interest in the matter. The main obstacle to the change all admitted was the indifference or hostility of the women themselves; and what mak s this indifference or hostility serious, if not fatal, is that it is accompanied by increasing zeal in the cause of female education and in the work of widening women's sphere of occupation. In other words, there is no general belief current among the sex in the elevating power of the ballot, though much importance is attached to elevation.

THE PRESENT DUTY OF SILVER AGITATORS.

SILVER has fallen two and a half pence per ounce in the London market since the passage of the Remonetization Act, which we were assured would restore it to its old price of 1873, and the probabilities are that it will fall still further, thus rendering the difficulties of a double standard still greater than they were, or were expected to be when the agitation began, and making the task of inducing the European gold-foxes to cut off their tails, with which our Commissioners are charged, increasingly arduous. In fact, the failure of the Conference appears, if not altogether certain, almost certain. Moreover, it has been all but demonstrated that there is no popular demand as yet for the new silver coin for general use. The Government has bound itself to accept it in payment of its dues, and all that it issues is at once returned to it and is now accumulating rapidly in the Treasury, and it must be remembered that whatever the Government receives in this way it receives in place of gold, so that the process of the displacement of gold by silver in the Treasury has already begun. The proposition so clamorously maintained by the silver-men that there existed on the part of the people of this country a sentimental attachment to the silver dollar as the money of their fathers, that they passionately desired it, and thought that they had been cheated in having it struck from the list of legal-tender coins, has, in fact, been demolished within six months of the passage of the act. The feeling of the American people about money of every description, including coins, is in truth the feeling of all rational commercial communities—that is, the feeling they have about machinery. They are no more attached to the silver dollar because their fathers used it than they are attached to the scythe or the sickle because their fathers used it, and would think it very silly of anybody to come to them with tears in his eyes and conjure them to adopt it in place of the mowing-machine. So that when the silver dollar makes its appearance in business they apply to it the tests which they apply to every other instrument of production; that is, they consider whether it is the cheapest and most efficient instrument to which they can resort.

Silver is not a convenient instrument in as busy and active a community as this is, and therefore nobody calls for it except those who can make a prompt profit by sending it back into the Treasury. If it be asked how this state of facts is to be reconciled with the undeniable popular demand for its remonetization last winter, we can only say that the answer to this is to be found in a very interesting, but as yet imperfectly-studied, field, which may be called the psychology of politics. The silver question is by no means the only curious question in this field. If it were proposed to any individual American of average intelligence and shrewdness—say Governor Rice, of Massachusetts—to conduct his own business on the plan, in the matter of employing servants, on which the Government business has been conducted during the last forty years, he would feel that you were making fun of him; but, nevertheless, he is fully persuaded that there is something mysterious and undefinable in a "republic" or a "people" which makes it perfectly proper to carry on its vast and complicated affairs in that very way—*i. e.*, in disregard of well-known principles of human nature. The silver agitation, like the greenback agitation, owed its strength largely to each person's confidence in his own smartness and in the gullibility of his neighbors; that is, each silver-man and inflationist would probably admit privately that his plans would not work well permanently, but he thought that they would raise prices, so that he would get rid of his wares at a profit before other people had time to "mark up" theirs. In other words, his imagination was just powerful enough to picture himself in the capacity of a seller, but not powerful enough to picture himself also in the capacity of a buyer. All the late attempts to tinker the currency have, in fact, been plans for "unloading" on an unknown portion of the community, who were supposed to be bereft of shrewdness and very ready to buy, but whose exact whereabouts was never revealed. What is most curious about this delusion is that the shrewdest managers of their own affairs are not always exempt from it.

The notion that our remonetization would raise the price of silver bullion, and that a double standard would find support in this country in a popular liking for silver coin, having thus fortunately been exploded in the very first days of the experiment, it only remains to ask what prospect is now opened up to us. The situation is of course changing from day to day, and will continue to change during the winter. What are we then to look for, the price of silver bullion continuing as low as it is, or not rising much higher than it is? The probabilities seem to be that the steady return of the new coins to the Treasury in place of gold—we are now stripping the matter of all details and technicalities—will after a while compel the Secretary in self-defence to use some of his silver in payment of the public liabilities; or, in other words, to treat it as equally valuable with gold, and pay the interest on the public debt with it, and perhaps "resume" in it to some extent—that is, redeem greenbacks in it. As soon as he does this the *débâcle* will have commenced. The greenbacks having lost, or seeming likely to lose, their gold backing, they would begin to approximate more or less rapidly to the value of the thing in which they were likely to be paid; or, in other words, the premium on gold would rise, and it would begin to leave the country, and we should gradually settle down on one silver standard, with greenbacks and certificates redeemable in silver.

We do not say this will certainly happen, for we have still the hope that when Congress meets in December the "silver craze" will have so completely passed away that the coin will be dropped quietly and unostentatiously from the list of legal tenders. But the probabilities are now so strong and plain that this is the course things will take, that it is the bounden duty of those who were foremost in advancing the silver legislation, and in uttering the predictions on which it was based, to take the subject up once more and point out some mode of avoiding the dangers with which the failure of their expectations threaten us. Mr. Halstead and Mr. Medill, for instance, to whom the silver movement owed so much of its virulent activity, ought to come back to the subject once more; it would bear twenty articles a day now for the sixteen which the former of these gentlemen at one time devoted to it. It cannot now, however, be treated properly without some remarks on the folly and mischief of discussing a financial question with passion, and proposing to change the standard of value in a commercial community with a torrent of vituperation. Nor can these writers and their like follow the too-prevalent practice of ignoring their own errors, and surveying the ruin they have wrought with the eyes of curious spectators. Politicians are great adepts in these modes of escape from the proper penalties of their folly and dishonesty. It ought not to be open to respectable journalists. Public morality as well as self-respect calls for at their hands either a confession of their errors or a modest retirement to Europe until their unhappy dupes have recovered from their disasters, and we have little doubt that the editors we have named will do whatever the proprieties of the occasion require.

LORD BEACONSFIELD'S "LAST CARD."

IT has been rumored in London ever since it began to seem probable that England and Russia would come to terms, and that the Congress would meet, that the Government was preparing for some kind of protectorate of Asiatic Turkey as a set-off to the Russian acquisitions on the side of Armenia; and, sure enough, the project made its appearance in terms in the secret Memorandum concluded between Lord Salisbury and Count Shuvaloff. It now appears that, as soon as the British Ministry had concluded one secret and separate agreement with Russia, which they intended to be concealed not only from their own Parliament but from the Congress, they also immediately concluded another with Turkey, by which they obtained from her the cession of the island of Cyprus, in return for an alliance by which England guarantees the Sultan the possession of his remaining dominions. The announcement of this last agreement is said to have filled the Conservatives in London with great exultation, and to have been received by them as full

compensation for the disappointment caused by the secret agreement with Russia. To the rest of the world, and particularly to that portion of it which cares for England's position as a moral influence, it will, of course, seem simply an aggravation of the hypocrisy and deceit which marked the earlier stages of the controversy with Russia. As we pointed out last week, the cause of this controversy which was put forward after Lord Derby's retirement from the Cabinet, was the attempt of Russia to settle the fate of Turkey, or, indeed, to regulate her relations with Turkey and the condition of the Christian population, separate and apart from the other signataries of the Treaty of Paris. The working of the Treaty of San Stefano was, in fact, pronounced objectionable mainly because it was a violation of "the public law of Europe" and made the influence of one Power over Turkey paramount, to the exclusion of the proper and legitimate influence of the others. It seems scarcely credible, but is nevertheless true, that not only Lord Beaconsfield, from whom neither shame nor scruple on such a point was to be expected, but Lord Salisbury, while in the very act of preaching this gospel, signed on the 30th of May a secret agreement with Russia, settling between themselves the most important points in the Eastern Question, and depriving Turkey, without her knowledge, of nearly the whole of her European territory a fortnight before the Congress met. They then turned round and, five days later, concluded a secret treaty with Turkey, without the knowledge of Russia or any other Power, taking Turkey's most important island in the Mediterranean, and making her virtually the vassal of England as regards her Asiatic possessions. So that Lord Beaconsfield actually appeared at the Congress as the defender of the "public law of Europe" with two secret treaties in his pocket, by one of which he conspired with Russia to deprive Turkey of her territory in Europe, and by the other of which he conspired with Turkey to withdraw her completely from the influence of every Power but England. What is worse still, his followers, who were cast down by the discovery of his first trick, have produced the second as an atonement for it, and chuckle over it as his last and greatest card. We do not think it any exaggeration to say that, tortuous and dark as the ways of despotic diplomacy are said to be, nothing can be produced from them within the present century quite equal in duplicity to this performance of the representative of a constitutional government acting under responsibility to a Parliament and under the criticism of a free press. Probably very few persons expected anything better from Lord Beaconsfield, but Lord Salisbury's share in it has excited much reasonable astonishment. His chief's career, happily for the cause of public morality, is near its close, and if he retires from political life with a dukedom all denunciations of his character will disturb him but little; Lord Salisbury is still, however, in the flower of his years, and has been born and bred under influences which ought to make the good opinion of the Anglo-Saxon world dear to him.

The illustration which the Treaty with Turkey affords of the condition of Tory morals is, however, but a small part of its title to attention. It involves the virtual annexation of a vast territory, containing, even in its present desolate condition, over 15,000,000 of population, to Great Britain, without the knowledge or consent of Parliament. That is to say, it is impossible for England to guarantee to the Sultan the possession of his Asiatic dominions without becoming responsible for the condition of his Christian subjects at least, which in that part of the world number fully 5,000,000. But in point of fact she will become responsible for the security of all classes of the population. She cannot permit the pashas to govern as they govern now, and at the same time stand ready to prevent any other Power from interfering with them or chastising them. She will be compelled, as she has been compelled in India, to see to it that the Sultan, as her dependent, collects his taxes fairly, spends them decently, and provides proper courts and an efficient police. She puts him by the treaty, in fact, in the position of one of the dependent Indian princes, and the change will unquestionably be a good one both for him and for the unhappy people who live under his sway. But it must be, and is in practice, an extension of the Empire, involving a vast increase of responsibilities and duties, and increased danger of complications in foreign politics. It brings England into very delicate relations, not only with Russia, which will be constantly exposed to differences with Turkey, owing to the barbarous character of the Mussulman population along the Sultan's eastern frontier, but with every Power which has interests or seeks influence in the Levant, including Austria, France, and Italy. The protectorate is, in fact, a far more serious undertaking than the annexation of Egypt would have been, and contains a far greater number of disagreeable possibilities, and is much more likely to call for the expenditure of English blood and treasure. And yet Parliament has had no more to say about it than the Prussian Landtag, and what is more, the prevailing Tory view, and the view which is said to find most favor at Court, is that this independence of the Executive on foreign questions is a useful and desirable feature in the Government. The attractiveness of the scheme to military men is easily understood. Protection of Turkey means more troops, more military and more civil administrators; or, in other words, a great widening in the field of employment for young men of the upper and middle classes. It means, too, the restoration of a good deal of the military éclat with which Great Britain came out of the Napoleonic wars; but it also means increase of taxation, and increased indifference to, and readiness to evade, home questions. It is, therefore, not at all unlikely to bring about a reaction in the direction of radicalism which will make Mr. Gladstone's reforms seem mild and harmless, and perhaps make a Tory government impossible for a generation or two.

Correspondence.

THE BREAKDOWN OF SUFFRAGE IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your article in yesterday's *Nation* on the recent act of Congress establishing a "permanent government for the District of Columbia" occasions grave reflection. In your judgment it "is an interesting illustration of the way in which—small though the progress may seem at times—practical common sense gradually gets the better of 'high-priori' theories of government." The "'high-priori' theories" are the American ideas of government by the people; the "practical common sense," the older antagonistic notions that men shall be governed by others, notably practised upon in our time by the Napoleons. The "progress" of this "common sense," moderately called small, is the extinction of the rudiments of self-government and the substitution of "arbitrary rulers." "Under the bill [law] not a vestige is left of popular municipal government"; and the thoughtful people of the capital, after four years of commissional government, are truly represented by you as protesting against a return to the smallest exercise of a particle of political power; and all this among a people of exceptional intelligence, forming the population of the capital of the great Republic—a people created by, and for seventy-five years under, the immediate care and discipline of the American Congress, and which may be regarded as the logical product of American institutions. The "progress" is in excess of "small." It certainly ought to be cheering to the Bismarcks, Gortchakoffs, the junior Napoleons, and other professors of "common sense."

Indulge me in a word on the recent government of the District, which you seem to regard as one of the "'high-priori' theories" from which the people gladly fled to the sanctuary of despotism. The President and Senate appointed its governor, who had a negative on the District Legislature. Of that body, the Upper House was appointive by the President and Senate, as were also the Board of Public Works, the Board of Health, the Board of Police, and justices of the peace, while every other subordinate officer, including trustees of schools and constables, was appointed by the President and his governor. The various boards were under no responsibility to the District government, while the autocratic Board of Public Works was, practically, responsible to nobody. The people could elect the members of the House of Delegates, and, save this, could do no other act. This House could, at the utmost, negative the Upper

House and governor. Practically, it could not do that. With the limitless power of the Board of Public Works, and the army of voting laborers at its command, under the fatal facility of the election laws, nothing was found easier than to fill the House of Delegates with the creatures of the Board. That this government utterly failed and at the end of three years was sponged from the national blackboard, is hardly chargeable to the people of the District. That they turn from it with loathing to the quiet and safety of absolutism need produce no surprise.

No American people will long remain quiet under such a government as, under Congress, now controls the District. At the best it must be temporary. Its continuance will depend largely on the individual excellence of the men entrusted with its administration, and the strength and vitality of American notions of human rights. The scheme was a temporary expedient, devised by Congress in a moment of disgust at the failure of its former project. In the hands of the exceptionably able men to whom it was entrusted it grew into national and local favor. One of these the President has wisely retained. If the scheme had now fallen into bad hands the next session of Congress would repeal it.

Meantime, if "common sense" is to continue its progress, here at the capital is a good national seminary for its diffusion. In this training-school of place-seekers, suppliants, and sycophants, no youth can ever reach virile manhood or graduate to full citizenship. From the capital it can be extended to the States with beneficial results. Wherever a people are weary of caring for themselves there are always in reserve Cæsars and Napoleons ready to take them off their own hands. R.

Washington, June 28.

[What we mean by the "high-priori" theory of government is the theory which forms the basis of the political art as practised by the managers of both parties during the last forty years—that the end of government is not security for the fruits of men's industry and for the free play of their faculties, but the frequent election of officers for short terms. According to this theory, the quality of a government depends not on the degree of peace of mind enjoyed under it by the frugal, industrious, and enterprising, but on the number of persons who vote for the officers, so that there might be a good government under which everybody was stripped of his savings and under which thieves and murderers went free. This result was actually worked out at the South under the Carpet-bag governments, and the people are threatened with it in most of our large cities. That it has not shown itself by this time all over the country is due simply to the fact that in the country districts at the North the bulk of the voters own something, and are trying to own more, and are intelligent and prudent people. What has happened in Washington is gratifying, not because government by appointed commission is a good form of municipal government, but because the resort to it in such a conspicuous case shows that the old determination not to be sacrificed to a theory, and not to allow government to be converted into an end in itself, which has given the Anglo-Saxon race its political success and pre-eminence, still lives among us. That it is a permanent expedient we do not believe; but it is a sign that the notion that great cities can be governed by universal suffrage is seriously shaken even among politicians, and that there is a disposition to seek deliverance from it in some way or other. The Washington Boss and Board of Works did for the Republicans in that city exactly what the New York Boss and his Board did for the Democrats in New York, namely, cover up a gigantic raid on property under a cloud of ballots cast by persons who did not own a cent, and to whom the waste and corruption were a huge frolic.—Ed. Nation.]

MRS. BRASSEY'S BOOK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Reviewing Mrs. Brassey's 'Around the World in the Yacht *Sunbeam*,' in your issue of July 4, you say: ". . . there are numerous illustrations; but Mrs. Brassey, who herself took photographs on the summit of Teneriffe and amid the glaciers of the Straits of Magellan, and bought freely at the various stations, might, we think, have done better with her material."

This does Mrs. Brassey an unintentional injustice; and as we appear to have innocently given you occasion for the remark, it seems our duty to ask you to correct it. What use Mrs. Brassey made of her material for illustration you apparently judged from our edition, whereas it can fairly be judged only from the English edition, for which alone Mrs. Brassey is responsible. The English edition contains many more illustrations than ours, but (it seems only fair to add) is sold here for about three times as much. Respectfully yours, Henry Holt & Co.

New York, July 6, 1878.

CAUSE OF THE UNPOPULARITY OF THE ARMY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some may be thinking that Congress has, in grudging support to the army, been unwise in economy. But some may think, too, that in this, and generally in legislation affecting the army, there has also been manifested a desire to lower it in efficiency and in the public estimation, which may have had more influence than mere parsimony. After the experiences of the last eighteen years, and just now, amid the resonance of eloquence on so many annual "Decoration Days" and soldierly reunions, it may seem strange to affirm this, as also to utter the opinion that the army is not popular in this country, whatever may be the regard shown for military men individually, and that the position of the officer and soldier of the United States does not receive here, among Americans, a degree of honorable appreciation equal to that which they themselves readily accord to officers and soldiers in the service of other nations.

It may well be that this should seem extraordinary to any foreign observer, but among ourselves it should excite no wonder. It is common to speak of the jealousy of citizens of free countries towards military power—jealousy inherited from the English struggles for civil liberty—as sufficient to account for this state of feeling, if it be admitted to exist. I find the explanation in the facts that, to the character of *soldier*, loyalty and fidelity to some ascertainable political sovereign is essential; that no military man can be respectable, as such, who has no political sovereign to whom he can be loyal and faithful, and that, with the conceptions as to fundamental political facts entertained *to-day* by an overwhelming majority of the people of this country, the so-called "national army" has no such sovereign, and therefore is an anomaly, having no status as army, and the officers and men have no possible claim to the position of soldiers in other countries, as men pledged to lay down life on call in defence of a sovereign whose actual possession of empire distinguishes the sword they wear from the weapon of an assassin.

Observe, I say with the conceptions as to fundamental political facts held *to-day* by an overwhelming majority of the people of this country—these being the only material thing, in the nature of the case. We have here as everywhere, in any country, to deal with a question of fact; not one of theory, doctrine, or of natural right. It is a question of *existing* fact; not a question of *past* fact; not a question of history, except as history may be accepted to prove what exists at the present moment. He, she, or they whom the inhabitants of a country do *to-day* regard as their sovereign *is* their sovereign. The historical question, Whom did they so regard yesterday? is material only as it may help to answer the former; and, as such, it generally seems to be all-sufficient in the enquiry. We know that on the question of the location of sovereign power, at the beginning of our independent existence and in the formation of the Constitution, opinions have always been pretty equally divided. But whatever may be historic truth as to the facts at those times, it is not of the slightest importance as compared with testimony on the question of present fact—Where do the inhabitants of this country *to-day* find the *majestatem legibus solutam*, their ultimate sovereign, that power-holder whose estimate of justice is their law in peace, and whose right of dominion may call them personally to hazard their lives and fortunes in war against any who would resist it?

There has been a war which has been, and is still sometimes, spoken of by the people of the Northern States, at least, as carried on to assert the sovereign authority of a nation, acting through its servants, agents, or officials, called "the Government," in the only way in which sovereignty can be asserted against dispute—that is, by arms; by physically putting down those who physically resist. There was combat and slaughter enough to serve for any hypothetical war. But fighting and killing cannot of themselves indicate anything beyond the bare fact of fighting and killing. Who were the parties on either hand, in the eyes and minds of those who have knowledge of it? If it was one sovereign against rebels, how can a writer in the leading northern review, January, 1878, say: "It was a conflict between the States before the tribunal

of last resort among nations—*ultima ratio regum*," and this be read by hundreds of intelligent men without the faintest sense of indignation or astonishment? Because it expresses the popular idea of the "War for the Union"; the very idea with which the South risked it at the first, but which the Administration, at least after Mr. Lincoln's death, accepted, and which was confirmed by the "reconstruction measures" in dealing with the States as conquered political entities, liable to be held to the consequences of defeat in war, because capable of waging war by their nature as States; that is, being States, having by their nature the right to call their citizens to bear arms in sustaining their dominion against all contestants.

Treason and traitors, rebellion and rebels were fluently talked of during the war. There was a decision of Judge Chase's, in the United States Circuit Court, that the acts of violence against the Government which had occurred in North Carolina corresponded in character with that "levying war" which in the Constitution had been defined as treason against the United States; but who the wicked individual was who had levied the war is judicially undetermined up to the present moment. The popular notion was that, while a State may be the party engaged in war with a public enemy, the citizens of that State may at the same time be chargeable with treason and rebellion against that same public enemy. The States were trying to accomplish separation by public war; but the wickedness of the motives made their citizens rebels and traitors as to the enemy with whom their sovereign was engaged. Here was a contradiction of ideas which could not be expected to continue; and as the idea of treason in individual citizens was allowed to fade gradually out of thought, so the antagonistic idea that the States were the parties in the war, States on either hand, Northern against Southern, Southern against Northern, has become formulated. The Decoration-Day speeches, the military reunions, the "fraternizations," the "era of good feeling" of this passing year have all been founded on this idea; while, as a natural consequence, in dwelling on the prowess of the State, its right to marshal its citizens in war has become more distinctly prominent in the thought and imagination of the citizen. Popular orators instinctively give out sympathetic utterance. Mr. Beecher, exalting military education before a recent reunion of prominent officers, mostly from West Point, praises the Southern States for their zealous support of their State military academies, and blames the Northern States for not following the example.

The popular army is not that army which, though indispensable in the Territories for fighting Indians and for dirty frontier work, cannot draw swords in the name and cause of a visible, tangible possessor of inherent supremacy, but only for a Government acting as convenient instrument for States each of which may, on occasion, sustain its own underived sovereignty by war. There are popular armies: the military of each State, not yet called, in terms, the army of that State, is that which draws to itself the hearts of the people. J. C. H.

CALIBAN'S PROTOTYPE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The question whether Shakspere's "Tempest" was a *Tendenz*-drama may be left to M. Renan and his forerunner Kreyssig, the latter of whom wrote:

"Caliban is the people. Like the people, he worships all that flatters his senses, . . . and when he chants his drinking-song, 'Ban, 'ban, Ca-Caliban, freedom, freedom,' he comprehends in it all the manifestoes of democracy, which demands no more than freedom to do evil. Such is the concealed sense of Shakspere's creation, and the enigma which it belongs only to penetrative intellects to decipher."

I confess to a greater interest in the researches of those who endeavor to find the external sources of Shakspere's plays—of plots, situations, and characters. Now, the "Tempest" has given rise to a considerable difference of opinion as to the date at which it was composed, one party holding with Malone that the play was suggested by Jourdan's narrative of the wreck of Sir Thomas Gates at Bermuda in 1609, and hence was composed in 1610-11; another agreeing with Hunter that a much earlier date should be assigned to it, and that the scene was laid in the island of Lampedusa, midway between Malta and the coast of Tunis. The fact is, I believe, that all the features of the play which have been viewed as connecting it with the Mediterranean are realized at Bermuda, while many others find their parallel in Bermuda alone. The geography of the "Winter's Tale" should warn us not to seek for perfect consistency here; and Ariel's commission to fetch dew from the "still-vex'd Bermoothes"—perhaps the greatest stumbling-block for the Bermuda theory—need not outweigh any positive evidence that Bermuda was in Shakspere's mind at the time the "Tempest" was conceived. Moreover, as regards the scene of the wreck of Sir Thomas Gates, commentators have failed to notice that in Shakspere's time, according to Purchas in his 'Pilgrimes,' it was not universally allowed to have been the "true Bermudas," and the poet himself may have shared this scepticism.

So far as I am aware, nothing has yet been done to connect Caliban with Bermuda. On this subject Jourdan's tract throws no light whatever, and Mr. Hunter even supposed that Shakspere formed Caliban after Dagon, the fish-idol of the Philistines. Caliban's *name*, indeed, we know to have been suggested by Montaigne, being simply the metathesis of Cannibal; just as Pigafetti's journal of the voyage of Magellan furnished the name of "Setebos." The brute himself, I apprehend, we owe to Job Hortop, who in 1591 published his 'Rare Travailes,' which was reprinted by Hakluyt in 1600, and read by all the world. Hortop states that, in the year 1570, while a prisoner on board a Spanish ship, he passed the Bermudas, when they "discouered a monster in the sea who showed himself three times vnto vs from the middle vpwards, in which parts hee was proportioned like a man of the complection of a Mulato or tawny Indian." He adds that the commander had one of his clerks put it in writing, for the information of "the king and nobles," and that for fifteen days after they had "wonderful foule weather"—thus associating the creature with a storm. Shakspere describes him in one place as a fish, "legg'd like a man, and his fins like arms"; and to match Hortop's "tawny Indian," Stefano, on beholding Caliban, exclaims: "Do you put tricks upon 's with savages and men of Ind, ha?" Supposing Shakspere to have read Hortop, we can easily explain why the sea-monster should have seemed a useful "property" to him. In his time, stories of the New World everywhere fell upon eager ears. Speaking of England, Trinculo says: "Any strange beast there makes a man," and adds: "When they will not give a doit to relieve a lame beggar, they will lay out ten to see a dead Indian."

Could Shakspere also have been familiar with the rhymed narrative, 'Nevves from Virginia' (1610), which calls the Isle of Devils the "Bermoothawes"? B. F. De Costa.

New York, July 8.

Notes.

THE Reverend Canon Farrar, whose contribution to the discussion of the future life has been his most conspicuous recent work, has gathered into a single volume, entitled 'Language and Languages' (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.), his two earlier books, 'Chapters on Language' and 'Families of Speech.' Both these have gone in their independent form through several editions, and are well known to students of language as pleasantly written works of considerable merit.——Houghton, Osgood & Co. republish in this country the new edition of Haug's 'Essays on the Sacred Language, Writings, and Religion of the Parsis,' brought out by the author's most trusted pupil, Dr. West (he himself died in 1876). The work was first printed in India, and has not been easy to procure, though highly valued by students of the wonderfully interesting literature to which it relates. It is considerably extended, and provided with a full index.——The collected literary remains of Lord Strangford ('Original Letters and Papers upon Philological and kindred Subjects,' London: Trübner & Co.) form one of the more striking books of the year, revealing in their author a genius of high order and acquirements most unusual. It is sad that such a man should have lived known to so few for what he really was, and should have gone down to the grave in the prime of life, leaving behind him no finished *opus* worthy of his abilities, but only specimens showing what he might have done. These lighter products of his pen are rich with wit and liveliness, and will chain the attention even of those to whom their subjects are less attractive.——We have received Vol. i., No. 1, of *Ross-Belford's Canadian Monthly* (Toronto), an illustrated magazine, edited by George Stewart, Jr., which succeeds the defunct *Belford's Monthly*. As the latter broke off in the midst of a serial, "Roxy," so the present magazine begins in the middle of one, "The Monks of Thelema"; but to secure the reader's attention for the fourteenth chapter a synopsis of the first thirteen is ingeniously prefixed.——The *Academy* announces that Friedrich Bodenstedt, the author of 'Mirza Schaffy,' is engaged upon a translation of Omar Khayyám. It will be interesting to compare it with Mr. Fitzgerald's.——Students of the law of evidence may find their profit in a treatise on "Der Beweis im Strafprocess," by Prof.

Dr. A. Geyer, which fills Part 4 of Holtzendorff's 'Handbuch des deutschen Strafprozessrechts' (Berlin: Carl Habel), and is apparently unfinished.——Part 4 of Koolman's 'Wörterbuch der Ostfriesischen Sprache' brings the work down to the word *ek, eke* (oak). Under *dogter, dochter*, doubt is cast on the derivation which makes the primitive meaning of *daughter* to have been the *milker*. Under *dûfel, dûvel*, there is a choice and copious collection of proverbs about his Satanic Majesty. Here is one of them: "Gifd man de dûfel ên finger, den gript hê glîk na de hêle hand."——We regret to record the death of Mr. George S. Appleton, a principal member of the firm of D. Appleton & Co., in the fifty-seventh year of his age.

—To their yet incomplete series of science, literature, and history primers, issued in this country by Appleton & Co., and to the historical course of Mr. Freeman, here published by Henry Holt & Co., Macmillan & Co. have now added a series of hand-books on 'English Men of Letters,' edited by Mr. John Morley, and to bear the American imprint of Harper & Bros. The series seems to have been suggested by the success of the Messrs. Blackwood's 'Ancient and Foreign Classics for English Readers.' A long list of the volumes in preparation is announced. Mr. Morley will himself handle Swift, Mr. Froude takes Bunyan, and Professor Huxley is to give us Hume. Dickens will receive due consideration from the author of 'Tom Brown,' and Goldsmith from the author of the 'Princess of Thule.' Thackeray's son-in-law, Mr. Leslie Stephen, the author of 'Hours in a Library' and a 'History of English Thought in the Eighteenth Century,' has written the first volume—'Samuel Johnson.' To give an intelligent idea of the Great Bear of English literary history in less than two hundred short pages was no easy task, but Mr. Stephen has done it. The task was the more difficult as most of Johnson's literary baggage has been finally consigned to the literary lumber-room—a fact which Mr. Stephen makes clear enough, while he shows the qualities which once made Johnson mighty. The book—as a criticism merely—was worth writing even after Carlyle's essay, and it gives a far juster and a far gentler idea of Johnson and Boswell than Macaulay's trenchant paper. Nor is this fuller appreciation gained by any neglect of those asperities which gave point to Hood's joke about "Dr. Johnson's Contradictionary." Two of the six chapters are almost wholly filled with extracts—favorable and the reverse—from the Boswellian verbatim report. Apropos of Johnson's style, Mr. Stephen quotes Goldsmith's apt assertion that if Johnson had written fables he would have made the little fishes talk like whales, and makes a remark of his own somewhat similar in reference to the heavy attempts in the *Rambler* at the touch-and-go lightness of Steele or the airy grace of Addison. When Johnson "ventures upon such topics he flounders dreadfully, and rather reminds us of an artist who should attempt to paint miniatures with a mop." The second of the 'English Men of Letters' to be published will be Mr. R. H. Hutton's 'Scott,' and it is certainly curious to note that the first two authors treated in the series are the subjects already of two of the best biographies in our language. Moreover, close upon the appearance of Mr. Stephen's 'Johnson' we see announced 'Dr. Johnson: his Friends and his Critics,' by George Birkbeck Hill, D.C.L.

—The *American Architect*, discussing our elevated railways from its special point of view, and foreseeing the changes that must inevitably ensue in the use of buildings along their routes, makes two alternative suggestions. The lower story, being now in a great measure cut off from light and air by the overshadowing trestle-work, might take the place of the present basement, which it would readily surpass as a convenient and wholesome place for the reception and storage of goods. Then, says the *Architect*, either let the second story be set back (*i.e.*, cut out) the width of the sidewalk, making an arcade like the Rows in Chester, the third, fourth, and remaining stories overhanging; or let the entire façade above the first story be set back the proposed distance, so that the upper part of the building will seem to rest upon a terrace. In either case, the attractive shops would be found on the second stories, which, continuously connected by bridges over the streets with each other, and with the railway depots, would thus constitute an elevated promenade that could hardly fail to be popular as meeting the new conditions. Elevators might be used to save the fatiguing ascent of steps. The *Architect* is uncertain whether the arcade plan or the terrace plan would most delight the profession, as giving scope for its finest efforts; but there can be no question that the terrace plan would most dignify the avenues by increasing their width skywards, and be in every respect the most wholesome for residents or visitors. Moreover, if the present noisiness of the trains were not overcome, the reverberations in the galleries or rows would be almost unendurable. On the other hand there are some obvious drawbacks, in our winter climate, to an open *trottoir* twenty feet above the street level.

—The scheme thus suggested is, of course, feasible only on condition of a general agreement among property-owners, at least for a block. There is at present no sufficient uniformity in the height of stories; and if it were sought to make the second story absolutely level with the track, the first story would be of varying heights (since the track grade is not constant), and the least height would still be much greater than is now profitable, or could be, unless subdivided for use as a basement. The track on Pearl Street, for example, sometimes cuts across and sometimes runs above the second story (of pretty old buildings, to be sure). Another consideration is that the streets most monopolized by the railways are not now, and are not likely to become, the resort of retail shoppers, unless the railways themselves create the custom. This, of course, is possible; and perhaps, as we have no Haussmann to order these hanging boulevards, and no municipal authority to set back the façades without compensation, it might be worth while for the companies to buy up a block of grumbling tenants and landlords, and convert it into terraces or arcades adjacent to some one of their depots. The example would soon be followed by private owners if it proved successful.

—The exact and full text of the report of the British Royal Commission on Copyright is now obtainable. We referred to the report briefly when a summary of its suggestions was telegraphed by cable over a month ago. We have already corrected the statement that it was unanimous. Sir Louis Mallet dissented from it in almost every significant point, and most of the members of the Committee disagreed with the majority in one or more minor points. But in the main conclusions, in all important points, there is practical unanimity. These important points for us are, as we said before, "the fixing of the duration of copyright for the life of the author and thirty years thereafter"—all his copyrights thus expiring at once at a date easy to verify; "the reservation to the novelist of the exclusive right to dramatize his own work; the putting of works of art and of dramatic and musical compositions on the same footing as books, and the according to all foreigners publishing books in British dominions the same rights as British subjects," on condition, however, that the book be first published in the British dominions. This condition is not difficult, and the result will be, if the suggestions of the report become law, that American authors and artists will have full copyright protection in the British Empire. This granting of protection to foreigners is the one recommendation likely to excite opposition, but that some revision of the English copyright laws is necessary is obvious from even a cursory study of the well-made digest of the present law which Sir James Stephen has appended to the report, telling just what the law is, citing cases, and embodying in amendments the recommendations of the Committee. As an instance of the very chaotic state in which the English law now is, it seems that a lecturer may reserve copyright in his address by giving notice before its delivery to two justices of the peace, and the penalty for infringement of this copyright is a forfeiture of every copy of the address, with "one penny for every sheet thereof found in his custody—half to the Queen and half to the informer," so that, as Mr. Stephen suggests, "a person who delivered a popular lecture and got it published in the newspapers, after having given notice to the two justices, might by good management seize the whole editions of all the London papers and get one penny apiece besides." None of the copyright acts seem well drawn; a section of one "is a miracle of intricacy and verbosity"; another is "inexpressibly puzzling, besides being very cumbrous." Sir James Stephen's digest and suggested amendments, on the other hand, may be called almost a miracle of clearness. It would be difficult for any layman to misunderstand it, and it will doubtless be an efficient weapon in the hands of those who desire a revision of the law. With the usual tendency of the English race to arrive at practical results with the least possible discussion of unnecessary and possibly irreconcilable theories, we have in the report no decision as to the nature of copyright itself—as to whether it is a natural right or merely statutory. (Sir James Stephen says that it is doubtful whether there is copyright by the common law or not.) Although the question is not directly passed on, the *obiter dicta* of a majority, at least, of the commissioners point to a general belief in the purely statutory origin of copyright. A decision on this preliminary point would greatly simplify the subject. If copyright is not a natural right, the reprinting, for instance, of American books in England, and of English books in America, is in no sense "piracy," and the word is absurd. On this sub-

ject we see no reason to retract our assent to the theory laid down in the pamphlet of M. de Folleville (noticed in *Nation*, No. 641), a pamphlet which seems not to have been known to any member of the commission. The French writer, taking a middle course, held that an author had a natural right to his MS., and that this right perished naturally when he published his work, *i.e.*, "dedicated it to the public," in return for which gift the community creates for his benefit a monopoly in his own work for a specified time. Sir Louis Mallet desires to substitute for this monopoly which we give the author in his own work, under the name of copyright, a royalty of a fixed percentage on the retail prices at which any or all publishers may choose to issue the work ; but this change is far too radical to have much chance of acceptance. The report deserves careful consideration by all interested in literary property, and although it leaves more than one point untouched, it is likely long to be an important document in all discussion upon the law of literature.

—The details received by post have added very little to the accounts transmitted by telegraph of the death of Januarius Arthur MacGahan, the special correspondent of the *Daily News* with the Russian forces in Turkey. Partly through his character, partly through his adventures, and partly through his connection with the last war from its very beginning, MacGahan had conquered for himself a peculiar position among correspondents. Born in Somerset, Ohio, about 1842—a townsman, therefore, of General Sheridan—after going to college and studying law, MacGahan found himself in 1870 at Brussels studying French and German, and Roman law. On the persuasion of a friend he consented to act as correspondent of the New York *Herald* during the Franco-Prussian War. His success was such as to cause him to remain with the *Herald*, and he served it well and faithfully during the Commune, in Rumania, Russia, and the Caucasus, in Geneva, in Holland, with the Russian expedition to Khiva, cruising on American war-vessels in anticipation of a war with Spain, in the camp of Don Carlos and among the mountains of the Basques, and on the *Pandora* during the arctic cruise of Sir Allan Young, many times in difficulty, many times in danger, but always escaping through his pluck, his audacity, and his unfailing good humor. At the outbreak of the Servian war in 1876, as the New York *Herald* desired no special correspondence at that time from the East, MacGahan obtained a leave of absence (his connection with the *Herald* was never actually severed), and accepted a position on the *Daily News*. He desired to join the Servians, with whom he sympathized, but, much to his regret, was sent to accompany the Turkish army. On his way to the front he stopped at Philippopolis for a day or two to wait for some necessary papers and permissions, and there saw and heard enough of the disordered state of the country to become deeply interested. He postponed his departure for the army, made a tour through Bulgaria, and wrote those vivid and truthful letters which had such an influence on public feeling in England, and, in a certain way, on all subsequent events in the East. Owing to the absence of postal facilities these letters were all written without the slightest idea of the effect that they were producing. After the Servian war was over, MacGahan returned to Bulgaria and gave the most of his time to assisting Lady Strangford in relieving and caring for the houseless victims of the massacres. After spending the winter in Constantinople and St. Petersburg, doing always excellent service by the correctness of his information and the justness of his views, MacGahan was sent to the Russian headquarters at Kishinef, and remained with them from the beginning to the very end of the war. His criticism was as unsparing as his appreciation was just, and he never forfeited the esteem in which he was held by the Russian commanders and diplomatists. The fatigues of the campaign seriously affected him ; a fall from his horse injured his leg, and rheumatism and fever undermined his general health. The malaria of San Stefano, aggravated by the bad sanitary arrangements of the camp, brought on a severe form of typhus, of which he died at Constantinople on June 9, after less than a week's illness. Gen. Skobeleff, whose reputation MacGahan had greatly helped to make, the members of the American and Russian Legations, and a deputation of Bulgarian boys from Robert College followed him as chief mourners to his grave in the Catholic cemetery of Feriköi on the Bosphorus. The Bulgarians showed their sense of his services to their nation by celebrating a funeral mass in the cathedral at Philippopolis.

—Not to speak of his energy, tenacity, and courage, MacGahan, by his modesty, the breadth of his culture, his power of thought, and, more than all, by his sincerity, his honesty, and his discretion, stood far above the American type of correspondent. While his modesty, the sweetness and gentleness of his character, his self-sacrifice and devotion to his friends, the nobility of his nature, and his universal sympathy with what was good or beautiful, added to his wit, his contagious good-humor, and the power of his conversation—though he was generally inclined to silence—might account for his many friends, for his being a favorite in society, and for the singular fascination which he exercised over women, it was chiefly due to his known and proved discretion, to the unfailing reliance that could be placed on him, that he was freely admitted to state secrets, and was at the same time the intimate of the Russian Foreign Office and of the British Embassy. MacGahan was far more than a newspaper correspondent. His ideals and aims were outside journalism. Far more than most literary men was he gifted with the literary sense. He was not, as is commonly supposed, a rapid writer ; he would spend hours over a short telegram, and always changed and corrected and frequently rewrote his letters, in order, while strictly adhering to truth, to obtain the proper climax and effect. He wrote two books, both when pressed for time and unable to give the revision which he desired : 'Campaigning on the Oxus,' which is, with the possible exception of Palgrave's 'Arabia,' the best book of travel of modern times, and 'Under the Northern Lights,' a description of the cruise of the *Pandora*, which is, as he himself said, "a desperate attempt to make a book out of nothing." He had planned a book on the Carlist war, in which he hoped to show why the Basques supported absolutism to retain republican privileges, and a work on the late war and the Eastern question, which, with his knowledge of secret negotiations and of unpublished documents, would have been exceptionally valuable ; and he had desired to enter the paths of pure literature with a more ambitious work. *Dis aliter visum.*

—M. Rameau is out again in the *Opinion Publique* with another long article in answer to our few lines of comment on his 'Colonie Féodale.' We had called attention to his curious statement that Massachusetts was first communistic and then feudal, to which he replied by citing authorities to show that communism once existed in Virginia. He now, in great triumph, cites Bancroft to show that it once existed in Plymouth. We beg to inform him that Plymouth and Massachusetts were two colonies wholly distinct, built on different principles, and forming two separate members of the fourfold confederacy of New England. The one was founded in 1620 and the other in 1630. Such communism as there was in Plymouth ceased years before Massachusetts began to exist. Massachusetts was no more communistic than she was feudal. M. Rameau proceeds to discuss at great length our remarks on his book, evading points at issue and misquoting both his own statements and ours ; but we cannot give more space to him. As to the questions of feudal colonization, and the relative qualities of French and English colonists, we decline to discuss them, either now or hereafter, with M. Rameau. We have elsewhere given our views on these matters, and shall probably have occasion to do so more fully.

—The sale of a portion of the library of the late Ambroise Firmin-Didot, which occupied ten days of last month (June 6–15), was, all things considered, perhaps the most memorable of all book-auctions. The catalogue embraced 715 numbers and aggregated 855,000 francs. Yet the MSS., numbering 70, were less than a fifth part of M. Didot's entire collection ; and the printed books reserved for a future sale may be expected to offer as splendid attractions as the lot just disposed of. Fourteen of the works enumerated in the admirable catalogue, edited by M. Pawlowski, were printed on vellum ; nineteen were unique, so far as known ; a large number bore the signatures or autographic notes of celebrities like Boileau, Bossuet, Condé, La Fontaine, Racine ; and a still larger showed by their bindings that they had once belonged to royalty, its mistresses or ministers, from Francis I. to Louis Philippe. The longest purses in the world competed at this sale, with the result, however, of leaving the French amateurs in possession of most of the treasures which they coveted. Conspicuous among them were the Baron James Rothschild, who bid in person, and the Duc d'Aumale. We note a few of the more remarkable prizes : A poem, MS. (No. 40), "La Coche, ou le Débat d'amour," by Marguerite d'Angoulême, Queen of Navarre, of the XVIth century, on vellum, adorned with eleven curious miniatures, in each one of which the queen is represented, brought 20,100 fr. ; it had cost M. Didot 8,220, and the Queen of Navarre, in 1541, for its manufacture some 300. Another MS. (No. 64), of the XVth century, "Chroniques de Normandie," also enriched with miniatures of unusual size and historic interest, brought 51,000 fr., the highest figure of the sale. No. 65, "Chroniques abrégées des Anciens Rois et Anciens Ducs de Bourgogne," XVth century, in which the text was subordinated to the miniatures, the latter occupying two-thirds of the quarto page, brought 20,100 fr. ; M.

Didot had secured it in 1865 for 10,000, or more than its weight in gold. No. 66, "Le Trespas de l'hermine regretée," an account of the funeral ceremonies of Anne de Bretagne, executed on vellum about 1515, with five full-page (4to) miniatures, brought 13,100 fr. It was formerly the property of the Chancellor d'Aguesseau, and before him of the great Condé. In 1862 its price was 5,000 fr. No. 67, another account of the same "Funérailles," which in 1862 was valued at 3,000 fr., brought here 10,100. Coming now to the printed works, Martin Franc's 'Lestrif de la fortune,' printed at Bruges about 1477, by Colard Mansion, of which but one other copy is known, and which cost the owner from whom M. Didot purchased it 7,000 fr., was knocked down to Baron Rothschild for 21,500. No. 578, 'Cleriadus et Meliadice,' a folio, printed at Paris in 1495 on vellum, unique also in that no paper copy is known, and doubly precious as being adorned with 35 miniatures, brought 19,100 fr., whereas M. Didot paid but 10,000 for it in 1867. No. 582, 'Olivier de Castille,' a romance of chivalry, unique (Geneva, 1492 ?), fell to Baron Rothschild for 20,000 fr. No. 696, a vellum copy of the second edition of Monstrelet's Chronicles, three volumes in two, folio (Paris, about 1500), brought 30,500 fr. M. Didot bought this work in 1862 for 18,000 fr. of the father of the present purchaser, M. Techener. Lower than any of the foregoing prices was that which secured the Latin-French dictionary of Firmin Le Ver, perhaps the most valuable of all the MSS. in a philological point of view. This dictionary was executed on vellum, after twenty years of laborious compilation, in 1440. It contains a great many French words to be found in no other dictionary, and one-sixth of the Latin words are also wanting in other glossaries, not excepting Du Cange. It is now likely to be printed, as it ought to be, the Société pour l'Impression d'Anciens Textes Français being the purchaser.

—The dramatic literature of Persia was almost wholly unknown in the West before the publication in 1845 of the essay written in French by A. Chodzko, who is a brother of the more celebrated Polish patriot and author, and himself the compiler of a Polish-English and English-Polish dictionary now in its eleventh edition. He edited in 1842 'Specimens of the Popular Poetry of Persia,' printed for the Oriental translation fund of the Royal Asiatic Society. He is now connected with the College of France, and he has just contributed to the 'Bibliothèque Orientale Elzévirienne' a little volume on the 'Théâtre Persan,' containing translations of five rather sorrowful sacred plays. M. Chodzko, in the preface, gives a general account of Persian dramatic literature, not very enticing. In the land of the Shah the stage is still very primitive. There are no regular companies or theatres ; the performances are given for the most part in the open air or in the courts of inns—as in England just before Shakspere's day. The actors are apparently amateurs. The expense of the performance is defrayed by wealthy men—as was generally the case also in Greece and Rome—but in Persia, besides personal popularity, the giving of a play confers religious benefits on the giver ; it entitles him to something like the old pre-Lutheran indulgences of the Roman Church. The account M. Chodzko furnishes of performances in Persia at which he has been present is curious. The plays are all drawn from incidents in the life of the prophet, of his son-in-law Aly, and of his grandsons Hassan and Hussein. The translator terms them mysteries, to which they are, in fact, akin, but even less artistic in plot. The Persian play has no action and no climax ; it is only an incident mournfully narrated, for as all the dramas relate to the martyrdom of Hassan and Hussein they are all sorrowful. M. Chodzko reports that there are a few ambulatory companies of jugglers and acrobats playing in rude farces full of practical jokes, and resembling seemingly a very low form of the Italian *commedia dell' arte*. But this sort of *temasha*, or farce, is but little esteemed in comparison with the religious *téazié* already referred to, and of these the five specimens in M. Chodzko's little volume scarcely give one a desire to know more.

—One of the last works of the late Spanish novelist, Fernan Caballero, was a collection of nursery rhymes and tales mostly from her own loved province of Andalusia. This collection has been recently published by Brockhaus in the well-known 'Coleccion de Autores Españoles' (vol. xl.) under the title, 'Cuentos, Oraciones, Adivinas y Refranes populares é infantiles recogidos por Fernan Caballero' (Leipzig, 1878). This interesting contribution to Spanish folk-lore contains fairy tales proper (*cuentos de encantamientos*), children's legends, nursery riddles and prayers, proverbs and maxims collected among the country people, popular Andalusian sayings, and, finally, riddles not peculiar to children. The value of the volume consists in these maxims and proverbs ; the fairy tales are weak versions of stories known all over Europe. Among them, for example, are the Grimm stories of "The Spider and the Flea" (*La Hormiguita*), "The Cat and the Mouse in Partnership" (*El Lobo Bobo*), "The Gold Children" (*Los Caballeros del Pez*), "The Singing Bone" (*El Lirio Azul*), "The Poor Man and the Rich Man" (*Los Deseos*), "The Pack of Ragmuffins" (*Benibaire*), "Dr. Know-All" (*Juan Cigarron*), and "The Little Elves" (*El Duendecillo fraile*). The direct oriental element is less prominent than one would suppose ; there are traces of it in "The Girl with the Three Husbands" (*La Niña de los tres Maridos*), and in "The Bird of Truth" (*El Pájaro de la Verdad*). The story of "Bella-Flor" is valuable as offering a Spanish variant of the famous story of "The Thankful Dead." The religious stories offer little that is valuable. Although the collection was not made in the interest of science, and is far from being what we could wish, we are, nevertheless, thankful for any addition to the slender stock of Spanish popular tales, and the author has increased it considerably by the present work and her 'Cuentos y Poesías populares Andaluces' (Leipzig, 1861).

—Dr. Georg Martin Thomas, a student of well-known eminence in Venetian affairs, and who, we believe, is engaged upon a history of Venice, published last year a monograph, entitled *Commission des Dogen Andreas Dandolo für die Insel Creta vom Jahre* 1350. The 'Commission' is a document of thirty-seven quarto pages, and its historical value is discussed in a brief introduction, sketching the commercial and colonial system of Venice, in which Crete occupied a very important position. It was the meeting-point of the three great routes of Venetian commerce to the East—to Alexandria, to Beyrut, and to Tana (on the Sea of Azof)—as well as the westerly one, to Marocco and England. Crete was made the seat of a feudal military colony, the organization and government of which are briefly described in the introduction, while their details are fully illustrated in the text.

—Prof. Carl Hegel, son of the philosopher, and one of the most distinguished scholars in the field of municipal history (his principal work is 'Geschichte der italischen Städteverfassung') has issued separately the introduction to his edition of the City Chronicles of Cologne (published by the authority of the Munich Historical Commission) under the title 'Verfassungsgeschichte von Cöln im Mittelalter.' It makes a volume of 321 octavo pages. This is a work of a very useful order, illustrating concretely the complete process of municipal development in one of the most important of the German cities. Perhaps Cologne cannot be fairly taken as a typical city, inasmuch as its constitution was exceptionally aristocratic, and in many points—*e. g.*, the powers of the *Schöffen* and of the *Burggraf*—varied from the prevailing type. Still its power, energy, and wealth placed it nearly at the head of the German cities, and the very strength of its oligarchy gave its party contests a peculiarly bitter and violent character. These contests—of the municipality with the bishop, of patrician families with one another, and of the oligarchy with the industrial classes—are fully and clearly described.

RECENT NOVELS.*

'THE Honorable Miss Ferrard' is a very fresh and interesting novel, safe to recommend to those who are picking up books for country or seaside reading. There is apt to be a sense of having been swindled when on opening one book out of a few the same stock characters are met *divaguant* through scenery both commonplace and unreal. Though an Irish novel, this book is not a *réchauffé* of any of Lever's stories ; so far as we can see, the author has no pet theory or pet grievance round which the lines of her novel must be laid ; but she sees keenly and depicts vividly the picturesque condition of Irish life and character, as well as the intricate incoherences and the passionate futility that seem to make a doomed race of the Irish in Ireland.

The story opens with the journey of an Englishman who intends to purchase an Irish estate, and whose driver in his gossiping familiarity gives the list of personages and a good deal of the *mise en scène*—thereby opening the story and conveying necessary information very cleverly. The Hon. Miss Ferrard—a peer's daughter—just "sweet sixteen," appears first to the reader as follows : "She wore a skirt of black wool, so coarse that it might be taken for bear-skin ; a hideously-made tunic of cheap black material ; no collar, no cuffs, no brooch—no attempt at decoration of any kind. Such was the attire of Lord Darraghmore's daughter." This ill-dressed maiden is nevertheless a beauty—with wonderful eyes, charming figure, and hair that hangs to her waist, and it is around her that the whole story turns. Her neighbors (friends she has

* 'The Honorable Miss Ferrard. By the author of 'Hogan, M. P.'' Leisure Hour Series. New York : Henry Holt & Co.

none), her lovers and their surroundings, her untoward circumstances, and the gradual dawning of character and womanliness in the midst of something like barbarism mixed with a shallow pseudo-civilization, are all well described as by one who knows them well and to whom they have ceased to be strange.

If the book is written, as is said, by a young lady, there is a most commendable absence of missyishness, and for us of the North it is very valuable to get so sympathetic and intelligent a sketch of what may be fairly called our governing classes. Taken altogether, 'The Hon. Miss Ferrard' is an original and clever book, and one can hardly read it without that stimulus to the sympathies which we take to be the justification of fiction.

'Margaret Chetwynd' is in entire contrast to 'The Hon. Miss Ferrard.' The bears in this book all "dance to the genteelest of tunes"; the characters move only on soft turf or softer carpet; they are all highly born or highly connected, and when the young people go wrong it is because their noble parents went on too many foreign embassies while the children were young. It is difficult for "Susan Morley" to provide herself with a villain, and here she can get no lower than the extravagant runaway son of valued tenants, and the catastrophe comes about from large checks, signed by the heroine, being found by the hero in what he thinks an unjustifiable place. Though all this has its comic side, the book is innocent and well-bred. The author does not attempt to deal with conditions of which she knows nothing, and finds nothing to envy in Miss Braddon's specialties. Instead of them she shows us her heroine living with her affectionate aunt a quiet life in a lovely country place, where the only excitement is provided by the clever, quarrelsome young clergyman, whose fantastic notion of his clerical duty furnishes one of the elements of the plot. Early in the story the aunt dies, and Margaret is thrown into the hands of Lord and Lady Brundholme, strangers to her, though her guardians, and her haps and mishaps during the year she spends in their family make up the story (somehow its persistent mildness hinders our calling it a novel). At Lord Brundholme's house she meets his eldest son, Hugh Faulkner. He begins his acquaintance by exposing her to an unnecessary alarm for the sake of seeing how she will behave; makes a criticising sort of love to her; finding that she has given a large sum of money to a shabby scamp, puts the worst construction upon her act, and treats her with insulting suspicion; leaves home apparently for the purpose of being brought back again by the uncle of a lady with whom he has abundantly flirted, and to whom he now offers himself. Margaret, who has gone to her own house, accidentally overhears the offer, and, being a good deal worn with bad treatment, falls ill and is nigh unto death. Lady Brundholme goes to take care of her; Lord Brundholme and Hugh promptly arrive, apparently to watch Margaret's decline. She, however, gets better, and as soon as she can move about her room Hugh is admitted, and, for reasons which do not appear, his charming conduct receives an inappropriate reward and Margaret is happy to marry him, which brings us to the natural end of the story.

The writer of 'The Cadet Button' congratulates himself on the untrodden ground of American military life which he has taken for his story, and, to a certain extent, he may rightfully do so. The "greeting" prefixed to the book indicates a feeling in behalf of the Indian which one is surprised to find so little worked out in the story. He is further provided with two heroes: an Indian half-breed (who is at the same time a Scottish chief, a graduate of West Point, and an unmitigated scoundrel) stands for one, and the other is General Custer, idealized under the name of Colonel St. Aure, and endowed with every gift and grace. Having thus a fresh field, a philanthropic motive, romantic circumstances, and personages taken from real life, we rather wonder that Mr. Whittaker has not made a better book. We get an opening scene of young ladies and cadets flirting at West Point, then find St. Aure with his command at a fort on the plains (which is naturally called Fort Marengo), where the colonel deports himself as follows, when Adjutant Peyton brings him the morning report: "Will you oblige me by signing it, Colonel?" St. Aure looked at him a moment in the same quizzical manner, and suddenly uttered a wild Indian yell, while he lifted his hand as if to clutch the other's clustering curls. Adjutant Peyton set his teeth firmly and his eyelids quivered, but he never started. He merely took up the pen without a smile, dipped it in the ink and handed it to St. Aure. The commandant made a last grimace, which failed to move the gravity of his subordinate, and then took the pen. His whole manner changed as he did so. His thin, hollow-cheeked face, with its lofty forehead, sweeping blonde moustache, and cleft chin (*sic*), became set in official sternness, an effect increased by his bushy eyebrows. "Very good, sir," he said; "duty is duty." Whereupon he signed the report. Surely this is very like Mr. Rawjester's conduct in the Condensed Novel. Next we have a secret expedition in search of Indians. Four of the party come upon a correspondent of the N. Y. *Tabard*, masquerading as a Catholic priest, accompanied by two gentlemen known as Beautiful Bill and Colorado Charley, and determined to get into the Indian village on the Yellowstone, where the great council which will decide the movements of the year is to be held. Lieutenant Armstrong joins company with Mr. Meagher, and they penetrate to the very centre of affairs. They are imprisoned by the faithless MacDiarmid and given up for lost, but escape, of course, with the council reported verbatim for the *Tabard*. There is a great deal more—more expeditions, more treachery. There is a pompous and insolvent judge, an old Miss Lacy supposed to maintain the standard of antique gentility, the worldly-minded young lady, the humbler but superior cousin, who finally marries the officer who in the first chapter of the book gave her a "cadet button." There is no lack of incident in American life, and incident certainly abounds in modern American novels; if good literature is aimed at, something more is required. Not even 'Gil Blas' interests us solely by its incidents.

A book by Jules Verne is like a nutmeg or a dandelion—to name it is to describe it. The worst thing concerning his books is that they should have constant and delighted readers. One of Dickens's heroes asks "What passions must rage in the bosom of that man who could shy a music-stool at a fellow-creature?" and one might ask what sort of incoherent notions and crude imaginings must fill what a reader of Jules Verne is pleased to call his mind!

"Madame Gosselin" is a story of a Breton ship-building town, and gives an animated and vivacious description of the life lived there by a prosperous ship-builder and his daughter, by Madame Gosselin, her son George, and a recluse, M. Pleumeur, who, having taken a fancy to George, teaches him mathematics and other things helpful in his career, which is altogether prosperous. He becomes a partner of M. Mauroy and marries his daughter Berthe, a charming creature, full of affection and intelligence. So far all goes naturally, as it might in any other country than France, but by a very well constructed portion of the plot M. Pleumeur becomes suspected of hiding some secret. It now comes to light that Madame Gosselin, whose seclusion and religious observances have been so impressive, is the former mistress of M. Pleumeur; that George is his son; that M. Pleumeur, having been found by Capt. Gosselin in his wife's bed-room, is accused by her as a thief; and that he, offering no defence, has served his sentence at the galleys, and has since lived the life of a hermit, that he might be in George's neighborhood. All this falls like a thunderbolt on the happy young married people; the two criminals are brought face to face; the whole story is told. Madame Gosselin dumbly retires to a convent, and M. Pleumeur, by a sort of agreement, rows out to sea a certain distance and drowns himself. The description of this suicide is perhaps the most powerful passage in the book, and the most attractive character is undoubtedly Berthe, who sustains and invigorates her husband to "quit himself well" in all these terrible events. We must not forget to say that the publishers have been most fortunate in their translator. The style runs smoothly along without awkward idioms or forced constructions. As far as that goes, one might think one were reading an English book.

'Margaret Chetwynd. By Susan Morley, author of 'Throstlethwaite,' 'Aileen Ferrers.'' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

'The Cadet Button: A Novel of American Army Life. By Frederic Whittaker, author of 'Life of Gen. Geo. A. Custer,' etc.' New York: Sheldon & Co.

'Off on a Comet: A Journey through Planetary Space. A sequel to 'To the Sun.' From the French of Jules Verne. By Edward Roth.' Philadelphia: Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger.

'Madame Gosselin. By Louis Ulbach.' (Collection of Foreign Authors, No. 8.) New York: D. Appleton & Co.

WOLOWSKI.*

UNDER the Restoration, a minister whose name remains the synonym of the extremest liberalism of the reign of Louis XVIII., Decazes, founded at the Conservatory of Arts and Sciences public gratuitous instruction in the application of science to the industrial arts. At a period when science was transforming and enriching industry he thought it wise to extend an elementary knowledge of it elsewhere than in colleges, and that in a city with a numerous and active population of workmen, artisans, and manufacturers it was of national interest to teach its

* 'La Vie et les Travaux de Wolowski. Par E. Levasseur, Membre de l'Institut. Conservatoire des Arts et Métiers, Cours d'Economie Politique et de Législation Industrielle; Première Leçon, Cours de 1876-7.' Paris. 1877.

multiform applications and to instruct the producers both in the physical laws that govern the material of their handiwork and in the economical laws that rule all labor. Thus to the museum and the small school that then constituted the Conservatory were added three courses of public lectures—one on mechanics, the second on chemistry, the third on industrial economy. Charles Dupin, Clément Desormes, and J. B. Say were the first teachers in these several chairs, and for fifty years this school has grown in numbers and usefulness. A chair of physics, first filled by Pouillet, and some lectures on agriculture, were begun in 1836. In 1838 the preparatory school was reorganized and the number of professorships was increased to ten, and one of these was assigned to industrial legislation, so that students should be instructed not only in applied science and industrial economy, but in the legislation which governs labor, the principles on which it rests, and the reforms that are needed. Such a subject was not only necessary for professional men of science and arts, but for the proper enlightenment of the legislators of the country. This chair was assigned to Wolowski, then twenty-nine years old, and his success as a teacher showed that he was well chosen.

Born in Warsaw in 1810, he grew up in the full faith in France that was bred of the firm hold of the Empire on Poland from 1806 to 1812; and at twelve years of age he was sent to the Collége Henri IV. in Paris, where among his school-fellows were the sons of the Duke of Orleans, afterwards Louis Philippe; at eighteen he returned to Poland and took his degree at the University of Warsaw. He carried with him the liberal ideas inspired by Guizot, Cousin, and Villemain, the leaders of free thought at the University of Paris, and he shared the enthusiasm that was engendered by the success of the Revolution of July, 1830, going through all the phases of the short-lived Polish outbreak—as soldier, statesman, prisoner, and exile; finding in France a home, and showing himself worthy of the new career opened to him there. His whole family finally joined him, and for some years they lived in great poverty; but he went resolutely to work, was admitted to the bar, and at twenty-four, with other young men of his own age, began his life-work—the publication of a review of legislation and jurisprudence, covering the history and philosophy of law, comparative legislation, discussion of important questions in civil, commercial, criminal, and administrative law, critical examination of plans of laws submitted to the legislature, the views of authors and new opinions of the courts, analyses of foreign works on public law and of the discussions of the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences. His associates were Troplong, Ch. Giraud, Faustin Hélie, Ortolan, Ed. Laboulaye, Dufour, Championnière, all in turn foremost men in their professions.

For eighteen years Wolowski edited and contributed largely to the forty-six volumes of his Review, making it the means of supplying the last truths of science to the philosophy and history of French law, and to the application of political economy to French civil and administrative institutions and laws. At the outset he and his associates did the clerical and mechanical work, and his young wife helped with her youth and hope to make their poverty light and easy to bear. For ten years Wolowski reported the debates of the French legislature, an ungrateful task, which required his constant presence at wearisome sessions and cost more trouble than it was worth, but it gained him life-long friends who appreciated his talent for better work. After the long crisis that followed the revolution of 1830 there was a fever of speculation which led to all sorts of frauds and deceptions, owing largely to the unsatisfactory state of the law in reference to corporations. Wolowski, both in his lectures and his writings, pointed out the faults of the existing system and the remedy, showing that industrial legislation rested for its true foundation on the principles of political economy. He attracted the notice and received the encouragement of the Minister of Finances, who created for him the professorship which he filled with such credit in the Conservatory of Arts, where he began in 1843 teaching that industrial legislation ought to be the practical interpretation and application of political economy, the science which explains the growth, distribution, and use of wealth, and supplies the true methods for ameliorating the condition of the working classes, giving liberty to trade, and securing present prosperity and future safety. Professor of Political Economy and Industrial Legislation, Wolowski taught the lessons of science and liberty, of the general mechanism of the growth of wealth and of the true doctrines of its distribution, which have so largely contributed to the great increase of the productive forces of France, indeed of the world at large, during the last three-fourths of the century. For thirty-two years he continued his instruction at the Conservatory, aiming always at some practical reform or some new institution, some prejudice to overthrow or some error to correct, and both in his lectures and in his books his earnestness of purpose, the sincerity of his conviction, the strength of his arguments, the wealth of his illustrations, the method of his proofs, were important far beyond any mere matter of style. In 1848 he fought against the economical errors of the day—the belief that the state could supply labor with wages, capital with a return, and put an end to poverty and misery, by stopping competition. He went to the workingmen in their meetings and gave them the real truths of economical legislation: in return they elected him a deputy by a large majority, and in the legislature he enforced the same lessons, and in company with Blanqui, Bastiat, Michel Chevalier, Léon Faucher, Louis Reybaud, strove to secure the triumph of common sense and the re-establishment of private rights and public liberty. The means which he advocated for the improvement of the working classes were voluntary associations and the largest liberty for industrial enterprises; popular lectures on political economy; wise legislation in the employment of children and the protection of apprentices; opposition to the legal limitation of the working-day to twelve hours, and assertion of the absolute right of every man to make his own terms.

Driven out of public political life by the Empire, Wolowski returned to it only in 1871, when he was again elected a deputy. But the interval of nineteen years was full of useful activity—teaching, writing, publishing, disseminating sound doctrines, sharing the labors of the Political Economy Society, of that of Agriculture, of the Institute, of the Statistical Society, of the Board of Trade, of successive exhibitions, travelling to study men and institutions, and endearing himself to the representatives of the great countries by his intimate knowledge of their leading interests. He translated Roscher's 'Political Economy,' and made his notes the principal monument of his own doctrines on the subject. He had hearty faith in the historic method of study for political economy as for the science of law. His aim was to work out an economic history, and he began with his history of Industrial Legislation before Colbert, followed by lectures on Henry the Fourth as an economist and on Colbert's administration; and he planned a history of Industrial Legislation in France, and another of the Commercial Relations of France and England; but these were never completed.

Four subjects occupied much of his attention—the "Crédit Foncier," or Land Bank; the question of the relative values of gold and silver; banks; commercial liberty; and these he developed with great industry. He was the creator and the first director of the French Crédit Foncier, established in 1852, after ten years of earnest advocacy of the plan, and gave way to another head of the institution more acceptable to the Imperial authorities, while he watched the increasing success of the institution that he had called into being. It has largely aided in the growth of the great cities, and for twenty years has secured capital for rural as well as urban enterprises, which, without such help, would have languished and perhaps died. Agricultural progress in France owes much of its success to the aid of the Crédit Foncier and to Wolowski's wise rules for its government. His views on gold and silver were very firm. He believed that there was not too much metal for circulation, and that to banish or even reduce to a secondary place either of the two elements would be to exaggerate the value of the other, and favor creditors at the expense of debtors; and that money is not the particular value of one or the other of the two precious metals, but the resultant of the combined value of both. He republished the treatise on the first invention of money written in the time of Charles the Fifth by Nicolas Oresme, and the treatise on money by Copernicus; and he urged his and their doctrines on every occasion without being discouraged by want of followers or by the legislation that disregarded his theories. Wolowski warmly sustained the monopoly of banking and of the issue of bills by the Bank of France as best for France, but he advocated absolute liberty for discount and other banks, holding that the emission of bank-notes was an act of public authority for which the Government was largely responsible, that the liberty of banking and the security of circulation were easily reconciled, and that true progress meant a well-developed credit based on a sound metallic reserve. The question of commercial liberty was the great one with French economists for more than twenty years past. France, since the Empire and the Restoration, has maintained a tariff for the protection of its great national industries, and Wolowski was among the leaders of those who wanted to change it in the interest of consumers. He sought to show that a system of simple and moderate tariff rates is not only easier and fairer, but better for foreign as well as domestic growth, and that the workingmen gain by the development of trade and manufactures under low tariffs. He sought to enforce his ideas in a tariff-union with Belgium in 1843, in an association for free-trade established in

1846, in his support of the Commercial Treaty with England in 1860, and in defence of it when it was attacked in 1868 and 1872.

But apart from this long career of public activity Wolowski was full of private works of charity and benevolence. He helped support a Polish school, he gave freely of time and money to the exiles of Alsace-Lorraine, he was busy in a great many public charities, and he was incessant in his private acts of kindly and generous assistance to individuals, seeking out among his students and other young men those who most needed his encouragement and his substantial help. His public life was crowned by his election in 1874 as a life senator, and the honor thus conferred was due to his firm, moderate, and conciliatory support of the Republic, and to the scientific knowledge, sound experience, and untiring industry with which he applied himself to his legislative duties and to the solution of difficult problems of government. His life was saddened by the domestic sorrows that left an unalterable impression upon him, and the death of an only grandson quickened his death; for his strength, weakened by overapplication, was unable to bear the strain upon his tender and affectionate heart. He died in his sixty-seventh year, leaving a long list of printed works to perpetuate his useful activity. In this memoir by Levasseur his colleagues of the Conservatory of Arts and Trades bear their testimony to the debt due him for his services at that institution, where he taught for over thirty years, alike from the large number of persons who have heard his lectures and from the general public, who have gained beyond any means of computation by the sound knowledge freely spread abroad through his varied and useful labors in their behalf. The long list of his published writings given by M. Levasseur serves to show how industriously Wolowski labored to disseminate his learning, and the career of the man is characteristic of the recognition given by the Government of France to diligent services in behalf of public instruction. The administrative unity of that country brings to the front all those who are engaged in studies that in any way affect public interests, and thus encouragement is given to private persons to contribute of their store of knowledge both to the enlightenment of their fellow-citizens and to the improvement of the laws under which national wealth and enterprise are likeliest to be developed, secured, and increased. The prosperity that marks France to-day in the midst of the hard times of other countries, and in strong contrast to the want of knowledge as to the cause of and lack of remedies for our own commercial and financial troubles, is largely due to the intelligent labors of men like Wolowski; and the tribute paid to his memory may well serve as an encouragement to our own economists, and to the Government and people who so carefully eschew their lessons.

A Trip up the Volga to the Fair of Nijni-Novgorod. By H. A. Munro-Butler-Johnstone, M.P. (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.) —*The Russians of To-day.* By the author of 'The Member for Paris,' etc. (New York: Harper & Brothers; Franklin Square Library.)—The only way of criticising certain books is by telling who wrote them. Here it is doubly necessary. Mr. Butler-Johnstone is a well-known member of Parliament who some years ago went for his health to the Steppes of Samara, east of the Volga, to try the *kumys* cure. The *kumys* did him good; he was enchanted with Russia, and bought a large estate between Samara and Orenburg, where he intended to introduce irrigation and try scientific farming. Unforeseen difficulties and a knavish agent compelled him to relinquish his undertaking at a loss, and he went away disenchanted. The reaction was so great that he became a strong Turcophile, went to Turkey, and lived for a while in Stambul among the Turks in close relations and sympathy with Ali Suavi and the Young Turkey party, and during the Conference was thought to be the private and unofficial agent of Lord Beaconsfield. His enthusiasm for the Turks is so great as to verge on the ridiculous. He wrote a series of papers for the *Pall Mall Gazette*, in which he maintained the superiority of Turkish character and civilization over Western Europe, and ascribed the decadence of good manners and morals among us to the filthy practice of shaking hands. It is evident that Mr. Butler-Johnstone is very impressionable, and his writings must be viewed merely as records of momentary impressions. 'A Trip up the Volga' was written in the shape of letters to the *Daily News*, when the author was still satisfied with Russia—so satisfied, indeed, that he went out of his way to defend the Russian treatment of Poland. As a hasty traveller's impressions of the Volga and of the often-described Fair of Nizhni-Novgorod, the book is entertaining, and up to the level of ordinary newspaper correspondence. It gives us, however, no new views, and no new information. The curious reader will perhaps get one impression, that the fair of Nizhni-Novgorod is not worth visiting—which is the solemn and exact truth, unless the traveller know the rest of Russia well and be greatly interested in Russian industry and commerce. As a spectacle it is nothing.

'The Russians of To-day' is a book of a different character. It is a squib —or rather a political pamphlet—written by a very clever man to serve the plans of the "Jingoes" and to excite hostility to Russia. It is in no sense of the word a genuine book. It is false throughout, and intended to be false. Provided the desired effect be produced, the author is unscrupulous as to the means he employs. He began his literary career, when an attaché of the British Embassy at Constantinople, by a very amusing lampoon on his chief. It was too well done to merit severe punishment, and his real abilities promoted him in time to be British Consul-General at Odessa, but after a few years he was turned out of the service for official misconduct and for great "irregularities" in his accounts. He revenged himself by ridiculing the Government in the *Queen's Messenger*, a paper he started in London, but the virulence of his attacks caused him to be horsewhipped by a certain noble lord, and finally compelled him to leave England with an indictment for perjury hanging over his head. The author's experience in Odessa is, of course, the basis of this book, which originally appeared in the columns of the *Pall Mall Gazette*. The whole book is amusing, but the reader who does not know Russia should make large deductions. The character sketches are excellent, but the Russians of the author's "to-day" are the Russians of fifteen and twenty years ago. The details are in general very incorrect. As a single instance, take the constant references to *statues* and *statuettes* of the Virgin and the Saints, things which are allowed in no Russian church and in no Russian house. From an artistic point of view this book is far below the clever pictures of French society in 'The Member for Paris' or 'French Pictures in English Chalk,' or the excellent sketches of English officialdom in 'The Boudoir Cabal.'

Star-gazing, Past and Present. By J. Norman Lockyer, F.R.S. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co.)—That the title of a purely literary work should often give no clue whatever to its subject or contents we can readily understand, because in works designed for rational amusement the reader does not always want to know exactly what he is to be treated to. Choosing the title of a scientific book on this principle strikes us as a new idea, and as very suggestive of the extent to which the popularization of science is now being carried, since it implies that readers of a scientific book care as little for its subject-matter as they do for the details of a new poem. Of course, every one knows it to be impossible to write a large volume on star-gazing, and will not be surprised to hear that Mr. Lockyer's book is really a treatise on the history and construction of astronomical instruments. It has the ordinary merits and demerits, the latter rather of a negative character, of our popular scientific literature. The story is told in the pleasing, diffuse, and occasionally loose style of the lecture-room, being, in fact, expanded from shorthand notes of a course of lectures, and shows on every page the tone of a very busy man, who could never stop to think over a sentence, nor to view his subject from the standpoint of philosophic leisure. No expressions of doubt are allowed to shake the confidence of the reader. To all appearances, the author is just as sure of the way in which Hipparchus made his observations as of the way in which he himself handles his own spectroscope. All the "hard" parts of his subject are carefully avoided, so that the unscientific reader need not fear meeting with anything he cannot understand. At the same time the book contains a vast amount of carefully-collected information on the subject treated, a great deal of which cannot be found in any other work readily accessible to ordinary readers.

Visions: A Study of False Sight (Pseudopia). By Edward H. Clarke, M.D. With an Introduction and Memorial Sketch, by Oliver Wendell Holmes, M.D. (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1878. Pp. xxii., 315.)—This is a book of unusual interest and value. It contains a clear and thorough physiological analysis of normal vision, in the course of which the five sets of organs which constitute the mechanism of human sight, and the special functions of each, are vividly described. It is shown that sight is internal or intracranial, a function of the brain, not of the eye, and that this internal seeing, though usually and normally produced by stimuli from without, may also be excited from within, by changes in the substance or circulation of the brain, producing a visual impression or image without any stimulus from the eye. This explanation of the phenomena of normal vision is necessary as a basis for a just interpretation of those of false sight. The conclusion reached is that in-

ternal influences may and sometimes do produce in the organs of vision the conditions and movements which accompany and constitute normal sight—that is, the person really sees, but sees what has no present objective existence or relation to the eye. Such abnormal seeing constitutes a vision. A number of interesting cases of vision-seeing are given and explained. Some of them are very remarkable, involving delusions of both sight and hearing; and fortunately the phenomena were observed and reported by persons of trained and discriminating faculties. In all these instances the physiological solution appears entirely adequate. Excited or abnormal conditions of the brain, working in conjunction with the effects of habit and association, reproduce and combine, in waking as well as sleeping hours, impressions formerly made upon the organs of sight, and registered or deposited in the substance of the brain. The wonder-working power is intracranial, but it has all the impressions of experience for its materials.

The book would be of great use if it could be widely read by those who still retain the methods of thought of uncivilized man, and it deserves an important place among the books needed for our new national education; an indispensable element of this education being the instruction of people in scientific methods of thought and investigation. An important factor in our national thought and life is the thorough belief on the part of millions of our countrymen of the objective reality of what is seen and heard in visions, fancies, and ecstasies, and in the trustworthiness of revelations thus obtained from "the spirit-world." Visions become less common as scientific education advances, because such predisposing causes as faith, enthusiasm, and terror are diminished or removed. It is probable that all visions may rightly be explained on physiological grounds; but if it could be established that the appearance of a friend in a vision and his death at a distance are often really synchronous, this would introduce an element for which our analysis is as yet insufficient. Probably this cannot be established, but on this point we cannot yet speak with certainty. There appears to be no reason for regarding as exceptional the three cases which the author describes as containing elements which were, perhaps, not wholly subjective. The mere possibility, in the entire absence of evidence, that these persons may have "caught a glimpse of the glory beyond" has no scientific value. "There was no revealing sign" (p. 278). On pp. 302 and 312 it is said that "in the future life there can be no such thing as space. A child dies in Yokohama, and the instant the soul leaps from the body it can talk to its earthly parent in Boston, as if the Pacific and the Rocky Mountains and the prairies did not intervene. The future life is not conditioned by time or space." All this may be true, but if we are to use language with any strict regard for its meaning we are obliged to say that there is absolutely no knowledge on the subject. We may believe there is a future life, may have trust and faith in regard to it, but men in this world have no knowledge of any other life than the present. The desire to know what lies beyond death is natural to man in the earlier stages of his development, but all that he has wrought or gained until now has been achieved without any knowledge of a future existence.

The book has a portrait of the author. Dr. Clarke was a man of rare elevation of character, he was eminent in his profession, and his 'Sex in Education' is one of the best books of our time.

The Chronicle of the St. Lawrence. By J. M. Le Moine. (Montreal: Dawson Bros.; Rouse's Point, N. Y.: John W. Lovell. 1878.)—Mr. Le Moine is well known in Canada and out of it as the author of many works, some historical, some relating to natural history, and some to angling. In his four volumes called 'Maple Leaves' he gives a collection of disconnected but exceedingly interesting sketches of Canadian history, founded on extensive research and written in the easy and entertaining style which always characterizes him. We also have from him two works on Canadian ornithology, 'L'Album Canadien,' 'Notes Historiques sur les Rues de Quebec,' 'The Tourist's Note-Book,' 'Quebec: Past and Present,' 'Les Pêcheries du Canada,' and various other works in French and English. He writes in either language with equal facility. The present volume is thoroughly characteristic of his style and mode of treatment. It is divided into two parts; the first a sort of itinerary of a voyage from Quebec to the Maritime Provinces, and also of the famous "round trip" to the Saguenay and back. The second part is a series of descriptive and historical sketches of the chief localities of the lower St. Lawrence. The book contains a prodigious amount of information, partly concerning the past and partly the present, sometimes drawn from study and sometimes from observation. The style is off-hand, rapid, and now and then careless; but as the volume is meant as much for the deck of a steamboat as for the study-table, this can hardly be reckoned a serious blemish. What it most needs is an index of localities. With this addition, it would be the pleasantest and most useful companion for the tourist that it is possible to conceive; without it, it is a treasury of curious knowledge rather perplexing from its abundance and variety. Everything is here—history, legend, anecdote, the fanciful and the practical; and nothing is wanting but the means of finding them without trouble—that *sine qua non* of the tourist.

Unjust Laws which Govern Women. Probate Confiscation. By Mrs. J. W. Stow, author and lecturer. Third edition. Revised and enlarged. (Published and sold by the author. 1878.)—According to the story told in this volume, Mrs. Stow is the victim of the bad laws of California governing the distribution of the estates of deceased persons, and the worse administration of them prevailing in the probate courts of that State. The tale of her grievances is so poorly set forth that it is difficult to make out the precise nature of the persecutions of which she complains, and the tone of her book is not one to convince the reader without reference to facts. Indeed, we fear it might be made a more effective weapon by her enemies than her friends. Mrs. Stow feels that women are an oppressed class; it is generally admitted that they form a physically weak class. Now, the only way in which any such class can possibly redress its wrongs, if it really has wrongs to redress, is by the use of arguments supported by clear and irrefutable facts, and resolute self-restraint from all violence and passion. An admirable illustration of the true way to deal with such questions as the property-rights of married women is afforded by the petition to the Massachusetts Legislature to which Mrs. Stow calls attention, in which a number of the best-known men and women in that State request the Legislature in calm but strong language to pass a law making widows executors of their husbands' wills, jointly with the other executors named, whenever they have any interest in the estate. The reasons for this petition are stated by the petitioners with great force and clearness, and the document presents a striking contrast to the windy and turgid pages of Mrs. Stow.

As far as we can make out, her main idea of reform is that the property of the husband at the time of his death represents the joint accumulations of the partnership formed by the husband and wife, and ought to belong to the widow as the surviving partner, without any process of administration in the Probate or Surrogate's Court—a process which she maintains always leads to extortion, and not unfrequently to confiscation. We are willing enough to believe evil with regard to the administration of justice in these courts, but it is obvious that the author here confuses two very distinct questions—that of abuses produced by favoritism and corruption, and that of the condition of the law itself. Of course, if a wife succeeded to her husband's property without administration, there would be hardly any opportunity for "probate confiscation"; but if the law is good enough as it stands, it would be rather an heroic cure to alter it for the mere sake of getting ride of the abuses which have grown up in its execution. Many people, also, would question Mrs. Stow's general statement that the property of husband and wife consists of their joint accumulations. Among well-to-do people the wife does no work except such as is involved in housekeeping and in bringing up her children, and it would be a great stretch of language to call this her share in a joint accumulation of property. It is incapable of proof that he would not have accumulated just as large an estate had he remained single. Besides this, there are the children to be considered. Without the protection that the court gives them, children would have no means of asserting their interest in their father's property, which is certainly as great as their mother's. The whole subject is surrounded with difficulties which only a patient and dispassionate investigation of the subject can overcome. With regard to probate abuses, which probably flourish in many other States besides New York, we trust Mrs. Stow's book may attract attention to them, but we fear that the extravagance of its invective and assertion will be apt to do the cause she has at heart more harm than good.

Bernard Délicieux et l'Inquisition Albigeoise (1300–1320). Par B. Hauréau, Membre de l'Institut. (Paris: Hachette et Cie; New York: F. W. Christern. 12mo, pp. 217.)—We have here an interesting episode of mediæval history, related in a graphic style, and with an earnestness rising at times to eloquence. Bernard Délicieux was a Franciscan friar of Carcassonne, in the time when the Franciscan order represented the liberal and reformatory element of the church. He possessed a fiery eloquence and thorough earnestness and devotion, spending his life in efforts to resist the inquisition in Carcassone and Albi, and ending his life in

the dungeon of the Holy Office, a martyr to the cause. The events of twenty years, here narrated, brought him in contact more than once with King Philip the Fair, as well as with King James of Majorca, and Popes Clement V. and John XXII. Of all these personages, and many others of less note, M. Hauréau has succeeded in giving a vivid impression.

The persecutions here described in Carcassonne and Albi were directed against the remnants of the Albigensian sect, which had been crushed so relentlessly a century earlier. Bernard, as well as the leading citizens of these towns who were leagued with him, denied all taint of heresy, and charged against the Dominican inquisitors that their chief object was the wealth of their victims, and that their work was done not only dishonestly, but with appalling cruelty and vindictiveness. The book makes known to us a character, it would seem, of genuine nobleness, and a heroic career, ending in failure. The Inquisition has been made so familiar as an institution of modern times that we are accustomed to regard it as having grown out of the separation of the communions in the sixteenth century, and to associate it with the Roman Church, which is a rival of the Protestant, rather than with that mediæval church which was really *catholic*, as embracing all western Christendom in its fold. A narrative like this before us shows that the policy of the Inquisition was not an outgrowth of schism, but of ecclesiastical power resting upon unity of faith. Another thing is brought out very strikingly—the powerlessness of the royal authority against the ecclesiastical, within the sphere of the latter. Philip the Fair was a great king, and did much to humble the ecclesiastical power; and yet within his own realm of France he was not king as regarded certain offences and certain classes of persons. The Pope alone had the power to control the excesses of the officers of the Inquisition.

We recommend this little volume, which it is hardly too strong to say is as interesting as a novel, to whoever would obtain a vivid picture of the religious life of this period.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Juncker (E.), Margarethe; or, Life Problems: a Tale	(J. B Lippincott & Co.) 1 50
Littell's Living Age, April–June, 1878	(Littell & Gay)
Macquoid (Katharine S.), The Fisherman of Auge: a Tale, swd.	(D. Appleton & Co.) 20
Martin (Mrs. C. B.), Mt. Desert, Maine, 4th ed., bds.	(Loring, Short & Harmon)
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Regan (Lieut. J.), Judge-Advocate and Recorder's Guide	(W. H. & O. H. Morrison)
Reid (Christian), Bonny Kate: a Tale, swd.	(D. Appleton & Co.) 75
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Ridgely (G. W.), Federal Relations of the Protestant Episcopal Church, swd.	(Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger) 50
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Véron (E.), L'Esthétique, swd.	(F. W. Christern)
Ward (Mrs. H. O.), Sensible Etiquette of the Best Society	(Porter & Coates) 2 00
Warner (C. D.), In the Wilderness	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 75
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 18, 1878.

The Week.

THE President last Thursday removed Messrs. Arthur and Cornell from the positions of Collector and Naval Officer of this port, and appointed General E. A. Merritt, the present Surveyor, and Mr. S. W. Burt, the present Deputy Naval Officer, in their stead. These changes, of course, to be permanent, will have to be approved by the Senate next winter. Though Mr. Fenton's name is not on the bond of the new Collector, the opinion seems to prevail that the removals are part of a plan to reorganize the party by the aid of the Fenton wing, and defeat Mr. Conkling's attempt to secure the Senatorship. It is supposed that they will be followed by extensive changes.

This cannot be said to be civil-service reform, but it will be welcomed in many quarters by those who wish well to the Administration, and take the view of Mr. Hayes expressed by Mr. Charles Foster, of Ohio, who says, "He is a good man and is doing first-rate." The Republican press of this city is not well satisfied with the removals; the *Tribune* exhorts its readers not to allow them to ruffle their tempers, and to remember that the only issue now is whether "those who strove to ruin the country shall be allowed to govern it." It admits that on the eve of a deadly conflict with the public foe it is a bad thing to change collectors, but if the commander-in-chief thinks we ought to, let us advance against the enemy under Merritt with the same smiling faces that we should have worn under Arthur. The *Times* is more bitter. It says the facts are these: Arthur was appointed at a time when political service was a requisite of the position; this he gave to the best of his ability; but the most searching investigation has failed to discover that he sacrificed any of the interests of the public to the men to whom he owed his position. Successive committees have in vain endeavored to cast a slur on his honesty or his energy, and the recently recommended reforms were in almost every case urged by the Collector in advance. In pursuance of what is called the "policy" of the Administration, it was determined to remove him; no charges were made against him, except that he did not believe in a civil-service policy which the President did not act upon. The Senate refused to agree to the substitution of Mr. Roosevelt, and now, the Senate having adjourned, the President removes Arthur, "in order to make up a better case for his removal" next winter, and the officer discharged in this way is replaced "by E. A. Merritt!" Verily, says the *Times*, "the wayfaring man, though a fool, can hardly fail to perceive the mingled imbecility and meanness of this latest effort in the direction of reform." All of which shows that, as in custom-houses so, too, in journalism, politics have frequently a deplorable effect on the temper.

Mr. Cornell's letter to the President, written on the 8th of last September, at the time of the first request for his resignation, has been published. It appears that on the 6th of September he was informed by Mr. Sherman that the President had determined on changes in the three leading positions in the Custom-house, and that his resignation would be accepted; that within a week the Assistant-Secretary of the Treasury had written him (Mr. Cornell says that he represented himself as acting by authority) that the President "had no disposition to disturb him in the Naval Office"; that this and other statements left him (Cornell) to conjecture what might be the cause of the trouble, and after deliberation he was forced to ask himself whether it could possibly have anything to do with his retention of his membership in the National Committee and the chairmanship of the State Committee The Executive order issued in June declared "that no officer should be required or permitted to take part in the management of political organizations, conventions, or election campaigns." Now, his active duties on both committees had been at this time fully discharged, and the only act incumbent upon Mr. Cornell was the formal calling of the two conventions. On the 6th of July he was informed, he says, by the Acting-Secretary of the Treasury that the President had stated to him that he did not object to such a formality as this, and on the same day there was published a letter from the Postmaster-General to the chairman of the Wisconsin Republican Committee, who was also a Federal official, expressing the opinion that to "merely provide for the calling of a convention and to call it to order, without attempting to control its organization or future action," would not be inconsistent with the President's order. His own interpretation of the order being thus sustained, he continued to hold the two positions until the 4th of September, when he received two letters from the Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, in which the latter told him (at the President's request) that the papers had "forced public sentiment to a point" in his case where the President felt bound in self-respect to take action if he did not, and suggesting a resignation from the committees. On the same day he received a telegram from the Assistant Secretary, saying, "Administration wants your decision before 12," and intimating that "suspension to-day" was probable if he did not act. This was too much for the haughty Cornell; and he confidently expresses the opinion that the President "will not wonder that I instinctively determined not to prostrate myself at such a summons." Mr. Cornell now washed his hands of all further responsibility in the matter and left it in the President's hands.

The demand for United States bonds was active during the week. Popular subscriptions to the 4 per cents were sufficient to warrant the Treasury in calling in for redemption another $5,000,000 5-20 6 per cents; this call raises the total of 5-20s notified for redemption to $30,000,000 since May 1. The old issues of U. S. bonds have been bought freely by banks and others wishing temporarily to employ money at a higher rate than can be obtained for it on demand loans. The large subscriptions to the 4 per cent. bonds, which have to be settled in gold, has created a demand for gold sufficient to keep the price up to 100⅛ to 100⅜, and this in the face of a weak and declining market for bills on London. All the doubts that exist about the importation of gold before the close of August arise from the condition of the Bank of England and the London money market. Silver has ruled at 52⅜*d.* to 52⅝*d.* per oz., closing at 52½*d.* The bullion value of the new silver dollar ranged here between $0.8894 and $0.8855 gold. The visit of Secretary Sherman to New York during the week had less to do with financial business than with Custom-house politics. At Saratoga there was a meeting of the leading officials of the Vanderbilt railroads; and an organization of the lines, including the recent acquisition (the Michigan Central), was completed. The foundation was also laid for another pooling of West-bound freights by the leading trunk lines.

Messrs. Dun & Co.'s semi-annual circular shows the failures of the first six months of the present year to have very greatly increased over those of the corresponding period of last year, both in number and amount. There were 4,749 in the first half of 1877, with total liabilities amounting to $99,606,171; in the first half of this year there have been 5,825, with liabilities amounting to $130,832,766. The causes of this enormous and dismal increase are, according to the authors of the circular, the openness of the winter, which, by its effect on the roads, retarded sales and deliveries of produce, and collections; the discussion of financial measures in Congress; the fear of important changes in the tariff, and the postponement of the repeal of the Bankrupt Act. "The shrinkage of values," which they also set down among the causes, we take leave to consider merely an effect of the three agencies first enumerated. We are quite sure

that the most powerful of all the causes of the prevailing depression is, however, the fact that Congress and the politicians have got control of the standard of value and of the volume of the currency, and show no disposition to relinquish it, and we venture on the prediction that there will be no real revival of American prosperity until this comes to an end. It is as futile to look for it as it would be to look for the prosperity of a banking-house whose operations were each day superintended by a committee of long-haired and impecunious social reformers sitting in the parlor. Perfect confidence in the future, for at least five years, is an essential condition of the free investment of capital, and this will never be witnessed as long as the Blands, Kelleys, and Voorheeses have it in their power to settle once a year how much money per capita is needed by the "wheels of industry."

The Cincinnati *Times* very properly issues "a warning to the friends of silver," calling their attention to the continued unhandsome treatment of that metal by the Secretary of the Treasury. It was the Cincinnati *Commercial*, we believe, which first called for an attitude of love towards silver on the part of the Treasury, so as to prevent its seeking shelter in the merchants' tills in the West. Since then the Secretary has offered free lodging to it in his vaults, and enormous numbers of lonely dollars have availed themselves of his kindness and are now crouching there. This state of things is, however, still unsatisfactory to the friends of the silver dollar. The Cincinnati *Times* charges the Secretary with treacherously coining trade-dollars that are not needed; with buying bullion in England when he might have bought it at home; with "assiduously priming correspondents of the press with information that all plans for getting the silver dollar into circulation have failed"; and with "continually and cunningly supplying the gold-bull press with 'news' hostile to the bi-metallic standard." It demands, therefore, that silver dollars (Fathers') "be now paid out equally with gold and paper for the Government dues," and says this, with a few other little arrangements, "would make the dollar a grand success." The amount of fraud, treason, cunning, and mendacity enlisted against the dollar seems absolutely appalling, and we again recur to our old suggestion, that the management of this beloved coin be given to women. Tender female hearts alone can know the kind of treatment a Fathers' dollar needs, and soft female hands alone are fit to handle it. How the Fathers would feel, could they rise from their graves and hear the cruel lies that are told about it, and see the hellish intrigues that are started against it! We believe some monsters are already counterfeiting it, and plans are on foot for subjecting it to the inhuman process called "sweating." The surest way, in fact, of making silver circulate would be not to pay it to cold, calculating traders for value received, but to give it to widows and orphans and other helpless persons, on the simple condition that they would treat it kindly and keep it in a flannel bag in cold weather.

The Potter Committee has examined Senator Kellogg, who swears that the Louisiana election in 1876 was carried by means of "intimidation" in five parishes, East and West Feliciana, Ouachita, Morehouse, and East Baton Rouge, and that this was part of a Democratic plot to have the campaign result in no election, and so overthrow the State government; that they did not care much, one way or the other, for the Returning Board, but wanted to bring about turmoil and general disorder; he thinks that Packard could have legally applied to the Supreme Court to try his title, but that the appointment of Judge King by Mr. Hayes as Collector destroyed the Republican quorum in the court favorable to his pretensions; says that he first heard of the Sherman letter "within a year"; that he received last November a letter from Mrs. Jenks (destroyed), begging a position for her husband or brother, in which the Sherman letter seems to have been referred to by her; that he saw her again during the holidays last winter, and she again alluded to it, when he sent her off and advised her to show it to Packard; that she did call on Packard, and that he saw her and Packard afterward, but that he "did not care to go into the subject, as it was a matter of scandal." He contradicted Anderson as to the latter's story of a Republican conspiracy to have the election in the bull-dozed parishes go by default, and produced despatches from D. A. and E. L. Weber, sent from Bayou Sara just before the elections, alleging intimidation and an attempt at assassination.

With regard to the conduct of Mr. Sherman in New Orleans, he declares that, so far as he knows, that gentleman did nothing to influence the supervisors or the Returning Board in their action; that he knew of no forgery or bribery in the case, though he admits that Madison Wells represented to him at the time the count was concluded that one of the members of the Board, Kenner, was "disinclined to assume the responsibility that he would incur by reason of the odium that he thought would be visited upon him if he continued on the Board," and that he was "rather timid" and "comparatively poor," and felt that he "would suffer heavily" through his connection with the canvass. He denies that any proposition was made to raise money for Kenner, and while admitting that he had himself heavy election expenses, and borrowed about $20,000 after the election, says that the loan had nothing to do with the election. As to the forged electoral certificates, he knows nothing about them personally, but had heard one Kelley (subpœnaed by the Committee) spoken of as a man suspected of the forgery; had received a letter from James Armistead, a colored man in New Orleans, in which he stated that Kelley had "gone up the river" with a man named Kennedy, a Senate employee, but had destroyed the letter, as he does "all letters containing scandal and rumors concerning matters of that kind."

The Republicans appear greatly pleased with this testimony, apparently having been afraid that Kellogg was going to declare that the election had been a perfectly fair one and that the Democrats had been cheated. But it was not probable that he would do this in any case, as it would have entailed serious risks upon himself. The Republicans have made the mistake from the first of treating Kellogg's and Sherman's testimony as very valuable; but to any one who looks at the matter impartially it is quite clear that they are from the outset discredited by their enormous interest in the result, and that what is chiefly to be expected from them is admissions or corroborations of other testimony. Their direct testimony is, of course, in their own favor. A great many of the most important facts brought out by the Committee, too, are so hidden in the mass of evidence as to be unintelligible at the present stage of the investigation. For instance, with regard to the forged certificates, Kellogg has satisfactorily explained the whole affair by testifying that he felt somewhat uneasy as to certificate No. 3 (the forged document), and therefore informed Senator Morton of the facts connected with its preparation. Yet he now says that all he knew was that it had been executed twenty days after the time fixed for the meeting of the college, so that this was the only fact he could have communicated to Mr. Morton. But it is clear that he must also have known that the certificates were false, as they purported to recite acts on the part of the electors which had never taken place; and now, it seems, the man who is suspected of having forged the names is spirited off (after having been summoned by the Committee) by a politician whose leave of absence was applied for by Kellogg. The connection of these facts with one another may be made plain by further testimony, the effect of which we do not at all desire to anticipate.

A correspondent of the *Times* has been making an examination into the condition and prospects of the "Nationals" in this State, who are to hold a convention at Syracuse on the 23d of this month. From his account, it seems that the new party is made up of several different factions, all of which are now, or soon will be, engaged in a desperate struggle for the leadership. There are the "Greenbackers," who want unlimited money; the "Labor Reformers," who want limited hours of work, or higher wages, or a cessation of convict competition; and pure Communists, who desire "from every one accord-

ing to his ability, to every one according to his needs." In several counties the new party has an organization of some kind, stronger in the cities than anywhere else. Its strength is of a sort difficult to estimate, as its leaders generally affect a good deal of secrecy and mystery. In this city the aims of these reformers appear to be chiefly Communistic, and there is a great deal of quarrelling and bickering going on which does not promise well for "harmony." When the convention comes together the new party will have to meet the difficulty of drawing up a platform, and if we may judge from the unofficial demands made in advance, it will be a startling one. A petition to the Aldermen has been circulated, recommending "the purchase, on the city's credit, of flour and coal in sufficient quantities, to be deposited in proper depots and sold in small quantities to the citizens at cost price." The city is also asked to issue "labor scrip in denominations from $1 to $50, the scrip to be receivable for all taxes, licenses, and claims due the city," and to be used "for the erection of public schools, building of permanent wharves, piers, bridges, ferries, markets"; and also "the construction of buildings on city property suitable for dwellings and other purposes." Such proposals as this make the connection between the paper-money lunacy and Communism very apparent.

Since the fight with the Indians at Camp Curry they have been effectively hemmed in on many sides, and have been defeated in two other engagements of some consequence. Armed steamboats have patrolled the Columbia River from Wallula to Umatilla, while troops have been pressing in from Pendleton (just north of the Camas Prairie), and from Granite City, Baker City, and Boisé City. The hostiles, on their part, have sought to escape by the Grande Ronde, a western tributary of the Snake River. On the 8th inst., General Howard overtook them near the headwaters of Birch Creek and Butler Creek (southern tributaries of the Columbia), some twenty miles south of Pendleton. He charged them up and over several very steep ridges, and dislodged them three times from formidable positions with small loss to his own command, and with uncertain loss to them, except in jaded animals, provisions, ammunition, and camp material hastily abandoned. Their retreat was north and eastward, and General Howard returned to Wallula to take boat to the Snake crossing with a view to heading them off. Meantime, on the 12th, Col. Mills, who was at Pendleton, learning that the Indians were east of him, at Cayuse Station in the Umatilla Reservation, set out with an inferior force and encountered them at a distance of six miles. A long-range skirmish, all the morning, gave way to a charge by the Indians at noon, which was repulsed, and was followed by a counter charge that drove them four miles into the hills. Some of the Umatillas from the agency were passive spectators of the fight, but had they been armed it is probable they would have taken sides against the hostiles rather than for them. Cayuse Station was destroyed.

The 12th of July passed off in Montreal almost entirely without disturbance, owing to the fact that the Orangemen at the last moment resolved not to march in procession and disbanded. Had they appeared in the streets there is no doubt that a bloody riot would have taken place. The correspondence between Mayor Beaudry and the Premier, Hon. A. Mackenzie, on the subject of the procession has been published, from which it appears that the former took the ground that under the statutes it was an illegal meeting, and asked the advice of the law-officers of the Government as to his duty in the premises. To this Mr. Mackenzie replied that he ought to consult the law-officers of the Province and not the Dominion, but that it made no difference whether the Orange association was an "illegal confederacy" or not, for this in no way relieved him as mayor from the duty of protecting its members as citizens. "It is the absolute right of every person," he goes on, "to walk public streets, and this may be exercised by them individually or together, and the mere fact that every person in a collection of persons walking together happens to belong to an illegal association, or to several illegal associations, does not render unlawful his act of walking the public streets alone or in company." As the question of the "absolute right" of procession is likely to come up again in Montreal on every 12th of July, as it used to do here, it may be worth while to point out that Mr. Mackenzie is utterly mistaken in what he says here. There is no such right as the right of procession known to English or American law. To use the street as a means of getting from one place to another is one thing; to use it for the purpose of a political demonstration is entirely different. Whether the latter shall be done is a matter entirely with the discretion of the authorities of the city in which it is proposed to have the procession; and there is no more reason for deducing an "absolute right" of procession which threatens to excite public disorder and riot from the simple right of walking the streets, than there is reason for inferring an "absolute right" to drive a herd of wild beasts through the streets from the acknowledged right to drive a T-cart or ride a horse.

A summary of the provisions of the Treaty of Berlin has been received by telegraph, but it is needless to comment on them in detail until the full text has arrived. The principal points were already known. Up to the revelation of the cession of Cyprus and the protectorate of Asiatic Turkey, the settlement had been acknowledged by the Continental press, and by all that portion of the British press not formally devoted to Lord Beaconsfield, to be a triumph of Russia and complete defeat of England, and a virtual partition of Turkey, which the Paris *Temps* likens in all respects to that of Poland. The seizure of Cyprus is somewhat of a consolation to the British Tories, but the protectorate of Turkey is an undertaking which looks more formidable the more it is examined, and it is more than probable that this will be abandoned after a while, and that Cyprus will be the sole reward of the stand for "the public laws of Europe." Austria gets Bosnia and Herzegovina, and takes them so cheerfully that it is now plain that she has been working for them all along, but did not want to pay for them either in blood or money. The Turks tried to extract from her an acknowledgment of the Sultan's sovereignty before crossing the frontier, but was told that she could not discuss a "question of principle" after the Congress had decided. A smile, in fact, appears on every face when it is suggested that her occupation will be only temporary. The most humorous part of the transaction is Lord Beaconsfield's securing the Turks the great "mountain barrier" of the Balkans, the passes of which they are to fortify "impregnably." Even the *Pall Mall Gazette* sees the joke of this, and points out that the passes will simply furnish a trap in which Russia will catch the garrisons whenever she goes to war again. Mountain passes are of no use to a power which cannot prevent them from being turned, or keep the field behind them. In fact, the whole arrangement is simply the payment of a first dividend out of Turkey's bankrupt estate, and the postponement of a final settlement to a more convenient season—say ten years. The French and Italian press protest vigorously against the seizure of Cyprus, but probably this is all the opposition the step will meet with.

The English Board of Trade have found Captain Holmes, of the Williams & Guion steamer *Idaho*, which went ashore on the 1st of June on the Irish coast, guilty of having miscalculated his distance all along the Irish coast; of not having, as required by law, slackened speed when the fog came on and cast his lead, which would have shown him that he was more to the northward than he thought he was. But the court complimented him highly on the excellent discipline on board which the accident revealed, and on "the admirable manner" in which he had himself behaved, and, in consideration of this and of his excellent antecedents, only suspended his certificate for six months, allowing him to take out that of a first officer during that period if he thought proper. The difficulty the steamship companies have in getting even the best officers to stick to the policy of over-caution is one of the most curious facts of ocean navigation, considering that nearly every year there is warning of its necessity in the shape of a great disaster.

THE CHANGES IN THE NEW YORK CUSTOM-HOUSE.

THE removal of Collector Arthur and Naval Officer Cornell took the public by surprise, because the conclusion had been reached on all hands that civil-service reform had been abandoned by the Administration, or perhaps had never been seriously contemplated, or, more likely still, had never been comprehended by the President or by more than one member of his Cabinet. In view of the disclosures made by the Potter Committee, the friends of Messrs. Arthur and Cornell are justified in crying *tu quoque* to the authorities at Washington; yet the fact remains that these officers ought to have been removed long ago, and that their continuance in office has been a reproach to the Administration and a detriment to the public service every day—a reproach because it was based upon a defiance of superior authority, and a detriment because the first consideration governing the Custom-house was fealty to Senator Conkling; the second or third or some other consideration having reference to the collection of duties on imports. The President need not be surprised that the public look upon these changes as a blow aimed at Conkling rather than a plan for bettering the public service. That half the people should believe that it will help Conkling by enlisting sympathy for him as a victim of persecution, while the other half believe that it will hurt him by depriving him of capital on which to trade with John Kelly; that this should be the division of public sentiment rather than any debate upon the needs of the civil service or any public interests whatever, is due to the Administration, and constitutes its serious reproach. Nevertheless, the bestowal of sympathy upon Arthur, Cornell, and Conkling is all wasted. It was not fitting that the New York Custom-House should remain under the suzerainty of Senator Conkling; still less that it should be in rebellion against its lawful superiors. These facts will probably drill themselves into the public mind before next December, while the present tendency to gush over the sufferings of the removed officers can hardly last so long. "It is confidently expected," says a *Times* reporter, writing fresh from the scene of the calamity, "that when Congress meets in December next the Senate will refuse to confirm the new appointments, in which event Mr. Arthur and Mr. Cornell will at once resume their official positions, as neither will resign." It will not be wise for the weighers and gaugers to take this view of the situation. Little dependence can be placed upon a Senate in which the Republicans have a majority of only one (including Patterson and Conover), and in which Mr. Conkling was enabled to prevail over the Administration last autumn only by the aid of an awkward squad of Democrats, who are likely to be under better discipline hereafter. The Administration, moreover, was taken by surprise in that affair. It will not be so in the next engagement. Any appraiser or storekeeper who preserves his allegiance to Arthur and Cornell, relying upon the Senate to reward his virtue, will make a fatal mistake.

It is painful to be compelled to put a sinister construction upon a wise and proper act. Mr. Cornell had defied the Administration in a manner both ostentatious and offensive, and Mr. Arthur, while his methods had been less obnoxious to good taste, was no more in harmony with his superior officers than Cornell, or even Conkling. The latter, we believe, has not been on speaking terms with the President since Mr. Hayes's inauguration; yet he has managed to control the principal offices under the Government, and to train its vast patronage in hostility to the President and his declared wishes. No Administration with a grain of self-respect could allow such a state of things to continue, or could refrain from exhausting its powers to put an end to such indignity. Yet, wise and proper and even necessary as we hold the removal of these officers to have been, we apprehend that the time has gone by when Mr. Hayes could promote the cause of civil-service reform by displacing them. A better collection of the revenue may be secured, rigorous abstention from the caucus may be enforced, the technical amendments of the Jay Commission may be put in operation, the tribe of sinecurists may be driven away, the threatened alliance with Tammany may be brought to confusion—all these things may be accomplished without advancing civil-service reform an inch. The public having ceased to look for civil-service reform from an Administration whose earliest act was to shower offices and emoluments upon the two Andersons, Dennis, McLin, and a long line of kindred spirits whom both parties are now vieing with each other to prove worthy of the State-prison, all such reforms will be looked upon as no part of a new system but as mere variations of the old one. The performance of the routine duties may, and very likely will, be improved by Collector Merritt, seeing that he must do something to justify his appointment, but the morale of the service will not be altered. The reform, such as it is, begun in the New York Custom-house will not extend itself by force of example to any other custom-house, or even to the adjoining Sub-Treasury. The character of the Administration in this behalf is established, and while it may continue to amend the public service, as it undoubtedly has done in many important particulars, especially in Washington City, we are not authorized to expect, during the two and a half years that still remain, any reform of the civil service that can be called "thorough, radical, and complete."

Although the promised reform has not been accomplished, one or two interesting facts seem to have been established. It is plain that no harm can be done to the cause by an administration unfriendly to it, although grave injury may be inflicted by one which professes to believe in its principles but fails to be governed by them. The Grant Administration was an effective and daily argument for a reformed civil service; so effective, indeed, that both political parties were under the necessity of avowing themselves in favor of it, and Mr. Hayes found it expedient to make an explicit declaration upon the subject additional to the Republican platform. This declaration, repeated in the inaugural address, was greeted with such a manifestation of public approval that even the "Senatorial Group" were awed by it. Nothing remained but to live up to the declaration in order to put civil-service reform upon a foundation where it would have been extremely hazardous for any succeeding Administration to attempt to disturb it. A great opportunity has been lost, and it is idle now to pretend that the task may be again taken up with the advantages which existed on the 4th of March, 1877. It is plain, also, that the *personnel* of the civil service does not desire to be reformed. Although it has had no great opportunity to show its appreciation of reform, yet such expression as it has given has been extremely surly. Apparently it would rather be turned out of office *en masse* by the Democrats than learn any new tricks or unlearn any old ones. When this fate overtakes it there will be converts to civil-service reform in many unexpected quarters.

The immediate penalty visited on the Administration for its failure to redeem its pledges is that few persons will believe that the Custom-house changes are made with any other object than to cripple Senator Conkling. Still it must be said of President Hayes that, however ready he has been to reward those who have been serviceable to him, he has never shown any desire to be revenged of his enemies. The presumption, therefore, is that vindictiveness was not the governing consideration in the recent removals. Whatever the motive the blow will not be a light or inconsiderable one to Mr. Conkling. It will be serious because it touches him in the sources of his strength. To a Senator who had acquired a hold upon the people of his State by regular and thoughtful discussion of public questions the loss of a custom-house would be immaterial, and ought to be considered an advantage, as giving him better command of his own time. The want of patronage appears to give Senator Kernan no concern. But Mr. Conkling seems to entertain a sovereign contempt for public business other than that which is discussed in secret. During the long session just closed, replete with questions of importance to the State and nation, he sat wrapped in Olympian gloom, as though the debates on the Silver and Currency Bills, the Army Appropriation Bill and the rest, were altogether beneath his notice. In the Pacific Railroad debate he came out of his cloud long enough to show that he was on the side of the railroads. All his triumphs were achieved when somebody was to be confirmed or somebody rejected for office. Here, we are told by admiring re-

porters who were not present, his prowess was remarkable, and we are asked to believe that he is a great Senator, or rather "*the* great Senator," because he has uttered more sarcasms than anybody else had time to answer behind the closed doors of the executive session. To him, therefore, the loss of custom-house patronage is a real deprivation. A campaign is coming on in which his natural strength is to be tested. If he is a great Senator he will now have the opportunity to prove his calibre on a fair field, and his competitors will have an equal chance. If he has anything to say which the country has any interest to hear, the time is ripe for the disclosure.

THE GRANGER THEORY APPLIED TO THE GRANGERS.

THERE is no lover of experimental politics who must not be glad to see the Granger theory of the rights of property applied to the property of the farmers themselves, by the destruction of their machines by laborers in want of work. During the Granger agitation the doctrine was preached, and actually embodied in legislation, that if a railroad stockholder or bondholder had no constitutional protection against the use of his line at non-paying rates the state would be perfectly justified in totally disregarding his interests and his expectations, especially if it could be shown that his road had been extravagantly built or badly managed, or that the stock had at some time been watered. The argument by which this was supported was perfectly simple, viz., that the farmer would lose money unless he could put part of the expense of carrying his crops to market on some one else. A formal "paper" on this theme was actually read at a meeting of the Social Science Association by a Western philosopher, in which he showed that while bankers and manufacturers made twenty per cent. on their capital, the farmer only made five, and maintained that this was a state of things which the latter could not be reasonably expected to put up with any longer; that he must get increased returns on his money out of somebody, and, of course, the owners of railroads were the portion of the moneyed class that it was easiest to get at—in fact, the only portion that could be got at at all. This discovery was listened to by the audience with great gravity, and was reported by the newspapers as a somewhat striking economical discovery. In fact, for nearly two years the farmer was the spoiled child of our politics. There was no privilege that was not claimed for him, but none with so much vehemence as the privilege of having himself and his produce transported by the unfortunate owners of railroad property at rates that would make *him* comfortable whatever became of *them*, and it was taken for granted all through the discussion that every large owner of railroad property was a rascal—that he could not honestly have acquired so much more means than the average farmer.

Our readers will bear us witness that we frequently pointed out at the time that the honest farmer would not long be able to keep this comfortable political economy to himself; that a doctrine so attractive would soon spread, and that it would speedily produce a considerable class who would endeavor to live off the farmer himself, or ameliorate their condition by going shares with him. In fact, the Granger agitation, though it took the form of an attempt to have railroads regulated by the State, as has been done in other countries, was based on ideas which were essentially communistic, and the application of which it was folly to suppose could be long confined to one species of property. It would not be easy to prove, of course, that it started the communistic fever which is now running through the whole laboring class, and seems likely to found a political party, but it unquestionably prepared for it and stimulated it. The position of the laborer who insists on the farmer laying aside his machines and having his crops gathered by hand, is an unanswerable deduction from Granger premises. If the market rate of wages does not make him comfortable he has a right to select the farmer as the proper person to help him out; and if the disuse of the machines be necessary to raise the rate, disused they must be. That the farmer does not like it is no answer to the argument that he is better off than the laborer, and that there are ten laborers to one farmer; and it must be said that there is no great moral difference between destroying the farmer's machines and using legislative power to impose a penalty for using them, which would be somewhat analogous to the Potter railroad legislation.

This legislation has all been repealed and the foolish pretensions on which it was based have been abandoned, but it was not repealed until the experiment had actually been made. In other words, it was impossible to stem the tide of Granger folly—just as it has been impossible to stay the silver craze—by argument or by citing the recorded experience of the human race. Now, also, the laborer refuses to be satisfied with argument or with "the theories of the bookmen." He will take no experience but his own, and he is going to see for himself whether destroying machines and burning barns is not a good way of improving the poor man's condition, just as the sturdy silver-man is going to see for himself whether it is not possible to make two coins, one worth ten per cent. less than the other, circulate at par. In fact, the Communistic movement, of which Kearney with his rope for hanging capitalists is the latest apostle, is neither more nor less than an outburst of the experimental spirit in a class which it has not hitherto reached. The more educated and intelligent property-holders began experimenting and preaching that everything was a fair subject for experiment, and that nothing had been settled by experiment forty years ago, and have had the work of experimentation all to themselves during that period. It is not unnatural that Kearney should now pronounce their work a failure and propose to try his hand himself; and if it be observed to him that he will ruin the State with his threats against capitalists, he has the ready answer, which has done so much good service in abler hands than his, that this is a peculiar country, and that, as the late Senator Morton observed in defence of paper inflation, he is "not going to be whistled down the wind by bookmen and theorists." The plan of hanging the well-to-do and burning their houses was, it is true, tried in France without any good results, but that, he may say, does not prove that it would not work well in California, a new and open-minded community, full of great possibilities.

It would be unfair to condemn the experimenters as the cause of some of our present trouble, without saying a word of the extent to which vague preaching about the wrongs of the poor, and vague denunciation of rich men by philanthropic and humane persons animated by the best intentions, have also contributed to it. This preaching and denunciation has gone on for generations without doing any harm, and indeed with some stimulation to the conscience of the rich in countries in which the rich have the government in their hands and mean to keep it. But in our time and country both social speculation as well as the power to embody it in practice have ceased to be confined to parlors and dining-rooms; it has got into the cabins and shanties, and has a look of possibility and reality there it has never had anywhere else. The educated philanthropist who deplores over his roast-beef the enormous accumulations of wealth in the hands of the Vanderbilts and Stewarts, does not mean anything more by it than that these gentlemen ought to make larger donations to charities, and does not trouble himself to work out any plan for having masses of capital managed for the interest of the community better than the Vanderbilts and Stewarts manage theirs. The Kearneys are not so lazy, or so cautious, or so vague. When they say no man ought to have as much money as Vanderbilt they are preparing a plan for making him divide. They are, in fact, men of action rather than of reflection. If their present zeal and activity cause the large body of well-meaning and intelligent men and women who potter over social problems, and talk loosely about the wrongs of the poor and the responsibilities of property-holders, to become more guarded in their language and definite in their aims, and more addicted to working out their plans of reform in detail, they will do a great deal of good.

THE NEED OF A RETREAT FOR PENITENT POLITICIANS.

JUDGE WEST was nominated for the governorship of Ohio last year by the Republicans, and began speaking in the canvass in the middle of the railroad strikes and riots which were then alarming and horri-

fying the country. One of his speeches, and almost the first, was as plain a bid for the sympathy and support of the strikers as could have been made without actually encouraging them to tear up tracks and burn freight-cars and smite mayors on the mouth. He disgusted his own people with his talk, and was, we are glad to say, beaten at the polls. We had hoped that this would have finished him politically, but he has reappeared in the present canvass with amusing audacity; and in a speech, from which we quoted a fortnight since, speaks of the strikes and Communism with horror, and puts all the blame of them on the Democrats, and declares, as we said, with impudent humor, that last year "some of us were for Paul, some for Silas, but mighty few for Christ." Now, if there be one thing more than another which keeps the Republican party from doing its legitimate work and taking its legitimate place, it is the presence and activity in its ranks of demagogues of this kind, and the only way to get rid of them is to follow them from canvass to canvass and from stump to stump with their old disguises and aliases and cries. When they are confronted with their bygone rhetoric they usually look in some other direction, and pretend that "their attention has not been called" to the matter, and then there is sure to be some little "home organ" which appears on the scene and does whatever equivocation and vituperation may be necessary to get the orator out of the scrape. The Dayton *Journal* appears to perform this function for Judge West, and has accordingly come to his rescue about his last year's speech, and declares that the *Nation* has been telling "infamous lies" about the good man. Here is what he said—in the midst of the strikes, be it remembered:

"I probably should tell you who I am and whence I came. I am no railroad officer, and never was [a voice, 'Glad to hear it'], and never will be. [A voice, 'Bravo!'] I hold no railroad bonds or railroad stocks, that my interests be different from those of any other men, and never did. [A voice, 'Bravo!'] I hold no untaxed Government bonds, and I never did, and never expect to. [Laughter.] I hold no bank stock, and never did, and never expect to [Applause]; and, financially, I expect I am about as impartial between capital and labor as one without finances possibly can be. [Applause, and a voice, 'Will you uphold it?'] I will uphold all that I believe to be right and just between men, and discountenance all that I believe, in my conscience, to be wrong. [Applause.] It has been a habit of my life, the education of my life, to be in sympathy more with the industry of my country than with the capital of my country. [A voice, 'Bravo!'] I chance to be the son of as humble a mechanic as any that stands now before me. I chanced in my early life to receive my early education at the forge, blowing the bellows and wielding the sledge. [Applause.] I have no war to wage upon any class, upon any race, upon any sect, upon any grade, or upon any color, save and except in so far as they do wrong in violation of the laws of God and the laws of man. [Applause.]"

The object of this talk was plain, namely, to excite odium against persons owning bank stock or Government bonds or railroad securities—or, in other words, the frugal and industrious class—and persuade the strikers that they would be quite justified in not heeding anything *they* might say on the relations between labor and capital. But here is how Judge West's organ interprets it:

"His denial that he either owned bank stock or Government bonds was not for the purpose of demonstrating that he was in sympathy with communism, but to show that the working classes had no right to regard him their enemy on any such ground. His idea was plain to those who heard and understood him—namely, that he had no means for such investments, or that he preferred to use his money otherwise."

That is, the working classes "had no right to regard *him* their enemy" on any such ground, but they might freely so regard others; and then "the poor boy" who began life at the forge "had no means for such investments," or if he had, "preferred to use his money otherwise"—we suppose in village water-works and in establishing hospitals for superannuated mechanics.

He then proceeded to solve the labor problem, and here is his plan:

"I promised, however, to occupy but a moment of time, and I shall keep my word; but I desire to say, my fellow-citizens, to you a word only upon a subject which I know is uppermost in the minds and in the hearts of most of you. It is that the industry of our country shall be so regarded that labor shall at least receive that compensation which shall be the support and sustenance of the laborer. [Applause.] I do not know how it may certainly be brought about. I know the difficulties, I know the embarrassments, I know how insurmountable are the obstructions in the way of any equal or proper adjustment of the relations between those who labor and those who furnish the means and opportunities to labor. But if I had the power I would try one experiment, at least. I would prohibit the great railroad corporations, the great thoroughfares of business and trade, from so reducing their rates by ruinous competition as to disable themselves from paying a just compensation to their operators. [Cries of 'Good' and applause.] I would go further and try the experiment—but I do not know that it would succeed; I would arrange and fix a minimum of prices for all who labor in the mines and upon the railroads, and then require an account of all the net receipts and proceeds of the capital invested; the laborer at the end of the year should, in addition to his fixed compensation, receive a certain per cent. of the profits. [Applause, and cries of 'That is the man.'] Then, if the profits were insufficient to compensate you as liberally as you could otherwise desire, bear with your employers a portion of the loss. [A voice, 'Certainly.'] But if their receipts be sufficient to make a division, we would in God's name let the laborer, who is worthy of his hire, share a portion of the profits. [Applause.]"

The worthy jurist announced, in fact, that if he had the power he would compel the railroad companies and mines to charge rates high enough to pay a minimum rate of wages to their laborers, without regard to the market demand for their commodities, or to the interests of their creditors, or to the market supply of labor; and of course neither he nor his audience was simple enough to suppose that if this scheme were carried out with regard to mines and railroads there would be any good reason for not extending it to all factories and, in fact, to all fields of industry. The Government would be forced to fix the prices of all goods high enough to enable the manufacturers to pay what the laborer and his demagogues, like Judge West, chose to pronounce "a just compensation." We repeat that this solution of the labor problem is, in its folly and unreasonableness, what one might expect from a tramp full of stolen chicken and whiskey, musing by his evening fire over the evils of our social state. Now listen to the organ's explanation of it all:

"Nor did he demand the legal regulation of the wages of railway employees, or of operatives of any kind, but merely suggested that it might be wise to endeavor to solve the labor agitation by studying the matter carefully with a view to legislation that would protect all interests equitably."

A man who talked as Judge West talked at such a crisis, last year, is a person whose opinions on public questions are worthless, either because he has no judgment or discretion or knowledge, or because he is not honest. Whichever horn of the dilemma the judge prefers, his place during the present canvass, and during many canvasses to come, is the privacy of his office. If he appears on the stump at all, it ought to be in the ranks of the Nationalists or the Kearneyites. The Republican party cannot afford the advocacy of a "poor boy" who thinks the Government ought to fix a minimum of charges for producers and a minimum of wages for laborers.

The judge's case brings more prominently than ever to the notice of the public the need of some temporary asylum or retreat for politicians who have made a mistake in calculating "how the cat is going to jump," to which they could retire until the matter was forgotten and they found heart and courage to face once more the hard realities of life without, to use their own language, "going back on themselves" publicly. The Catholic Church, with its keen appreciation of the wants and weaknesses of human nature, has made its convents, or a good many of them, refuges of this kind, to which in Continental Europe it is very common for ladies and gentlemen who have been giving themselves too freely to the world, the flesh, and the devil to betake themselves for a few months of prayer and penitence and meditation. By the time they issue forth again, even if their natures have not wholly changed, their scandals and excesses have been forgotten, and it is comparatively easy for them, if they find they have strength for it, to enter on a new course with better companions and purer aims. Some such refuge from the mocking gaze of the world for blundering politicians is one of the great needs of our country—some place where a man who has degraded himself grossly in a vain attempt to find out what the majority were bent on, or who has been caught in clumsily-concealed rascality, might lay himself up in seclusion until the public attention was fixed on some other offender. Europe has served this purpose to some, but Europe is far off and expensive. The bulk of the unfortunates have no resource but to turn right round under the public eye, eat their own words, and make a miserable and always futile pretence of having been always shocked by their own performances. They smile when they are doing it, bustle about and talk with a loud, hearty voice; but they have all the while death in their souls, as the French say. Others again seek peace in waving "the bloody shirt," like Mr. Schuyler Colfax, and threatening to make it "hot under the old flag" for the Confederate brigadiers; but this, too, is but sorry balm for the wounded spirit. One hour of silence and seclusion would be worth a year of these prancings as a mode of moral fortification. What they need is an island on the broad bosom of some American lake, like that which Mr. Jay Cooke provided for the ministers when he was selling the Northern Pacific bonds,

where the noise of the political arena would never reach them, where no temptation to turn themselves inside out on short notice would ever assail them, and where such of them as were "poor boys," like Judge West, could again grasp the sledge of their youth and make music on the old anvil.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—I.

PARIS, June 28, 1878.

THE material part of the Exhibition has not much, I must confess, that interests me. I have seen too many Exhibitions. They all resemble each other; the last surpasses the preceding in size, and there is the end of it. The scientific man who follows the progress of science has little to learn of them; an observatory will always be more interesting to an astronomer, a laboratory to a chemist, a hospital to a doctor, a dissecting-room to a physiologist, a mountain to a geologist. I should prefer to see the big Creuzot hammer, which can fashion the shafts of the largest steam-engines and gently crack a nut as well, rather than its silent and motionless copy. The life of a manufacture, its thousand wheels, its thousand men and women, are more interesting than this "Galerie du Travail," where a few engines are kept at work for the ignorant Parisian, and where he can see a piece of soap pressed under his eyes or a diamond cut or a hat brushed by machinery. To be sure all these things collected can make an effect on the popular mind and impress it with a holy respect for industry; but what is an Exhibition taken as a whole?—a gigantic bazaar, an endless succession of shops. Now, I doubt if any artificial succession of this kind can vie with the natural exhibition which can be found at all times on the Boulevards and in the streets of Paris. There you have variety—the variety of real life; the bookseller comes after the jeweller; the milliner, the draper, the confectioner, all in turn speak to your senses or to your imagination. The Parisians have a word which describes the feelings which are induced by this easy and daily review: "flâner" is to walk leisurely and give half your attention to a constant variety of colors and forms.

I would not, however, advise a true Parisian to sulk and to disdain the Exhibition. Let him take a cab, if he finds one, and go towards the two towers of the Trocadéro, which rise like Oriental minarets in the blue sky. He approaches; he sees a middle palace, a sort of large theatre with two long wings which embrace, like two arms, the sides of the hill. Few remember why this hill is called the Trocadéro: it is on account of a victory—a very easy victory, I believe—obtained by the Duc d'Angoulême under the Restoration, when the French armies made an intervention in Spain. Till lately this Trocadéro hill, which marks a turning of the Seine, formed a deserted plaza between the quarter of the Arc de Triomphe and Passy. The site is charming; Napoleon at one time thought of building on the crest of the hill a palace for the Roi de Rome; Napoleon III. had the whole side of the hill covered with a large and gigantic staircase, which was not without a sort of solemn grandeur.

I enter; I hand my ticket to a guard (the French have adopted the word ticket since the Exposition opened—they call it *tiquê*); I go under a colonnade and find myself before the Seine and its numerous bridges. On both sides are the trees of the garden of the Tuileries and of the *quais;* the dome of the Invalides shines joyously in the sun. The Palace, built in iron on the immense plaza of the Champ-de-Mars, which covers the industrial part of the Exhibition, is painted in many colors; with its queer cupolas, its painted glass, and its diverse hues, it resembles some gigantic insect. This Palace, which will be destroyed, has a curious sort of beauty; it is original, it spoke to my imagination; it has a gay aspect, and it is rational. The Palace of the Trocadéro, which, alas! will not be destroyed, is a monster of size and ugliness. It made me think of an insect with a tremendous belly and two long and thin arms. The round theatre which forms its centre seems to be built on water, as you see cascades come out of its foundations—very meagre cascades, to be sure, little to be compared to the famous waters of St. Cloud and of Versailles. I felt a kind of oppression when I went down the slope of the Trocadéro; I suddenly found myself before a golden rhinoceros of full size. The horrible animal stared me in the face. I had heard of the Golden Calf; now we have a golden rhinoceros. (This rhinoceros is one of four gilt statues of aquatic animals which guard the cascade.) "Thy people, which thou broughtest out of the land of Egypt, have corrupted themselves: they have turned aside quickly out of the way which I commanded them; they have made them a molten calf, and have worshipped it, and have sacrificed thereunto, and said, These be thy gods, O Israel." This rhinoceros was, I must confess, a great shock to my nerves, and I thought of my "stiff-necked people," and, seeing the wanderers of the whole universe before me, I could not but dwell on the old book of Genesis, and in a moment of dizziness this huge Trocadéro, with its towers, appeared to me like a new Tower of Babel: "Therefore is the name of it called Babel, because the Lord did there confound the language of all the earth; and from thence did the Lord scatter them abroad upon the face of all the earth."

I confess that the moral aspects of the Exhibition are, to me, the most interesting; we see, as it were, the Tower of Babel before the separation of men. They live and eat and drink side by side for a few days; but do they know each other, and will their language not remain confounded? What comes out of these great meetings of men? Where is the moral, the religious or philosophical gain? These questions perplex me; I am afraid that these Exhibitions are only a short truce in the perpetual struggle of nations; they are an *entr'acte*. Let those enjoy them who can. These Exhibitions of the wealth, of the industry, of the genius of humanity seem to me to be wanting in something; they break the routine of millions of lives; but after you have taken a human molecule out of its ordinary element, and thrown it, undefended, among thousands of unknown molecules, how will it return contented to its natural condition? A journey among mountains and lakes cannot do any harm to man; it brings him nearer to the great Unknown, it makes him feel his own vanity; but the lesson coming from the calm voice of nature is not the lesson coming from the pride of humanity, revelling in its own wealth, like a young Potemkin who plays with diamonds. I may be mistaken, but I do not believe that such exhibitions as that of the presents received in India by the Prince of Wales during his journey can be made without rousing many slumbering thoughts in the minds of men. We live here in a city where, only a few years ago, fine old palaces were put to the flames by an infuriated populace headed by lawyers, writers, and journalists. Paris has conquered, though it was vanquished; it has forced the Republic upon the monarchical Assembly of Versailles. Paris is the laboratory where old traditions, old ideas, old prejudices are constantly volatilized; and it is certainly a very curious sight to see the princes and kings of Europe come into the centre of volatilization, as flies get burned in a candle.

Large sums of money were voted by the House of Deputies for the President and his ministers, in order that they might give entertainments to foreigners of distinction during the Exhibition. Every day there is an official dinner, every night an official concert or ball, in some of the fine palaces where our ministers live. There is no great party now without some illuminations after dinner in the gardens; electric light is made to play on statues; the Tziganes, who are the Hungarian band of the Exhibition, are made generally to play, and their music is really inspiring. The ministers forget in the evening the cares of state, and pay their court to the princes. Nothing can be more interesting in a certain sense than the reunions at which a Freycinet (who was Gambetta's right-hand man during the war, and who has been elected a Senator for Paris at Gambetta's instance) is seen with the Duke of Aosta or the Comte de Flandre. I saw with my own eyes Gambetta presented to the Prince of Wales. The great kings and emperors of Europe have not yet come themselves, but they have been preceded by a host of princes royal and imperial. It is not always easy to settle all the difficulties arising from the presence of so many princes. What will a poor minister do, especially a republican minister, who has learnt to despise all questions of etiquette, when in the same evening he has to receive Queen Isabella of Spain; her husband, Don Francesco di Assisi, ex-King of Spain; the Duke of Aosta, ex-King of Spain under the name of Amadeo, and Don Carlos? Our French princes, who are perfectly willing to waive all questions of etiquette with Frenchmen, can hardly do so with foreign princes. In the eyes of the French they have assumed the position of citizens; in the eyes of their brothers and cousins of Europe they cannot do the same. I saw at the time of the first visit of the Shah of Persia a card thus conceived: "His Excellency Marshal MacMahon, Duke of Magenta, President of the Republic, has the honor to invite His Royal Highness the Duke of ——, Deputy of the Department of ——, General Commandant of the ——, to meet His Majesty the Shah of Persia."

This card represented truly the situation; we had then a most extraordinary mixture of royalism and republicanism. The Marshal did not know whether he was a President or a Duke of Magenta; whether he had the *honor* or had the *pleasure* to invite his guests. The Shah was a majesty, a republican deputy was a royal highness, and so on. We are not yet out of this confusion, though we have a Constitution and a Republic. Our Republic means to be *aimable*. She has the manners of a courtier;

she behaves like a man who has for the first time people at his table whom he never expected to see. Many blunders are committed, of course, but they are very trifling; the Republicans are, after all, in their rôle in trying to show that they can behave themselves. Whether the scions of monarchy are in their rôle is another thing. They give all the prestige of their presence to a system which they would not like to see tried at home. France is such a burning focus of civilization, of ideas, of manners that it can hardly be expected that the republican experiment, if it proves successful, will remain long confined within our limits.

I will remark another trait of the present situation. As I am dealing now with the moral aspects of the Exposition, I am obliged to say that the upper classes of France are totally absent from it. You will meet any number of princes and archdukes in the official salons; you will see there around them all the official society, but nothing more. The "world" has made a strike, just as it did so long under the Empire of Napoleon III. I do not attach an undue importance to this fact; I know that the opposition of *distance* has no political value. Isolation is fatal; it lowers the standard of ideas. A long isolation has brought the Legitimist party where it now is; still, I have never refused my regard and my respect for the sentiments which have determined this isolation. Loyalty and fidelity are such fine things that they must be admired at all times. The time-servers and turn-coats who always go with the tide are the most prominent figures in revolutionary times. Let us reserve a little regard for the men who, having failed in their efforts, refuse to give the sanction of their good names to ideas which they disapprove at heart, and who can keep a dignified silence amid the universal applause which always follows success. The psychological moment seems to have passed when all the living forces of France, the forces of the past as well as of the present, could have been directed together to some great national aim. We shall again, I am afraid, have two peoples in one people. A new order of things has begun; it is not the stern, the severe, the austere Republic; we have the amiable Republic, revelling in pomp and wealth, with a court of princes and kings, dazzling with electric light; a scientific Republic, which can build new cities like Orpheus, cut boulevards quicker than Haussmann. Our funds will soon be as high as the consols; money is flowing in rivers. Our army is the largest in Europe, but we mean to be very pacific; we shall celebrate all sorts of "fêtes du travail" and of centenaries. We have a great poet who has a tune for every day. The old bard will tell us which are the saints and gods of the day. "Tout est pour le mieux dans le meilleur des mondes possibles."

Correspondence.

SAUCE FOR THE GANDER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Every one, whether a friend of paper currency or hard money, must have enjoyed the thorough setting-down which Gen. Butler gave the ridiculous young bloods of the Coaching Club in his Newburyport "greenback" speech of July 4. It was so neat and pointed that I am sure you can afford space to print it:

"Let me give you an illustration, because it is a beautiful thing in this free country of ours. Have any of you ever heard of the Tally-ho Club in New York? It is composed, I think—I may not rightly give the number, because they never have invited me to any one of their entertainments, but I think they have ten four or six-horse coaches, and they drive on the road between two palatial hotels a coach with a fine-looking man sitting up behind with a tin horn—I believe, in this case, it is a brass bugle—for what? Who are they? They are all young men of great wealth, of great literary culture, with all the advantages of the colleges. All of them are men who have no employment on earth, but plenty of income to live on, and the only thing they can find to do is to play coachmen day by day for the fun of the thing. They toil not, neither do they spin! [Laughter.] They are men of a class that is growing up in this country, and that in my judgment—and you may put this down against me—ought to be squelched [applause]—men who have nothing to do on earth, and do it every day. [Laughter.] It ought not to be, and it is not reputable in this country for a man to have no regular, steady employment for the good of his fellow-men. And the more money he has, the more responsibility he has to employ that money in investments and in enterprises for the good of his race, and any man that ought and don't do that, workingmen ought to vote a law to make him do some honest work. He is the worst kind of a tramp [laughter and applause]—a tramp from choice and not from necessity; and if I had my way, and if I had the power in the city of New York, as I once had for a short time [laughter], I would set that class of men to doing exactly what they have shown they are fitted for—to drive a Broadway coach from six in the morning till nine in the evening, so they would have enough of playing coachmen."

Now, all this is both good and true and witty. It will make the old hero of New Orleans hosts of friends among those who despise such nonsense. Unhappily for me, being already an ardent political admirer of his, I am pained in this matter to notice an absence of logic in the General. I never saw a "Tally-ho" coach, but I live on the sea-shore and do see a great many yachts; and, being a poor man myself, the sight of a bloated amateur yachtsman playing sailor in a blue cap with a gold band, and a brass-buttoned coat, stirs my bile, much as the "Tally-ho" coaches do glorious, bluff old Ben's. This is what troubles me. There is a yacht called the *America*, which sails by my house oftener than any other, and it belongs to the General. Why don't he denounce amateur sailoring as well as amateur stage-driving? Some of us poor men hate them both. Let us see how it would read:

"Have any of you ever heard of the New York Yacht Club? It is composed, I think—I may not rightly give the number, because they never have invited me to any one of their entertainments, but I think they have ten sloops or schooners, and they sail on the bay in front of palatial hotels a vessel with a fine-looking man standing at the wheel—I believe, in this case, it is a brass-mounted wheel—for what? Who are they? They are all men of great wealth, of great literary culture, with all the advantages of the colleges. All of them are men who have plenty of income to live on, and the only thing they can find to do is to play sailor day by day for the fun of the thing. They toil not, neither do they spin! They are men of a class who are growing up in this country, and that in my judgment—and you may put this down against me—ought to be squelched [applause]—men who have nothing to do on earth, and do it every day. . . . And if I had my way, and if I had the power in the city of New York, as I once had for a short time, I would set that class of men to doing exactly what they have shown they are fitted for—to sail a fishing-smack from six in the morning to nine in the evening, so they would have enough of playing sailor."

General Butler defines a "Greenbacker" as "a man who is dissatisfied." I am confoundedly dissatisfied every time I see the *America*, with that "fine-looking man" at the "brass-mounted wheel," sail by my door. I want new political parties, and new leaders, and a new platform. The first plank in my new platform I want to be in these words: "*Resolved*, That the sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander"; and I want the candidates on my platform to live right up to that plank. Just now even bluff, grim old "greenback" Ben don't seem quite to do it.

One of the Great Dissatisfied.

Boston, July 9, 1878.

SUFFRAGE IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I rejoin a word to yours of yesterday in reference to the subject-matter of mine of last week? You forcibly distinguish between the government, and its purposes, of a city and those of a nation, showing that they may wisely rest on widely different principles. In this connection I wish to remind you of the wide difference in the political status of the inhabitants of Washington and those of New York. An inhabitant of New York is a citizen of the State, enjoying every right and function of the citizens of that State, in which capacity he can take part in the government of his city. An inhabitant of Washington is a citizen of no State, and can in no way influence the government of his city. Indeed, Washington is possibly the only city in the world whose governors are by fundamental law compelled to be foreigners, and can by no possibility be citizens of it.

R.

Washington, July 12.

THE INTERNAL-REVENUE AMENDMENT BILL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: This bill, long debated in Congress and finally killed by amendments in the last days of the session, has been less discussed in the papers than many other measures not more important; probably because from its diversified and technical characteristics it is more difficult of comprehension. But since it must come up as "unfinished business" at the opening of the next session it ought to be well considered between now and then.

The bill is forty pages long. As it came from the Committee of Ways and Means its general scope and object were the strengthening of some weak points in the revenue system, and the smoothing down of some harshnesses which gall taxpayers in little ways without corresponding benefit to the Government, *e.g.*:

1. Provision for some contingencies in the official positions, relations, and duties of collectors and other officers of internal revenue, and the liability of their bondsmen.

2. Relieving persons from special taxes (license fees) who are only

technically liable thereto ; as, for instance, persons who have taken spirits or tobacco in payment of debt, and, selling the goods all in one lot, should not be forced to pay a year's license for so doing.

3. Enforcing the collection of tax on fractions of gallons of spirits, instead of on only whole gallons as heretofore.

4. Relieving distillers from certain assessments which fall upon them unawares, through technical errors (of their own or of the Government officers), committed while paying tax in full and trying in good faith to obey the law in all its intricacies.

5. Providing that tobacco may be manufactured under bond and the manufactured product exported without payment of tax. Also, in another section, that spirits may be made into perfumery for export under similar conditions.

6. Relieving imported tobacco-cuttings from payment of internal-revenue tax in addition to the customs duties.

7. Extending the time within which old adhesive stamps may be presented for redemption.

8. Relieving exporters of spirits and tobacco from the expense of export stamps.

9. Last, but not least, I may mention a merciful provision which affects a larger and more unfortunate class of persons than any other part of the bill. It is a section which ordains that Government taxes owed by any bank shall be abated in case the bank fails, so far as their collection would go to lessen the dividends receivable by depositors. These taxes are one-half per centum per annum on capital and deposits and one per centum per annum on circulation. The amount now claimed by the Government from receivers and assignees of bankrupt banks varies in the various cases from a few dollars to a few thousands, but does not probably reach fifty thousand dollars of collectable money in all. It is scattered over the whole country, in the hands of a hundred or more receivers and assignees of bankrupt concerns, and is, like all Government claims, a first or preferred lien on all the assets of the insolvent estate. The injured and angry depositors naturally wince at this imperative demand, and Congress at its next session will be assailed with petitions protesting against it. "Hands off," they cry ; "the bank owed you money, but we are not the bank. We are not bankers, and never were. The concern is dead, and we are not its heirs, but its creditors. You should have collected your tax from the institution you taxed ; you should not now demand the sum from us, who are innocent third parties. Our money was private property not subject to bank taxation, and we did not make it so liable by depositing it in the concern that has swindled both you and us. It was and is a trust fund ; ours and not yours is the prior claim. Some of the banks were savings-banks by name ; all contained our hard-earned savings. Many of them were banks of your especial creation, and were periodically inspected by your bank-examiners, whose certification of their soundness was one of the circumstances that misled us into making them our trustees. For you now to go on and take our money is robbery. It is adding insult to injury."

Bad law, but good popular logic. Of course if this were the law, under the statutes and practice as they stand the depositors would look for relief to the courts and not to Congress. It is not law, but they ask that it shall be made law by statute ; and now, as things are, in view of the existing tendency towards "easing up" the pressure of war taxation, it seems that this particular hard grip on a sore place ought to be loosened. The insolvent-bank exemption clause was stricken out by something like a party vote. Most of the Democrats voted against the measure, but not all. Some of the more thoughtful and independent (Hewitt, Wood, and Beebe, of New York, among others) stood out in favor of extending this grace to an unfortunate and suffering lot of the most frugal and industrious portion of their fellow-citizens.

What killed the bill ? The fatal blow came in the shape of an amendment reducing the tax on tobacco and cigars. This was not a mere smoothing of rough places and strengthening of weak points, such as the bill was originally designed to effect, but was a movement for a radical change in the revenue system. It would cut off at once some millions from the Government income, whereas by the whole of the original bill only a few paltry, uncertain, and hard-wrung thousands were abandoned. Whether right or wrong, wise or foolish, the tobacco reduction was not, in any true sense, germane to the measure.

It is to be hoped that in December the Senate will rehabilitate the bill into something like its original shape and pass it, and that the House will acquiesce, leaving the advocates of tobacco-tax reduction to introduce and press that measure on its own merits. JOSEPH KIRKLAND.

CHICAGO, July 12, 1878.

THE PARTITION OF TURKEY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : It is refreshing, and I think salutary, to read your unconventional remarks on the august but burglarious conclave of Berlin.

There can be little doubt that, besides the secret agreements which have already been sprung on this high moral tribunal, there is yet another in existence. The future division of spoil in the direction of Syria is evidently the subject of some understanding between England and France, entered into behind the back of Turkey, from whom England has just taken Cyprus as the price of a defensive alliance concluded for the protection of all Turkey's Asiatic possessions.

Perpetual homilies are preached by European moralists about the state of opinion on the democratic side of the Atlantic. Assuredly we are very far from perfection ; yet here a small community can at all events repose by the side of a large one free from any fear of aggression or intrigue. Perhaps this immunity is as satisfactory in itself, and as strong a proof of the ascendency of "public law," as the meeting of a "European Areopagus" to which none are admitted but the representatives of brute force, and to which each Areopagite comes with a mask on his face, a revolver in his pocket, and a lie in his right hand.

That general morality has greatly advanced in Europe since the middle of the seventeenth century cannot be doubted ; but it may be doubted whether at the time of the Treaty of Westphalia diplomatic villany was greater or more unabashed than it is now.

Yours faithfully, GOLDWIN SMITH.

TORONTO, July 13.

THE RUMANIANS AND THE JEWS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR: In your issue of July 4 a paragraph is devoted to the Jews in Rumania, in the course of which you say that the persecutions to which the Jews have been subjected are

"due mainly to the fact that the Jews have long been the only portion of the population engaged in trade and money-lending, and have practised usury both in giving credit and making loans to a degree unknown elsewhere, and only possible among a purely agricultural peasantry and an extravagant and idle upper class. The extent to which they had put the community literally under bonds would appear incredible in the West if the figures were known, and the fury against them is that of the 'debtor class' against 'Shylocks' and 'gold sharks.'"

Permit me to quote, in defence of the Rumanian Jews, two paragraphs from a letter which appeared in the London *Times* of June 3, from the pen of Rev. A. Löwy, Secretary of the Anglo-Jewish Association :

"On the plea that the Jews are aliens, the one hundred and fifty-seven deputies of the Rumanian Chamber, fifty-eight of whom represent *bourgeosie* and the merchants' class pure and simple, passed laws which deprived them of one business pursuit after another, which forbade Jews the farming of arable lands, the trafficking in spirituous liquors, and the military service, and while he was expected in case of need to sacrifice his life for the liberty of his native country, no hope was held out to him that the members of his family would be permitted to participate in any of the benefits of that liberty which the soldier has to defend with his life.

"The exceptions made in favor of naturalization are often rendered nugatory through bureaucratic difficulties which are thrown in the way of the Jews ; but they sink altogether into insignificance when it is considered that the bulk of the Jewish population, on being treated as strangers in their native land, must inevitably incur the neglect and the ill-treatment of the entire uneducated portion of their fellow-countrymen. The lamentable results of the illiberal legislation of Rumania have been incessantly noticed in the public press of every civilized country."

I am informed by gentlemen of high official position in Bucharest that the Jews do not by any means control money-lending interests in Rumania, although their industry and business tact are recognized by native Rumanians of other creeds with much chagrin. What the Germans call *Brodneid*, rather than religious fanaticism, is perhaps at the basis of these repeated persecutions. The remedy is very simple : let the Jews become idle, effeminate, luxurious, like most of their neighbors in Bucharest.

A. S. ISAACS.

NEW YORK, July 12, 1878.

[We print the above without seeing what new light it throws on the matter. We ourselves gave an account of the persecution to which the Jews had been subjected, and described it as "ferocious." If Mr. Isaacs had given the names of "the gentlemen in high official position in Bucharest," and the figures on which their as-

sertions are based, it would have been more to the purpose. As matters stand we take leave to adhere to our position.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

THE Scots' Charitable Society of Boston has published an interesting volume commemorating its long career. It took its rise in the agreement of twenty-seven benevolent Scotsmen, Jan. 6, 1657, "to make a box" for their countrymen, the charity being restricted to "residenters in ye Province of ye Massachusetts Bay and to transients in misfortune." The Society was incorporated in 1786, and has continued its good works ever since, owning now a Temporary Home and a lot at Mt. Auburn, and having a Woman's Auxiliary Board. Extracts from the records, which have been preserved from the beginning, with the constitution and by-laws, lists of members, etc., make a record of considerable antiquarian value. The press-work, from the Scotch establishment of John Wilson & Son, is irreproachable.——The fourth edition of Mrs. Clara Barnes Martin's 'Mount Desert, on the Coast of Maine' (Portland: Loring, Short & Harmon') is still the most tasteful of guide-books in its typography and its charming photographic vignettes.——The Appalachian Mountain Club reminds the travelling public of the great service it has rendered them by constructing paths and shelters and opening new views in the White Mountains, and asks for contributions, large or small, to a fund for the more rapid prosecution of its labors, which include an accurate map. We hope neither few nor niggardly remittances will be made to the Treasurer, Mr. H. F. Walling, 102 Chauncey Street, Boston.——The fifteenth annual report of the Long Island Historical Society announces that the plans for its new building have been approved, and that the construction will now proceed. Mr. H. P. Johnson's 'Campaign of 1776 in and around New York and Brooklyn' is on the eve of publication.——The annual report of the condition and progress of Yale College shows a general prosperity and an important increase in the funds available for the pay of instructors; but we regret to observe that the permanent professors of the Sheffield Scientific School have been obliged to reduce their salaries. The elective experiment appears to justify itself, and examinations for admission will be held at Chicago for the third time and at Cincinnati for the first time this year. The final examinations of the Hopkins Grammar School, New Haven, are accepted in lieu of the college examinations for admission, but with precautions.——Prof. W. D. Whitney, of Yale, sailed on Saturday for a year's absence in Europe, the immediate occasion of the journey being the publication of a Sanskrit grammar, as part of Breitkopf & Härtel's 'Bibliothek indogermanischer Grammatiken.' The other co-laborers are E. Sievers, H. Hübschmann, G. Meyer, F. Bücheler, E. Windisch, and A. Leskien, the first and the last contributing two volumes to the series.——Mr. W. Skeat, the *Athenæum* announces, is engaged upon an etymological dictionary of the English language, to fill four volumes, the first appearing next winter.——Mr. Christern sends us the first number of the *Allgemeines Journal-Repertorium* (Berlin: Gustav A. Seyler), a weekly classified index to articles of permanent value in German newspapers and periodicals, book-reviews excepted.——An International Women's Rights Congress opens on the 25th instant at Paris, with MM. Victor Schœlcher and Eugène Pelletan at the head of the *Commission d'initiative*, which contains also representatives from Italy, Switzerland, Holland, Russia, and the United States—Mrs. Howe and Mrs. Livermore among the last-named. There will be historic, pedagogic, economic, moral, and legislative sections.——The subscription in aid of the family of John Wilson Barron, treasurer of the savings-bank at Dexter, Maine, who preferred to die rather than to open the cash-box of his safe to burglars, has not been proportionate to the rare heroism and loyalty of his sacrifice. Mr. Francis W. Palfrey, 13 Exchange Street, Boston, is authorized by the Dexter banks to receive offerings of any size. We hope the fund will at least meet the exigencies of the case. The banks of the country have failed to contribute their share of it, which is sufficiently discreditable; but they ought really to establish a common insurance or pension fund to keep their employees faithful, and repair as far as possible all loss or suffering incurred in the defence of their property.

—Some time since, General Richard Taylor published in the *North American Review* a "charge" to the effect that Lincoln had compelled Grant to attack Richmond by a line not recommended by military advantages, which Grant told him in advance would result in needless sacrifice and slaughter. The story was at once indignantly denied by General Grant, but in denying it the latter introduced what in the literature of "charges" is known as a new "element," the "element" being Mr. Gideon Welles, late ex-Secretary of the Navy, whom he accused of endorsing the story on which General Taylor's allegation rested. In doing so, however, he overlooked a third "element" in the shape of Mr. Edgar T. Welles, Mr. Gideon Welles's son, who has come forward to open an "issue of veracity" on the subject. In the first place, he shows by quotations from the magazine in which his father's article had appeared that General Grant has been wilfully misrepresenting what he said, for he never endorsed the story at all, but "repelled" it as a libel on the memory of Lincoln. But not content with this, Mr. Edgar T. Welles reopens another issue concerning the promise said to have been given in 1868 by Grant to Andrew Johnson, that he would turn over the War Department to him if he gave it up himself. This promise he supports by extracts from his father's diary (hitherto unpublished), in which it appears that when the promise was violated by General Grant by his turning over the office to Stanton, he was taxed with this perfidy by Mr. Johnson, on which he tried to explain his action, "stammered and hesitated," and finally slunk out of the room quite abashed. From this it will be seen that the great secret of political controversy—that of never allowing yourself to be put on the defensive—is by no means unknown to Mr. Edgar T. Welles. If General Grant is going to run in 1880 he will have to meet this charge.

—The July-August number of the *North American* contains more solid articles than any of its predecessors under Mr. Rice's mangement. The first paper, by Mr. Francis Parkman, discusses the "Failure of Universal Suffrage" in a way to make several of our greatest statesmen and thinkers rise from their graves and squeak and gibber in posthumous caucus at the audacity which permits one American to write and another to publish such an article. Here is "the people," whom three generations have been taught to respect as the source of power and the sum of all wisdom and virtue, called all sorts of names, "the mob," "vultures," a "proletariat," and so on, while his chosen representatives, his aldermen, his common councilmen, his assemblymen are set down as "brutes," "knaves," "fools," "abject flatterers, vicious councillors, and greedy plunderers." Most of what Mr. Parkman says has been often said in private before, but not until recently has it appeared in print; as indeed it is not respectful to talk of the Sovereign in public in the way in which Mr. Parkman does. The article would, we fear, ruin the author's and the editor's chances in a canvass for any high office, but it nevertheless contains a great deal of truth, and suggests a curious and interesting question which we should be glad to see somebody undertake to answer in another article. There is no doubt that, so far as the government goes in this country, we are very badly off, and it can be mathematically demonstrated that if it is not improved in some way we shall all go to rack and ruin; on the other hand, there is no doubt that the country has made in the past, and is even amid the present depression now making, enormous advances, not merely materially but morally and intellectually as well; that there is year after year a larger amount of wealth devoted to education, to religion, and to charity; that year after year more and more graduates are turned out by our best colleges; that year after year the learned professions are filled with a greater and greater throng. There is no branch of civilization in which the country has not since the war made enormous progress. Now, does this progress warrant us in yielding to that optimism which has always been a great characteristic of American life, or are we probably doomed to become all pessimists by seeing our fairest hopes blasted? Mr. Parkman ridicules American optimism as a part of our disease, and one of the reasons why no improvement is possible. But is there any reason for it, or are we all on the road to perdition, willy-nilly? Mr. Parkman's article will incline the reader to think that we are. We commend the subject to the magazines.

—Mr. W. B. Lawrence contributes a somewhat discursive article on the international obligations of the United States, and an "Evolutionist" advertises for a "new religion." He goes over the ground trodden by Spencer, Huxley, Darwin, and Tyndall, and shows that the day of the Christian religion is over, and lays down the *sine qua nons* of the new religion that is to take its place. The article is a witty one, and reads as if it were by Mr. Laurence Oliphant. Mr. Edward L. Pierce returns to the Sumner-Fish controversy in "A Senator's Fidelity Vindicated," and completely disposes of the old charge that Mr. Sumner delayed public business in committee and failed to report treaties, and that this was the cause of his dismissal from the Foreign Affairs Committee. He also

deals with a new charge brought forward by Mr. Bancroft Davis, Mr. Fish's former Assistant Secretary of State, in the *Herald*. The new accusation is not that Mr. Sumner "pigeon-holed" treaties, but that he "did not move forward the treaties and secure the Senate's action upon them." Mr. Pierce shows that this is an entirely new charge, never made by any one before; points out that, as the Senators who promoted the removal were sorely pressed for reasons distinct from the San Domingo issue, they would have been glad to seize upon any such ground had there been any pretext for it, yet not a word was said on the subject. He also brings forward letters from a number of Mr. Sumner's colleagues which show that it had no existence. With regard to the memorandum of January 17, 1871, suggesting that in the settlement between Great Britain and this country the abandonment of Canada should be considered a condition precedent, Mr. Pierce shows conclusively that it had no effect on the action of the Senate whatever; that no Senator ever heard of it; that the Senators who voted for removal were not any better disposed to England than was Mr. Sumner, *e.g*, Mr. "Zack" Chandler, who was very zealous against him, and who at the same time declared in 1869 that "the sixty thousand veteran soldiers of Michigan will take the contract to take possession of the Canadas within thirty days." As he says, Mr. Chandler voting to remove Mr. Sumner for desiring only a peaceful acquisition, with the full consent of England and of Canada also, would have been an interesting spectacle. Mr. Pierce, in fine, wishes to know who the nameless "leading Senators" to whom Mr. Fish made known the memorandum were—a secret kept for seven years, and now first revealed by Mr. Davis. Sir Garnet Wolseley has a valuable article on the "Native Army of India."

—The first article in the July number of the *Princeton Review* is entitled "Exploration as Verifying Revelation." The writer, Prof. J. L. Porter, of Assembly's College, Belfast, is known, but we cannot say favorably known, by his book of Palestine exploration, the 'Giant Cities of Bashan.' We shall give but a single proof of his utter incompetency to treat the subject undertaken for the *Review*. He begins with the Chaldean account of the creation, and his translation of the important tablet containing it he takes from Mr. Fox Talbot, a notoriously rash and untrustworthy authority. It reads:

> "Every month without fail he made holy assembly days. . . .
> On the seventh day he appointed a holy day,
> And to cease from all work he commanded."

But a really competent scholar, George Smith, translates these very lines as follows:

> "That the month be not broken, and in its amount be regular. . . .
> On the seventh day he [the moon] to a circle begins to swell,
> And stretches toward the dawn further."

Professor Porter's choice between these contrary versions was apparently dictated by his desire to "verify" the seventh day of rest. That he was not ignorant of the latter translation is shown by the fact that he quotes on the next page from Smith's own comment on it. He proceeds to find "in one of the Assyrian tablets" an account of the revolution in heaven in which Satan and his angels fell. Here he has recourse to Fox Talbot again. We quote the "beautiful and striking words":

> "The Divine Being spoke three times, the commencement of a psalm.
> The God of holy songs, religion, and worship
> Sealed a thousand singers and musicians, and established a choral band
> Who to his hymn were to respond in multitudes.
> With a loud cry of contempt they broke up his holy song,
> Spoiling, confusing, confounding his hymn of praise.
> The God of the bright crown, with a wish to summon his adherents,
> Sounded a trumpet-blast which would wake the dead,
> Which to those rebel angels prohibited return.
> He stopped the service, and sent them to the gods who were his enemies.
> *In their room he created mankind.*
> The first who received life dwelt along with him.
> May he give him strength never to neglect his word,
> *Following the serpent's voice* whom his hands had made."

Two pages of the *Review* are devoted to showing how wonderfully this tablet verifies Job, and Jude, and II. Peter, and Revelation. Then the Fall of Man is taken up, and for the Chaldean legend of it Professor Porter goes this time to Smith. It will scarcely be believed, however, that the tablet now relied upon is the identical one of which he has just quoted Fox Talbot's translation as verifying the fact of the war among the angels! We append Smith's translation of the passage above cited—obscure, he confesses, being a fragment from the speech of a god:

> "May he speak, may he glorify, may he exalt his majesty
> The god Mir-ku in concern raised a protection [?].
> Lord of noble lips, saviour from death
> Of the gods imprisoned, the accomplisher of restoration,
> His pleasure he established, he fixed upon the gods his enemies.
> To fear them he made man.
> The breath of life was in him.
> May he be established, may his will not fail,
> In the mouth of the dark races which his hand has made."
>
> "The god Ziku quickly called, Director of purity,
> Good kinsman, master of perception and right,
> Causer to be fruitful and abundant, establisher of fertility,
> Another to us has come up and greatly increased.
> In thy powerful advance spread over him good."

—"To an American arriving in London just now," writes a correspondent under date of June 29, "the English stage presents some strange surprises. Mr. Sothern's remarkable portrait of the 'Crushed Tragedian' failed of success, and it has been followed on the Haymarket stage by an empty farce called the 'Hornet's Nest.' This, though it fell flat in New York, is a success here; and, by the same law of contraries, 'Pink Dominoes' and 'Our Boys,' both failures in America, are in London, one at its four-hundredth performance and the other at its eleven-hundredth—a 'run' altogether without precedent and beyond comprehension, indeed, for nothing in play or players seems to warrant such a continuance of public favor. At only one of the three theatres which attempt a higher standard of dramatic art has the bill recently been changed. 'Diplomacy' at the Prince of Wales's and 'Olivia' at the Court have already been noticed by other of your correspondents. At the Lyceum, 'Louis XI.,' an artistic but not a pecuniary success, has been replaced by 'Vanderdecken,' a new version of the legendary 'Flying Dutchman,' by Mr. Percy Fitzgerald and Mr. W. G. Wills. Mr. Wills seems to be the stock purveyor of the poetic drama: he is the author of the historically impossible 'Charles I.,' in which Mr. Irving was most picturesque six or seven years ago; he is also the author of a 'Nell Gwynne' now performing at the Royalty, and of 'Olivia.' Mr. Wills has been a painter and a novelist; he is something of a poet, as a ballad in 'Vanderdecken' bears witness; but he is no playwright. He is a dramatist much as many of the Elizabethan poets were dramatists. The principles of play-making were not generally understood in those days, audiences were not exacting, and the author filled any pause in the action with fine words about anything in the heavens or in the earth or in the waters under the earth. This is Mr. Wills's principle. When *Vanderdecken*, for instance, gets his *Thekla* all to himself, the situation is not developed, but all action pauses to allow the mysterious hero to describe, with much turgid rhetoric, the wonders of nature seen by him in his wanderings; in short, Mr. Wills's *Flying Dutchman* is a member of the Geographical Society. Mr. Irving is as picturesque as *Vanderdecken* as he is in everything. His first appearance is very striking, and he identifies himself with the character and makes it consistent and suggestive. But what his friends call mannerism, and his enemies term downright affectation, seems to be growing apace. He juggles with his voice; he stalks portentously; and, in short, apparently does all he can to kill the good impression he always makes at first. These faults seem almost wilful. Eight years ago I saw him play admirably in the 'Two Roses.' Five years ago I saw his *Eugene Aram* and *Richelieu*, and the affectation was unmistakable; now it is well-nigh unbearable."

—In the movement to secure international copyright we expect more from Sir James Stephen than from Victor Hugo, and for that reason we regard the report of the English Copyright Commission as of much greater practical consequence than the literary congress which met in the Châtelet theatre on the afternoon of June 16, and banqueted in the Continental Hotel the same evening. It was a congress at which neither Augier, Dumas, Sarcey, Sardou, Flaubert, Renan, nor Taine was present, but Edmond About presided, Victor Hugo made the "effort" of the occasion, Jules Simon was most felicitous, Blanchard Jerrold spoke for England, Turgeneff for Russia, and a maladroit Herr Löwenthal for Germany. Victor Hugo's address was carefully prepared and effectively delivered, but it was little more than a display of rhetorical pyrotechnics, mixed with some incongruous political allusions, in which appeals for amnesty to the Communists and remission of the death penalty to the Emperor's would-be assassins found a place. The Congress appeared to unite in the sentiment advanced by M. About, that "we ought to be proprietors of a book that we have made as we are of a house—that we have not made." This property should be immutable, even on change of country—a French book having the same rights in Austria as an Austrian book in France; and it should be perpetual. A resolution was also adopted in deference to M. Hugo's idea of what he calls "the public domain subject to charges." It is couched in these terms, and seems to us to stamp the unpractical character of the Congress: "After the expiration of the period fixed for the author's rights by the present legislation with different countries, any person may reproduce literary works on payment of dues to the heirs or representatives of the author."

—The centenary of Voltaire did not receive a one-sided celebration. Numerous brochures were launched against the satirist's good name and fame and scattered broadcast among the people, by clerical writers, from

the Bishop of Orleans down. Dr. Girod's contemporary "Letter to Voltaire from the Devil" was dug up and reprinted, and the Abbé Tassy brought out, in 72 pages, 'Voltaire Painted by Himself; or, Picture of the Vices and Virtues of the Patriarch of Ferney.' As for the bishop, he showed up Voltaire as painted by Jean Jacques, but discredited his own witness by citing Voltaire's worse abuse of Rousseau. For particulars about these and the remaining pamphlets one may consult M. Talon's combative review in *Polybiblion* for June. Meantime, Rousseau's centenary has come and passed, and it, too, has called forth a shoal of publications, perhaps quite as valuable as those in regard to Voltaire, and more unanimous, the clerical opposition being much less manifest. Indeed, M. Dufour, writing from Geneva to the *Athenæum*, mentions but one (and that an anonymous) hostile pamphlet, 'J. J. Rousseau Painted by Himself and His Contemporaries.' Under the auspices of the committee in charge of the Geneva festival have appeared a tract for the young, 'Why We Celebrate Rousseau,' of which the author is supposed to be a woman, and if so had a very delicate task to perform; a collection of the most beautiful passages from his writings—'Rousseau and his Works, Biography, and Fragments,' preceded by a general survey of his career, by Mr. Rudolphe Rey, and a particular account of his relation to the Genevese political struggles of the last century, by M. Amédée Roget; and, finally, an Iconography of Rousseau, describing the various portraits of him (some four hundred in number). M. Roget is also the author of 'The Wisdom of Jean-Jacques,' consisting of select thoughts, maxims, etc., with original comments and reflections on them. Of interest to all lovers of nature and of pedestrianism is Prof. Eugène Ritter's 'Jean-Jacques et le Pays Romand,' a collection of passages describing the philosopher's excursions, botanical and other, in that part of Switzerland, and preceded by pieced extracts from the 'Confessions' pertaining to his sojourn in the western cantons. This work is issued by the Section of Literature of the Geneva Institute. Prof. Ritter has gone further, and in his 'Rousseau's Family' has published a good deal of fresh information about the father and aunt, derived from the State Records; and M. Louis Dufour-Vernes has obtained from notarial sources the materials for his fruitful 'Researches concerning J. J. Rousseau and his Relatives.' Still other special works are 'Calvin and Rousseau,' by M. Gaberel; a study of Rousseau's religious notions, by Pastor Doret; 'Origin of Rousseau's Political Ideas,' by M. Jules Vuy; and an account of the honors paid him in France and by Geneva.

TAINE'S "REVOLUTION."*

M. TAINE boasts with justifiable pride of the care with which he has for the history of the Revolution consulted the statements of contemporary writers, and especially of officials whose reports were made for the Government, without the desire either to guide or mislead posterity.

"My notes," he writes, "will point out the position, the office, the name, and the residence of these authoritative witnesses. To ensure greater exactness I have, whenever I could, copied their very words. Thus, my reader, with the text before him, can interpret the text for himself, and form an opinion of his own on the conclusions to be drawn from it. He will have before him the same documents on which to base his opinion as I have had myself, and can, if he sees fit, come to conclusions opposed to my own."

These sentences make evident to any intelligent critic at once the merit and the fundamental defect of M. Taine's work. The value of the book consists in its being a laborious collection of well-authenticated facts illustrating the condition of France from 1789 to 1791. Not an assertion is made which is not supported by evidence, and vehement opponents of M. Taine's conclusions would, we suspect, be driven to confess that the truth of every fact he produces is in itself past dispute. The result of the information which he collects is extremely curious. His facts dispel a host of legends and theories. The great National Assembly which inaugurated the tremendous Revolution shrinks, under the light thrown upon its conduct by M. Taine, into a body of very ordinary persons, who, at a great crisis of the world's history, showed the most signal incompetence in dealing with the political problems of their day. Their laws turn out to have been mere preambles, constantly wanting the practical enactments necessary to carry out the well-sounding principles intended to be made the basis of legislation. The representatives who undertook to guide France never introduced order into their own debates, and the so-called statesmen who overthrew the power of the Crown fell from the very first under the dominion of blackguards drawn from all the slums of Paris. The attitude of the nation itself becomes, under M. Taine's critical examination, something far from heroic. The soldiers, who are supposed to "have forgotten that they were soldiers in order to remember that they were citizens," were stimulated to patriotism by the force rather of wine than of exalted enthusiasm. The peasants who espoused the cause of liberty had, it appears, a particularly solid ground for supporting the Revolution. Their one passionate desire was to get possession of the land. Country-houses were sacked that title-deeds might be destroyed, and nobles were hunted out of France not because they were tyrants but because they were landlords. Society dissolved because every man was looking after his own private interest, and when famine filled the poor with fear and suspicion, the ignorance of the popular leaders and the weakness of the central Government combined to intensify tenfold sufferings which a moderate amount of political sagacity might either have averted or have greatly diminished. The general impression, in short, conveyed by the long indictment which M. Taine's industry has drawn up against the heroes of the Revolution, is that a nation of fools, led by a small body of madmen or knaves, fell into one calamity after another because they were intoxicated by vanity and false theories and refused to give heed to the dictates of the most ordinary common sense. That this, or something very like it, is the conclusion which M. Taine's work suggests we cannot doubt. It is, further, as we have already pointed out, the merit of the method on which he has worked that the assertions he makes are grounded on a careful collection of facts, and cannot be dismissed as the mere dogmas of a theorist aiming at reputation through the maintenance of an historical paradox.

But though the worth of M. Taine's contribution to the knowledge of a most important period must be frankly admitted, any candid critic can perceive that each of our author's statements may in itself be true, and yet that the conclusions at which he arrives may not contain the whole truth, or anything like the whole truth, as to the character of the Revolution and of the Revolutionary leaders. The passage already cited betrays the inadequate conception which M. Taine has formed of an historian's functions. A mere mass of facts is no more a history than a pile of bricks is a house. M. Taine has brought together a heap of materials which some future writer may find of use in constructing an historical monument, but of any capacity for such construction he himself shows no trace. If, further, he underrates the duties of an historian, he, on his own showing, signally overestimates the value to readers of a quantity of authorities. He strangely forgets that, granting (what we are willing to concede) that the particular statements made by our author are true, the question is still open to consideration whether he may not have overlooked facts which counterbalance or outweigh or give a different complexion to the evidence which he adduces. An indictment may be a true bill as to every particular which it contains, but no one supposes that it necessarily contains a fair statement of the whole of the criminal's career or conveys a just estimate of his moral character. Readers who wish to apprise the real worth (which is often very great) of M. Taine's facts should carefully consider whether his conclusions may not be vitiated by his failing to weigh fairly considerations to which most historians have given even undue weight.

On three points, at least, M. Taine's view of the Revolution is, to use the mildest term, defective. He underrates, in the first place, the tremendous character of the crisis with which the people of France had to deal. What is called the French Revolution is, after all, merely a part of the great European movement against the remains of feudal ideas and institutions. Say what you will, and you can hardly say too much, of the incompetence and ignorance of the French liberal leaders, you cannot in fairness deny that they were brought suddenly face to face with a Revolution which was at once political, social, and religious. The difficulties which had harassed England in the reign of Richard II., the questions which had been raised in other countries at the Reformation, the problems which had taxed all the ingenuity of English statesmanship at the end of the seventeenth century, were all raised in France at the meeting of the States General. The deputies were ignorant, but it may well be questioned whether in some cases their knowledge did not mislead them as much as their ignorance. They ought, it is said, to have imitated the English Constitution. Those who give this advice should remember that it was the doctrine of constitutionalists as to the separation of legislative and executive powers which led the Assembly into the gravest of its merely political blunders. In any case it is vain to suppose that men caught in such a storm as that which shook all the institutions of Continental Europe should at once know how, without loss of men or property, to steer clear of all the rocks with which their course was beset.

* 'Les Origines de la France Contemporaine. Par H. Taine. La Révolution. Tome I.' Paris: Hachette & Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern.

M. Taine, in the second place, assumes, in the face of every fact and probability, that the liberal leaders could trust the court and the nobles. The king was well-meaning, but the king neither knew a great minister when he saw him, nor could stand by a good and great man, such as Turgot, when fate for once gave him the chance of saving himself and his country. The flight to Varennes gave every liberal fair warning of what he had to expect. No sane person can doubt that, had the king reached his army, a civil war would have broken out. Louis, it may be urged, had a conscience. We do not doubt it. His conscience would have told him to obey the directions of the Pope and use force against an Assembly engaged in a conflict with the Church. But if it be granted that the National Assembly might fear the court, the whole difficulty of their position becomes apparent. They ought, it is said with great truth, to have quelled the mob of Paris; but it was all but impossible that leaders who might at any moment need the aid of the populace to coerce the court, should restore order by disarming the only force which they could oppose to the reactionary movements of the king and nobles.

M. Taine, in the third place, greatly overrates the suffering which local anarchy brought on the nation. Even the decrease in the revenue meant that the burden of men weighed down by taxation was suddenly lightened.

"Was it a loss to the miserable subjects who formerly paid these taxes, and who paid them by the sweat of their brows, at the expense of the bread out of their children's mouths, assessed with tyranny and levied in blood? Do they feel a loss in having 175,000,000 in their pockets in 1789 more than they had in 1788, and in possessing another 175,000,000 more in 1790 and the inheritance in future? Is not such a change ease, wealth, life, and alleviation to those classes who, while the pens of political satirists slander all innovations, are every moment reviving by inheriting from the Revolution something which the old Government assuredly did not give? The revenue of the clergy may be called the revenue of the public. Those to whom the difference between the present payment of 140,000,000 and the old tithes are a deduction of all revenue are beyond doubt in great distress; but what say the farmers throughout the kingdom, from whom the detestable burden of these taxes was extorted? Do not they find their culture lightened, their industry freed, their products their own? Go to the aristocratical politician at Paris or at London and you hear only of the ruin of France; go to the cottage of the *métayer* or the house of the farmer, and demand of him what the result has been, there will be but one voice from Calais to Bayonne. If tithes were to be at one stroke abolished in England, no doubt the clergy would suffer, but would not the agriculture of the kingdom, with every man depending on it, rise with a vigor never before experienced?"

These lines from Arthur Young may well outweigh a hundred well-authenticated facts adduced to suggest that "aristocratical politicians" were the only true patriots in France, that the common people suffered by a change which made them rich, and that the régime which every one detested was not in reality worthy of detestation.

SWINBURNE'S NEW VOLUME.*

IT is now some dozen years since the public first really made the acquaintance of Mr. Swinburne through his remarkable poem 'Atalanta in Calydon.' This imitation of Greek dramatic verse, though not absolutely his first attempt, was the first which made him known. It was in all respects a very marked production. It showed great poetical imagination and a mastery of versification. That it displayed much original powers of thought was not to be expected, for there was little or no scope for that. Sympathy for antique and foreign modes of thought and facility of expression it evinced in abundance. Ninety-nine persons out of a hundred would have taken it to be a translation or adaptation from the Greek. To those who were interested in literature it appeared to announce the appearance of a new English poet of no ordinary promise.

Mr. Swinburne began his career under influences which were sure to make it an interesting one. English poetry, which has had in its six centuries of existence so many different phases of development that it has puzzled even a French critic to formulate completely the laws which have governed its growth, had about this time entered upon a new and hitherto untried stage. Down to the middle of the present century it had never been doubted in England that, whatever else poetry might be, it was always and above all moral—and by moral we do not mean to use the word in that restricted sense which confines morality to the inculcation of the necessity of exercising a control over the appetites and passions, but moral in the sense of having a purpose, of being written to convey some idea, further some cause, or aid some object. In saying this we do not leave out of consideration dramatic poetry—poetry written for the stage—for in every poem which is also a play, from the "Seven against Thebes" to "Hamlet," there cannot be wanting a steady aim on the part of the writer of some sort. Most English poetry, however, has had aims far simpler than any which the drama allows. To help the cause of the weak against the strong; to urge on the lover of his country to do battle for her; to ridicule and satirize the follies and vanities of society, or to turn the mind to the contemplation of the next world; to fill us with admiration for the noble and beautiful qualities of human nature, and with scorn and contempt for its baser passions; to move the heart or to lift the soul—these have been the simple objects of nine-tenths of the men whose names make up the renown of English poetry. Criticism has always found great difficulty in defining what the object of poetry was, because its objects have been as various and changing as human life; but when we reflect on the verse of Pope, Dryden, Milton, Wordsworth, or Tennyson, we shall certainly find reason to call them all, in a broad sense, moral poets.

It was not till within the last twenty-five years that a new theory with regard to the functions and uses of poetry made its appearance, which was certainly a novelty in English literature. It announced to all men that the prevailing belief in a connection between morality and poetry—and, indeed, any form of art—was all a delusion; that the great thing was not what you said or sung, or with what purpose you spoke or sung, but how you did it. Art, these critics maintained, has nothing to do with subject or matter; it is purely a question of form. Poets who write with a purpose are merely clergymen in disguise. The contents of a poem must never be examined; the only question is whether it is well expressed. This theory was, of course, drawn from the domain of painting, where the controversy between morality and art had raged for a long time, and the hold which it seemed to take upon the English mind was remarkable. On one side it appeared in Rosetti; on the other, in Matthew Arnold, who, happily uniting the functions of critic and poet, explained in one character the reasons which made it necessary to read what he had written in the other. To see the thing "as it is" was, according to Mr. Arnold, the first duty of the critic. To have seen certain things as they might have been, or as they ought to have been, would assuredly have sadly interfered with the pleasure derived from most of Mr. Arnold's poems.

The new theory developed with astonishing rapidity in England. In this country, for various reasons, it received a cold welcome. At the time of its invention most of the leading poets of this country—Lowell, Emerson, Longfellow, Bryant, and Whittier—had just been mustered out after a thirty years' service of the muse in the cause of freedom; to tell them, or anybody who had been moved by their verse, that poetry existed for its own sake and not to stir men's blood to deeds of valor and patriotism, and that the true critic was he who saw the thing "as it was," was to utter meaningless sounds. Consequently the new gospel never made much headway here. But in England it prospered amazingly; and curiously, though naturally enough, the first two "finds" of this latter-day school were Americans, and Americans, too, who had never had much honor in their own country. One of these was a bard the chief characteristics of whose verse was an indecency which should long ago have brought him under the eye of the Society for the Suppression of Vice, and the fact that, improving on the example of M. Jourdain, he wrote prose without knowing it. The other was a gentleman whose Western adventures, according to his own account, had been such as rather to qualify him for the position of poet among the Iroquois than among the English, and whose facility in versification was somewhat marred by such a frequent disregard of grammar and sense as seemed to preclude the idea of professional license. Here was poetry that was not moral; here were poets who did not seem to know good from evil, any more than the beasts of the field; who had no object or aim or purpose; who neither exhorted nor ridiculed, but simply sat down to "write poetry," as boys of twelve write it, because they have heard it is a fine thing to do.

It was under the influence of the school which had chosen to make itself responsible for Whitman and Miller that Mr. Swinburne began to write, and he has from time to time given proof that he is an apt pupil. We have endeavored not to underrate his great natural powers. So far as we know, no poet has appeared in England within thirty years who, at the outset, had greater; but the question is, What has he done with them? He has been now for ten years engaged in carrying out the peculiar theories of the school to which he belongs—that is to say, he has been "writing poetry," not with a purpose, not with an aim, not to rouse or to charm or to warn, but to put whatever ideas occur

* 'Poems and Ballads. By Algernon Charles Swinburne.' [Second series.] New York: R. Worthington. 1878.

to him in a poetical form and publish them. This is the negative side of the attempt; it has a positive side too; he is filled with the idea, which all his school share, that poetry has been what the *Saturday Review* calls "perversely moral," and that it is time to check this tendency. In a certain sense, therefore, he may be said to have had an object—that of checking this perversity. It is hardly necessary to say that to do so he has run to the opposite extreme—that of unbridled license. We may say, by the way, that it is a remarkable trait of all the most distinguished bards of this last decade that wherever they come from, and however different they are in other respects, there is one ground that is common to them all—they all agree that there is nothing so disgusting as decency.

Mr. Swinburne has now been pursuing the path of the new school for some ten years, and what has it brought him to? We have looked over his last volume of poems with some curiosity to see. It consists in part of translations from the French of Villon, whom Mr. Swinburne calls the "Prince of all Ballad-makers," and to whom he inscribes a ballad of his own with the singular refrain—

> "Villon, our sad bad glad mad brother's name."

These translations do not impress us with a belief that there is any more rational foundation for Mr. Swinburne's raptures over his "sad bad glad mad brother" than there is for the ecstasy into which the writings of the author of 'Fleurs de Mal,' whom he invokes as a "sweet strange elder singer," seem to throw him. It is a noticeable peculiarity of his school that a great deal of their time is occupied in the search for sad bad glad brothers and sweet elder singers, whose memory the rest of the world has agreed it is not of great importance to preserve, whose chief recommendation in the eyes of these admirers is that their careers have been of a criminal, or their poetry of a libidinous or otherwise evil cast. The rest of the book is made up of a variety of poems in all metres, some of them managed with a great deal of skill, on a variety of subjects, of which "The Forsaken Garden" and some of the verses of "Four Songs of Four Seasons," are to our minds the most pleasing. We have not space to quote any of them at length, but the general impression left on us by the book as a whole is a very distinct one. It is one of emptiness and repetition. Which of these poems teaches us anything, tells us anything, or communicates ideas of intrinsic beauty? Which of them lingers in the memory after reading it? Not one. In many of them there are single lines of considerable force, more often half-lines, or mere epithets, treasures from the originally rich storehouse of Mr. Swinburne's fancy, scattered about here and there, and giving a hint of the wealth that has been squandered; but this is pretty much all. The steady dramatic grasp which was displayed in the 'Atalanta,' the passionate, and at the same time restrained, force of expression are all gone, and in their places we have broken bursts of emotion of one sort and another, sometimes erotic, sometimes pathetic, and sometimes maudlin, sometimes coherent and sometimes incoherent, full of distorted and confused expression, and seldom or never producing the effect intended. In one of the poems called "Sestina" the poet has a vision of his soul at rest, and describes it. He says:

> "This was the measure of my soul's delight;
> It had no power of joy to fly by day,
> Nor part in the large lordship of the light;
> But in a secret moon-beholden way
> Had all its will of dreams and pleasant night,
> And all the love and life that sleepers may."

And again, he says that it

> "Sought no strength nor knowledge of the day,
> Nor closer touch conclusive of delight,
> Nor mightier joy nor truer than dreamers may,
> Nor more of song than they, nor more of light."

This, though probably not intended so, strikes us as a very accurate description of the comatose condition to which Mr. Swinburne's muse is reduced after ten years' wear and tear. It treads "a secret moon-beholden way" quite apart from the ordinary paths of men, their interests, passions, hopes, virtues, or even vices. Of "At a Month's End," except as a dream, and belonging to the life that sleepers—and bad sleepers at that—lead, we can make very little. In it he (or the first person) figures as a sea-mew and his mistress as a "sleek black pantheress" (this is a characteristic comparison of Mr. Swinburne's, and gives him an opportunity, a few verses later, to refer to what must strike a libidinously-minded critic of the new school as two of its finest lines—

> "The print and perfume of old passion";
> "The wild-beast mark of panther's fangs"),

but what it all is, except a nightmare, is quite beyond us. We confess, too, to having sighed for a gloss in reading "Choriambics," "At Parting," "A Song in Season," "Two Leaders," and "Triads." Having examined them with care, we believe that we understand them; but we have followed the moon-beholden path which Mr. Swinburne's muse takes in them with difficulty, and a success in mastering such difficulties, however much it may be a reason for self-satisfaction, can never cause us much delight in the obstacles which have made the way rough. Minor poets, we may take leave here to say, ought not to forget this as often as they do.

Mr. Swinburne has made his bed, and in it he must lie. With great natural powers, and, to judge from some of his earlier poems, generous poetical impulses, he has chosen to abandon the broad highway of English poetry, where he might have journeyed to the end with the great masters of song, for a narrow and miry path which he and a few friends insist, contrary to the evidence of their senses, is the turnpike. In it he has found a few kindred spirits who have also lost their way, and he hails them as brothers, and insists on following them to the end, though they, poor devils, mostly strangers to the language and the country, have no desire to lead him in any direction. A poetical tramp here and there he picks up as travelling companion, who is glad enough, in consideration of being assured that he, too, is one of the children of light, to fall in with any theory of the country; and so the poor traveller seems doomed to go along, getting further and further from the road, and deeper and deeper in the æsthetic bog, until he falls by the wayside to perish of the hunger and thirst that sooner or later overtakes those who in poetry, as in other walks of life, follow false guides. We fear that it is already too late for him to turn back, and that he must go on in his "moon-beholden way" to the end.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 25, 1878.

The Week.

THE weather has since our last issue been one of the leading topics of the day. Early last week it began to appear that St. Louis was more than usually hot, and presently we were informed by the Weather Bureau that a "hot wave" was advancing from Manitoba, and would presently leave the dwellers on the coast no occasion to congratulate themselves that they were not denizens of the Mississippi Valley. It moved slowly enough to permit the Chicago press to indulge in their usual complacent remarks at the expense of St. Louis, before the thermometer there too crept up into and past the nineties; and we believe it was while the wave was still over Cincinnati that the *Gazette* undertook to prove Cincinnati a naturally and preternaturally cool place. Such violent exertion as this may well have heightened the disastrous effects of the heat. The wave struck New York early in the morning of Thursday, and that and the next day were undoubtedly very hard to bear even by the well and robust; while as for the sick, the ill-housed, and the imprudent or unacclimated, they suffered more than the increased mortality could indicate. The imagination, which had for a week been regaled with the telegraphic reports of deaths by sunstroke—in St. Louis conspicuously, but also wherever the wave advanced—probably aggravated the effects of it at every new stage, and we cannot regard it as a happy thought at such times to give as much prominence to lists of deaths as in the case of a catastrophe like a railroad accident or the burning of a theatre. Relief came speedily, however, and a great fall of temperature began here on Saturday, and reached its lowest on Tuesday—in consequence, according to the Bureau, of a cold wave likewise despatched from Manitoba.

Some very affecting scenes took place at the Custom-house on Saturday. During the day Collector Arthur was kept busy receiving calls from deputies, heads of departments, and other employees, who desired to express their regret at his departure; and to these he stated, according to the *Tribune*, that his chief regret in leaving the Custom-house "was in parting with the many men to whom he had become sincerely attached." At four o'clock General Merritt presented himself before General Arthur, and handed him a letter from Secretary Sherman, requesting that the office be turned over to the new Collector. The meeting between the two officers is said to have been "extremely cordial," and General Arthur having said a few words, General Merritt replied by stating that he entered upon the duties of his office with a great deal of "reluctance and trepidation," and requesting the deputies to assist him as they had assisted his predecessor, whom he says he "respects very highly." General Arthur then, "in a very feeling manner," bade the deputies farewell, and congratulated them on the satisfactory manner in which they had transacted the public business. The "last official act," the account goes on, "of General Arthur was the appointment of Colonel T. B. Thorpe, a former weigher," to a "clerkship in the seventh division, in place of Leonidas Brown," and his last unofficial act was to "drink a parting glass of wine" with the new Collector and the deputies, in a spot hallowed by a thousand associations of the past seven years—the "seizure room."

General C. K. Graham has been appointed by the President as Surveyor in the place of General Merritt, and the removals here and in New Orleans (where Butler's brother-in-law, Parker, has been superseded) have filled the air with rumors of further changes. In this State the Republican politicians are still agitated over the State convention question. At Rochester last year, when Conkling carried the day completely, a resolution was passed giving the State Committee (Conklingite) discretion to call a convention in 1878, composed of one delegate from each Assembly district, to be appointed by the county committees, or to call a convention in the usual way. The pretence on which this move rested (giving the Conkling committee an opportunity of depriving the mass of the party of all control of the machinery for two years, during which the control of it was expected to determine the choice of Mr. Conkling as Senator) was the fact that a judge of the Court of Appeals was the only officer to be chosen this year. The Administration and Fentonite Republicans now say with great force that this is simply despotism, and insist that the convention shall be called in the usual way. They maintain that if a convention of a popular sort is held they can defeat Mr. Conkling's aspirations. But to do this a complete control of the "machine" is necessary, and hence there are already rumors of the removal of Mr. James, the postmaster of this city. We can assure the Administration that it could do no act in this State better calculated to make civil-service reform ridiculous, or to give an excuse for the complaint of the Conklingite organs that efficient officers are being removed to make room for mere partisans. Mr. James is undoubtedly a follower of Mr. Conkling's, but for all that he has carried on the post-office in this city more nearly in the way a "prudent merchant" would manage his affairs than any other public office in the State or country has been managed. He has in this way earned so thoroughly the good will of the public that no removal here would be regarded by them with so much resentment. But it is difficult to know what an Administration which appoints Levisee, the Louisiana elector, as a revenue agent, seemingly in return for his testimony before the Potter Committee, will do next.

The "Nationals" met at Syracuse on Monday, four delegations going up from this city. Of these the most important was the "Shupe" delegation, headed by a gentleman of that name whose acquaintance with Mr. Sherman has subjected him to the charge of being in league with the Republicans. As soon as the delegates got together it was found that much hostility existed between city and country, the city representing mainly the "labor reform" and the country the "greenback" factions in the new party. It was determined to exclude all four of the city delegations, on which Mr. Shupe went off, announcing his intention to hold a convention by himself. As we go to press no platform has been drawn up. The proceedings have been marked by a great deal of noise and confusion. In Ohio the Nationals have had their convention, and a committee on resolutions, headed by S. F. Cary, has drawn up a platform denouncing the whole financial legislation of the Government since the beginning of the war as contrived by "bankers and usurers" for the "single and settled purpose of robbing the many to enrich the few," demanding unlimited gold and silver and enough paper for the employment of labor, denouncing Communism and all violent measures, and opposing further issues of bonds and the circulation of bank-note currency.

The Californians have had an escape from complete capture of the State by the Kearneyites, the fact being established that the convention has been carried by the anti-Kearney or non-partisan party. The followers of Kearney will only be able to control a third of the convention. A correspondent of the Boston *Advertiser*, writing from California, gave, the other day, a graphic description of Kearney and his peculiar style of oratory, which shows how far the West has got ahead of the East in the art of demagoguery. An Eastern demagogue is generally a hypocrite as well. He persuades the public to follow him by using specious arguments, which have a semblance of truth to fit them to deceive, and always pretends to great reverence for the virtues which he most habitually disregards.

Kearney has got far beyond all this; he is profane, vulgar, and violent in his harangues, his exhortations taking in great part the form of a hearty cursing of his enemies. He does not pretend to an interest in any of the issues commonly considered political, but swears and elbows his way through his argument as he might through a crowd of roughs. The spectacle of such a man controlling the politics of a State would be a monstrous mockery of free institutions, and if the Californians are to be congratulated on having escaped, they are to be pitied for having come so near a great disaster. It is thirty years since California went through the "pioneer" and "vigilante" phase of society, but "Kearneyism" is worse than the evils which caused the formation of vigilance committees; it cannot be met in the same way.

Several independent movements have made their appearance in the South, and have produced almost frantic appeals from the Southern Democratic papers for unity and harmony. There is no sign as yet that they have anything more than a local origin, though it may be suspected that the Republicans, having given up all hope of running tickets of their own, are not sorry for a chance to foment quarrels among their enemies. In Texas the Democrats are having trouble with the nomination of a governor; in North Carolina Gen. Clingman, an ex-senator, and once a man of considerable influence, is making a disturbance, while in South Carolina there is trouble over the negro vote, and a split is threatened. The conservative papers exhort everybody to remember that the only issue is "radicalism," though they fail to explain why. The success with which the party has been kept together since the election of 1876 is a remarkable feature of the present political situation, and apparently has at last begun to arouse some scepticism in the minds of several earnest politicians, who do not object to "unity in essentials," but fail to see why that is incompatible with their own running against the regular candidates. In Virginia a terrible commotion has been produced by a sanguinary determination of Mr. Eppa Hunton, of the Alexandria district, to have the blood of Mr. Columbus Alexander, of Washington, or "brand" him. Mr. Alexander accused Hunton of helping the Ring in Congress, on which Mr. Hunton challenged Mr. Alexander to mortal combat, and, he not accepting it, "posted" him as a coward, a blackguard, and a liar. Now Mr. Alexander has gone into Mr. Hunton's district, and proposes to defeat his re-election to Congress.

The revenue troubles in South Carolina, like so many other troubles in the South, have been at once seized upon by party papers for the sake of the political capital they may be supposed to furnish. In reality they seem to have nothing to do with politics, but to grow out of the difficulty of enforcing a law which is not adapted to the social condition of the State. The mountain districts of South Carolina are filled with small farmers who carry on a small distilling business in connection with their farming. It is less profitable to them to transport their corn to market than it is to convert it into whiskey and transport that. The revenue laws, however, make no provision for small distilleries of this sort, and the result is that the business must be carried on as it is in the North, on a large scale, or be stopped. As the farmers have not the capital to do the first, and are unwilling to deprive themselves of one of their chief means of support, they carry on their distilleries illicitly. A very strong feeling, as in all such cases, prevails that they are doing no more than they have a right to do, and that the revenue officers are banded together for their oppression and spoliation. When the approach of the "revenues" is suspected, the farmer who first gains the information winds a horn, which is echoed as a warning signal from farm to farm through the hills. Of course, this state of affairs breeds a set of desperadoes who are no farmers at all, but regular law-breakers, who take advantage of the state of public feeling to gain immunity for their criminal pursuits. This seems to be the character of the outlaw Redmond, said to be a refugee from North Carolina, who is now at the head of a powerful gang which bids complete defiance to the law and its officers. The relation between the revenue officers and the population of the up-country seems to be not unlike that which existed in parts of Ireland at the end of the last century.

Recently Judge Mackey has made a pretence of bringing these troubles to an end by having a grand jury find an indictment against Redmond, but as no one seems to be able to find Redmond himself the indictment does not do much good. The matter has been finally brought to a crisis by the shooting at a revenue officer by one of Redmond's teamsters, who was in return shot down by the officer. The officers of the party at once surrendered and were indicted for murder. An attempt was made to transfer the case to the United States courts, but this was resisted by the State authorities, and Judge Kershaw refused to allow the transfer on the ground that the plea (being self-defence) is personal, and does not involve the official character of the accused. As we have not seen the indictment or the plea we are unable to express an opinion as to the merits of Judge Kershaw's decision, but this difficulty does not stand in the way of Democratic and Republican newspapers, the first pronouncing it sound law, and the latter arrant nonsense. The Administration does not seem to be satisfied with the behavior of its agents in the State, some of whom appear to sympathize with the offenders, and it is said that vigorous measures are to be taken to remove the case at once to the United States Court. Meanwhile it is announced, "by authority," in Charleston, that Governor Hampton, who has just secured an amnesty for persons accused under the Ku-klux laws, is also making an earnest effort to secure another for illicit distillers; that he has sent word to them that, on their coming in and engaging to give up and discontinue the business, he will do all that he can to have the prosecutions against them stayed or dismissed, and that some twenty-five illicit distillers have done so. Some change in the law with regard to these mountain stills will probably have to be made by the next Congress, which will enable a tax to be collected.

In the last number of the *American Law Review* General Bradley T. Johnson, of Virginia, has an article on remedies against State repudiation, taking the same ground we have taken in these columns, that States whose citizens hold claims against other States may take measures to enforce such claims in the Supreme Court of the United States, the suit being brought in the name of the State itself. Mr. Johnson's article was, perhaps, written before the matter was brought up in the New York Legislature. An act such as he seems to have in mind was passed a few months ago in this State. It authorized the owners of repudiated State bonds to assign them to the Attorney General, after examination of the foundation of the claim by him, who was directed to sue on them in the Supreme Court, the expenses being all paid by the owners. This would have entailed some labor on the Attorney-General, but it would have been labor of the sort that may be fairly imposed upon him, as it grows out of the most fundamental of government obligations—that of a State to protect its citizens when they cannot protect themselves. Nevertheless, the Governor vetoed the bill, on grounds which he did not, to our minds, succeed in making plain, and which he would have probably had greater difficulty in stating clearly had he seen Mr. Johnson's article in advance. It is all the more important as coming from a Virginian, and must be taken by the repudiating party in that State as a warning that the Constitution may yet be found to afford redress against communities which swindle their creditors.

The effect of foreign travel on mind and manners has never been more strikingly illustrated than in General Grant's case, as appears from an account given by a correspondent of the *Herald* of a recent interview between him and Prince Bismarck at the Radziwill Palace. It may be remembered that during the eight years of General Grant's Presidency he cultivated that sort of taciturnity and brusqueness of address which a man's friends describe as unconventionality, and his enemies attribute to rudeness, boorishness,

and other bad qualities. Since he has been moving among the kings and emperors on the other side, however, he appears to have contracted an European suavity of manner and polish which contrast strangely with his former ways. He has acquired, too, a delicate wit in conversation which he was never observed to possess in this country. On Bismarck's welcoming General Grant to Germany, he expressed surprise at seeing him look so young a man. "That," said the Prince, "shows the value of a military life; for here you have the frame of a young man, while I feel like an old man." In this country any reference to an "old man," in General Grant's presence, would have been likely to suggest a simple, straightforward reference to the "boys"; but, on the contrary, the General made a thoroughly European reply. He declared, "smiling" (and we have little doubt with a bow), that "he was at that period of life when he could have no higher compliment than being called a young man." After some desultory but interesting conversation about the Congress and the military ability of General Sheridan, the Prince regretted the inability of the Emperor to see General Grant. To this the General replied: "I am sorry that I cannot have that honor, but I am far more sorry for the cause, and hope the Emperor is recovering." On Bismarck's saying that he had a strong constitution and courage and endurance, but that he was a very old man, the General observed: "That adds to the horror one feels for the crime." Thus the whole interview passed in agreeable and improving talk, and nothing occurred to mar the harmony of the occasion, although Bismarck certainly got on to very dangerous ground in quoting a prediction of the late Mr. J. L. Motley with regard to the Rebellion, as having been verified by the event. But even here General Grant did not allow his feelings to be aroused by the mention of the deceased historian's name, and simply said, "Yes; it was true." Mr. William Gray, of Boston, who had an interview with General Grant some years ago on the currency question, will no doubt read the account of this meeting with interest. We hardly know whether the change is to be altogether approved or regarded with regret. If the General were going to remain in Europe for the remainder of his life, it would not be a matter of concern here; but when we reflect that his friends propose that he shall return here in two years and run for the Presidency, it must be admitted that it will not do for him to bring back his European ways with him. They may do very well for Bismarck and MacMahon, but for "Bob" Ingersoll and "Zach" Chandler and "Tom" Murphy a plainer style will be required.

The sales of U. S. 4 per cent. bonds by popular subscription continue very large, and the Treasury was enabled, during the week, to call in for redemption another $10,000,000 of 5-20 bonds, making $40,000,000 so called since May 1. The demand for gold with which to pay for 4 per cents is sufficient to keep the price, as expressed in legal-tender notes, up to 100⅛ to 100⅜, and this while the demand for import duties is small and while sterling exchange is weak and declining. The efforts of the Treasury to get into circulation the silver dollars authorized by the last Congress have not thus far been very successful, there being little or no demand for them except at ports of entry, where they can be used to pay duties on imports, and the Treasury being unwilling to send them where they can be conveniently used for that purpose. They are issued in exchange for legal-tender notes, but, as they can be used in place of gold at custom-houses, they are worth for this purpose nearly as much as gold. The bullion value at the close of the week of one of these dollars was $0.8855. At the Stock Exchange it was a dull week. Representatives of the trunk-line railroads are at Saratoga endeavoring to make a new compact which shall advance and make uniform rates for Eastward-bound freight.

Lord Beaconsfield's return to London was marked by official and popular demonstrations of an unusual character, and he was not long kept waiting for the order of the Garter, which has also been bestowed on Lord Salisbury. On the afternoon of Thursday last in the House of Lords the former spoke in defence of the British policy at the late Congress. He said that the modifications made in the Treaty of San Stefano had removed a menace to the independence of Europe and the security of the British Empire. Two-thirds of the Sultan's possessions, including the best part, had been restored to him, and if the Balkans did not constitute an impregnable frontier, impregnability after all depended on courage and intrepidity, and those who held out at Plevna could be trusted to make them defensible. Sophia had not, he was assured by Mehemet Ali, the strategic importance popularly assigned to it, so that giving it up was of no great consequence; whereas the Ikhtiman Pass, which had not been relinquished, was, according to the same authority, vitally important. Turkey lost Varna, to be sure, but she still retained the best harbor on the Black Sea. She was obliged to part with Bosnia and Herzegovina, but they would have been a very troublesome possession, not to be kept in order, probably, with 50,000 troops, and it was at the request of Lord Salisbury and himself that Austria consented to occupy them. The term of this occupation was left indefinite in order not to hold out hopes to agitators. Turkey, again, had lost Kars and Batum, but then she had already given them up in the Treaty of San Stefano, and besides it was not England and Russia who were concluding a peace, and as Kars had been taken three times by Russia, would Parliament have sanctioned England's going to war to retake it when Turkey could not hold it if restored to her, or for Batum, a miserable little harbor? And if an offset was wanted, there was Bayazid recovered. Partition, therefore, had been successfully resisted, in the interest of peace as well as of morality. A "redistribution of territory" was not partition. Singularly enough, Russia had fully agreed with the other Powers that "the best chance for the tranquillity of the world was to retain the Sultan as a part of the European system." "To interfere with a military power you acknowledge, was unwise," as a general rule, but to prevent further atrocities in Eastern Rumelia the Sultan's power there had to be limited, and to prevent anarchy in Asia Minor the English protectorate had been invented.

All that the Premier had to say for the Greeks was, that the Porte's attention had been called to their case, and that it had shown such a disposition as would no doubt result in a rectification of the frontier. For the rest he charged them with extravagant expectations of acquiring Constantinople, or some large island like Crete in exchange for their claims. Lord Salisbury, in a despatch to his colleagues in London dated Berlin, July 13, pointed out that by the new treaty the Greek population no longer falls within the boundaries of the autonomous Slav principality, and that Russian influence has been removed to a distance from the shores of the Ægean Sea—*i.e.*, of course, in comparison with its position under the Treaty of San Stefano, and seemed to think this enough to satisfy Greek aspirations. The Liberals naturally take the opposite view. In the Lords, Earl Granville complained of the disregard of Greek interests, and made light of Cyprus as an aid in defending the Suez Canal, or as being in any other respect worth the cost and responsibility attaching to it. On this head Lord Derby took the same ground, and made the extraordinary statement that his motive for leaving the Cabinet was his dissent from the decision to seize a naval station in the Eastern Mediterranean, including Cyprus and a point on the mainland, by a secret expedition from India without the Sultan's consent. This was at once denied by Lord Salisbury, but was reaffirmed, and a fine "issue of veracity" was raised in addition to a nice question as to the ex-minister's breach of confidence. In the House, on Friday, Lord Hartington gave notice of a resolution censuring the Government for its neglect of the Greeks, its unnecessary extension of military liabilities with regard to Asiatic Turkey, and its vague assumption of responsibility for the better administration of that region—all without the previous knowledge of Parliament. Outside, Mr. Gladstone has denounced the Treaty for its sale of Bessarabia to despotic Russia, and stigmatized the covenant with Turkey as "insane," and called for an appeal to the country. Mr. Forster has affirmed the intention of the Liberals to protest and take a division at all hazards.

THE TREATY OF BERLIN.

THE telegraphic summary of Lord Beaconsfield's speech in the House of Lords contains, without doubt, the principal points of his defence of the Treaty of Berlin, so that we may fairly conclude that we know the best that can be said for it, and all that the British Ministry expect from it. To judge it rightly one has to take his stand sufficiently far back to include in the view the earnest efforts made by Austria and Germany and Russia to bring about a common understanding with regard to the present crisis in Turkey. After the insurrection in Herzegovina had lasted a year without any prospect of its termination, a Note was drawn by Count Andrássy on behalf of the three Powers, towards the close of 1875, setting forth in full the grievances and disabilities under which the Christians labored, and making the very moderate proposal that there should be full religious liberty in the Sultan's dominions, that the system of farming the revenue should be abolished, that revenue derived from Bosnia and Herzegovina should be spent in these provinces themselves, and that a commission composed equally of Christians and Mussulmans should superintend the execution of these and divers other specified reforms. In this note, which Austria was to present, England refused to join, and would give no reason for refusing. The Porte accepted it in its usual passive way, but things went on as before, and the month of May, 1876, was reached without any sign of the restoration of peace in the disturbed provinces. So the Powers then drew up another note, known as the Berlin Memorandum, asking for an armistice for two months, so that the demands of the insurgents might receive fair consideration. To this France and Italy adhered, but England again refused to do so, still giving no reason except that she wished to preserve her liberty of action. France then asked her to propose something herself, but this also she declined to do, Lord Beaconsfield's idea evidently being that Turkey was not to be interfered with in any way whatever. At that time, in fact, he made no secret of attaching great importance to her "integrity and independence," to use his own phrase.

In the course of the summer of 1876 the "Bulgarian atrocities" occurred and were exposed, and popular indignation over them in England rose very high; but Lord Beaconsfield at first pooh-poohed, and then apologized for them in his place in Parliament. But under the pressure of public opinion a conference was at last called in Constantinople, to which Lord Salisbury was sent out, and which urged on the Turks the adoption of a plan of internal reform substantially the same as that contained in the Andrássy note. The Turks, relying on the assurance which Lord Derby steadily gave the Ottoman Ambassador in London, that England would take no part in an attempt to coerce them, and feeling sure besides this that if any one else tried to coerce them England would come to their aid, refused to pay any attention to the recommendations of the Conference, which would on its adjournment have presented a ridiculous figure in history if Russia had not promptly announced her intention to enforce those recommendations by armed intervention. The Turks, still relying on England, then committed the immense folly of going to war. Had the Beaconsfield Ministry at this point proposed or agreed to threaten the Turks with any coercion they would undoubtedly have submitted, and the Sultan's dominions would still be intact; that is to say, he would have the direct government, subject to some very reasonable reformatory restrictions, of the whole of Turkey in Europe, as the Treaty of Paris left it, under a renewed guarantee of the Powers, and with over 15,000,000 of subjects (European) all told. So that, if the English people preserved their sobriety of judgment, those of them who consider the integrity of the Ottoman Empire a matter of importance to English interests would now naturally hold the Ministry responsible for the changes which have occurred in Turkey since the close of the Conference. These changes may be said to be in almost as great a degree the direct consequence of the Beaconsfield mismanagement of the Eastern Question as to the armed attack of Russia, and he owes his success in concealing this fact to his skill in fanning the flame of popular hostility to Russia, and thus shutting out from the public view the important share he had himself in bringing about the war, or, to speak more correctly, in not preventing it. He has actually persuaded the Jingoes that the Treaty of San Stefano is the beginning of all the trouble, and doubtless chuckles as, after rolling up his coat-sleeve and showing them that he has nothing concealed under it, he points out to them the difference there is between Turkey as the Treaty of San Stefano would have left it and Turkey as the Treaty of Berlin has left it. But the difference he is really responsible for is the difference between Turkey as the Constantinople Conference proposed to leave it and Turkey as the Berlin Treaty leaves it.

What the Conference proposed was the division of Bulgaria only into two provinces, with a Christian governor-general in command of the police force, and the mayors of the towns chosen by popular vote; the organization of the law-courts by an international commission; the organization of a militia containing one per cent. of the total male population, and the retention of 70 per cent. of the taxes for local objects, instead of, as previously, sending the whole of them to Constantinople. These arrangements were to be supported by a "guaranteeing force" of three or four thousand foreign troops. It has never been denied, and cannot be denied, that one word of threat from England would have compelled the Porte to accept this programme, and the utterance of it would have presented England to the Christian populations as their deliverer and protector, and would have kept the Sultan as independent as he has been for the last forty years. But Lord Beaconsfield refused to utter it, and sent as ambassador to Constantinople a violent partisan of the Turks, whose counsels and predictions all helped to drive them into war, and keep them at war after the tide had begun to run against them.

Of the horrors of the struggle which followed we need not speak. What concerns us here is, the effect on Turkey of the policy which Great Britain pursued from the close of the Constantinople Conference (December 28, 1876) to the close of the Berlin Congress, two weeks ago, and of which he is now actually boasting in Parliament. The Sultan has totally lost, in Europe, the province of Bulgaria, containing a population of 2,000,000, and the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina, containing a population of over 1,250,000. He has lost the tribute of Servia and Rumania, both of which have been declared independent, amounting to nearly $1,500,000. His old enemy, Montenegro, whose independence he has never acknowledged, has obtained an accession of territory and access to the sea. Rumelia, the province close to the capital, though left nominally under his direct government, is endowed with an "autonomy," created and guaranteed by the Powers, which destroys his legislative control over it, and reduces his sovereignty to a mere name. Finally, he has lost the Island of Cyprus. In Asia he has lost a strip of territory the extent and population of which are still uncertain, but which includes his most defensible frontier, the important fortress of Kars, and the impregnable fort of Batum. We need say nothing of the tremendous waste of the Mussulman population, on which he has to rely for the material defence of the empire, of the complete ruin of the finances, and of the final destruction of the Turkish prestige in the eyes of all his subjects, Christian and Mussulman. In fact, Turkey in Europe has virtually ceased to exist, and faith in the permanence of the Asiatic Empire has been completely destroyed.

Nor does the case look any better for Lord Beaconsfield, if we compare the Treaty of Berlin with the Treaty of San Stefano. The only thing of consequence which Russia has yielded is the restriction of the new principality of Bulgaria to the northern side of the Balkans, but this is more than counterbalanced by the seizure of Bosnia and Herzegovina by Austria, for which the Treaty of San Stefano did not provide; by the failure of the Greeks, whom England took under her protection and advised not to fight, to get anything whatever from the Conference except good advice, while all the Russian protégés, Montenegro, Servia, and Rumania, have obtained some positive advantage, however small. Moreover, Russia is to organize the new Bulgaria, and occupy it for a consider-

able period with her troops, and it will undoubtedly remain under her influence for an indefinite period, and, what is worse for Turkey, will constitute a focus of intrigue against the Ottoman Government which will gradually but surely make the maintenance of the Sultan's rule in the new province of "Eastern Rumelia" impossible. The Rumelians will never be got to look at the situation from the English point of view, and rejoice in the opportunity of being able to secure the British route to India by living quietly under a rule which they detest, and from which their brethren on the other side of the mountains have just been freed. Moreover, the more Greeks there are in Rumelia the worse for Lord Beaconsfield and the Sultan. The Greeks of Greece proper are already satisfied that they made a great mistake in not taking part in the war, and will probably never take England's advice again. They see what Russia has done for the revolted provinces, and hereafter they will look to her as their only certain hope. It is certain, too, as anything can be that the whole Greek population in the Levant will now look on that portion of Turkey in Europe which Lord Beaconsfield thinks he has rescued for the Sultan as the territory which will go with Constantinople when the final expulsion of the Turks takes place, and as the prize of that one of the subject races which now shows itself most turbulent and enterprising, and they will govern themselves accordingly. Though last not least, the extent to which England has succeeded in cutting down the Treaty of San Stefano is not, and never will be, known to the population of European Turkey, however much the ears of the Jingoes may be tickled by it. That Treaty has never been put in force. Few but the diplomatists know exactly what its provisions are. It is now, and will be, to the Christians as if it had never been made. What they see and will remember is that Russia has beaten Turkey in a bloody war, and that as a consequence of that war vast changes have been made in the Sultan's dominions, by which they are the gainers. The dialectical triumphs of Lord Salisbury over Prince Gortchakoff, and the brilliant performances of Lord Beaconsfield in the Congress, they will never hear or know anything about. In fact, the situation, as far as European Turkey is concerned, cannot be better summed up than in the language of a disinterested spectator, the Paris *Temps*, which was a warm admirer of Lord Beaconsfield's policy as long as he appeared to be defending the public law of Europe:

"To those who see the things which lie behind the words, the work of the Congress is the dismemberment and partition of Turkey. There is no serious observer who does not perceive that the Principality of Bulgaria, which has just been created between the Danube and the Balkans, is territory surrendered to Russia, and that 'Eastern Rumelia,' which has been formed south of the Balkans, will know no repose until it can stretch its hands across the mountains to its brethren in race and religion. On this capital point, to which England has directed her best efforts and the Congress all the resources of diplomatic inventiveness, nothing has been accomplished except to retard for a few years the realization of Russian designs and the execution of the provisions of the Treaty of San Stefano."

One gets an idea of the estimate placed by Lord Beaconsfield on the intelligence of his admirers from the fact that in his late speech he mentions his resistance to the proposal to call Eastern Rumelia "Southern Bulgaria" as a happy stroke, by which the efforts of intriguers to bring about a union of the two provinces would be foiled. Seeing that the name of the southern province is not "Bulgaria" at all, these misguided men will abandon their designs and leave the Sultan in the undisturbed possession of his Rumelian dominions.

THE LESSONS OF THE BANNOCK WAR.

OUR present Indian war affords an illustration, by no means new but rather more vivid and indisputable than usual, of the criminal neglect of Congress, and also, by exhibiting unfortunate mismanagement in the earlier military interference, suggests considerations as to the conditions upon which it may be prudent to give the Army entire control of the Indian problem.

Confining our attention for the present to the Bannocks at the Fort Hall Agency, who have been the most conspicuous in the so-called outbreak, it appears that during the last two years the agent often reported that the inadequate supply of food required the stoppage of all general issues, only the old and infirm being fed and the remainder left destitute, although they had been earnest in agricultural work. Seventy families, embracing 450 persons, out of the several tribes at the agency, were actively engaged in breaking up land, digging irrigating ditches, building corrals, fences, etc., but the grasshoppers destroyed nearly all their crops. In the fall and winter about a thousand Indians being without food, a number of them, wholly without any rebellious spirit and with at least the tacit permission of the agent, left the reservation to seek it, and of course came into immediate collision with the whites, some of whom had been sufficiently enterprising to engage in the hog-driving business and to turn their swine, without always securing any right to the land, to root up the cammas in the prairie where the starving Indians sought refuge. On November 23, 1877, a Bannock killed a white man, the act being wholly individual and condemned by his tribe. He was arrested, tried, and hanged, but to the military mismanagement connected with the affair the present war can be directly traced. As a punishment to the tribe for an act disavowed and condemned by it, its camp was, on January 16th last, surrounded by three companies of cavalry, who "captured without difficulty" thirty-two guns and three hundred ponies. After this exploit it became a question what to do with the Bannocks themselves, who were naturally exasperated at this violent robbery, which General Crook reported to be "unnecessary," and what disposition to make of the arms and ponies taken. The agent recommended that either the tribe should be removed or a strong force left to overawe it. The military commanders also came to the conclusion that an egregious blunder had been committed, that the arms captured were old muskets, useless except to shoot small game, and that the animals taken were from the most reliable of the tribe, who were actually using them for farming purposes. Therefore, after several months of irritation, the property of which they had been so unjustly deprived was restored. In spite of the urgent protest and reiterated warning of the agent, the Bannocks, already famine-stricken, were left to brood over their wrongs. The military force was removed in the spring—only sixteen soldiers being left within eighty miles of the agency—and returned to its more agreeable quarters at Salt Lake City, General Sherman, in an endorsement, expressing his opinion that "the agent was unduly scared."

There were not wanting other warnings besides those of the agent, from those best capable of judging. The agent at Malheur Reservation, in eastern Oregon, reported in April and May that he knew from the intercourse of Bannocks at his agency with those at Fort Hall that the latter would fight in the spring, and also that Ochoho's band of, at one time, one hundred, whom he had been vainly trying, against military influence, to get back to their reservation, had announced that they would "fight as the Modocs did rather than be again reduced to such suffering as to kill their horses for food." On March 27 Gov. Brayman, of Idaho, made a strong representation to Gen. McDowell, commanding the military division, of the probability of an Indian war, enclosing a sensible inspection report from Lieut.-Col. Parker, his aide-de-camp, stating his reasons for believing that the Bannocks would fight. It is evident, however, that this determination to fight meant little more than that having abundance of their accustomed food on the Cammas Prairie within their reach, they proposed to live upon it rather than go back to starve at their agency, and would try to resist any force sent to drive them thither. This is shown from the first official telegrams about the present war. On June 1 Gen. McDowell reported the Bannocks as making a disturbance on the prairie mentioned, and wounding two white men; but on June 5 Gen. Crook telegraphed that from his information the Indians had been doing no wrong. He probably thought that the starving Bannocks had as much right to the roots in the ground as had the squatters' hogs, The whites, however, worked themselves into an excitement. The timid ran for the nearest town, and the bolder or more interested banded themselves to attack any straggling root-digger as a

"depredator." Those of the tribe who had left the reservation naturally drew together for mutual protection, and were eventually joined by a few Shoshoni, the whole numbering but a few hundred, men, women, and children, who, from the first, seem to have sought to retreat from rather than to advance upon the settlements. This armed banding was, however, of course, in legal aspect, an insurrection, and all the available troops were ordered to quell it. So the "war" began, in which a vast amount of money and no little blood will be expended, and in which Gen. Howard, with his scanty and hastily-gathered troops, is exhibiting energy in action and rapidity of motion which can only be appreciated by those who understand the difficulties and distances of the region.

The direct responsibility of Congress for the famine that drove the Indians from their reservation is conclusively shown by an examination of the appropriations during the last four years, including the present, for the three agencies most affected by the existing disturbance, compared with the numbers to be supported. In the calculation only the amounts specified for subsistence need be regarded, as those allotted for employees, clothing, etc., cannot be diverted for other purposes, and it must be premised by the ascertained fact that the cost of a full ration in the locality averaged for the time sixty dollars per annum for each member of the tribes, old and young. At Fort Hall Agency the appropriations for subsistence for the fiscal years beginning with 1876 were, respectively, $24,000, $14,000, $29,000, and $24,000, with an average of 1,500 Indians, being for each individual sixteen, nine, nineteen, and sixteen sixtieths of a ration. At Malheur Agency the same appropriations were $20,000, $10,000, $5,000, and $3,000, with an average of 750 Indians, being twenty-six, thirteen, six, and four sixtieths of a ration; and at Lemhi the appropriations for 1877 were $3,000, and for each of the other years $8,000, with 940 Indians, being respectively three and eight sixtieths. The highest of these appropriations for the various agencies, however, permitted of an expenditure of but six cents per diem per head, while the lowest, which could purchase only one-twentieth of the established ration, gave eight mills. It is proper to note that the estimates of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, though hampered by the known prejudgment of the House Committee on Appropriations, were generally much larger than the amounts allowed.

There is not much ground in these cases to account for the suffering of the tribes by any alleged dishonesty of the agents, as there was hardly margin enough left for the most ingenious peculation, the whole amount allowed being glaringly insufficient. Well contrasted with these cheeseparing statistics will be the next session's reports of millions thrown away this year in extraordinary expenditures for the transportation of the regular army, and the claims of the State of Oregon and Territories of Washington and Idaho for the services of volunteers and the damages of citizens, more or less imaginary, but all to be lobbied through and paid. More melancholy still than this financial madness is the destruction, body and soul, of many Indians who had been in a fair way to become useful members of society, the waste of all well-directed labor and expenditure during years past, and the indefinite postponement over the whole region of the nascent civilization which in no race can be expected to thrive without rest, security, and trust.

The substantial offence of the Bannocks is, therefore, that herded into limits which, that the whites might enjoy their former territory, it was made criminal to pass, and forbidden their natural means of subsistence while unsupplied with other food, though honestly struggling to learn and practise the new arts required of them, some, and by no means at first a formidable number, or acting in either a rebellious or offensive manner, sought the spontaneous fruits of the earth in their old home and fashion. It matters little whether the whites who strove to monopolize those roots first attacked or were attacked by the fugitives from famine produced by governmental crime. The weak fell into the power of the strong, where conflicting interests rendered strife inevitable, and were therefore guilty. Around all Indian reservations gather a body of squatters whose interest it is to bring about an Indian war. During peace they invade the known bounds of the Indian land from their farms and stock. It is officially reported that 10,000 cattle of settlers were this spring intruding upon Malheur Reservation, and wherever there was timber to be found the whites came to steal it. A war of United States troops against small Indian tribes means to the local speculators fat contracts, sale of their commodities at high prices, and another slice of land, already selected in advance, partly improved by Indian labor. The false report has, therefore, been spread during the last month that over the whole district extending to the Pacific all the tribes were in arms, and attempts have been made to frighten or enrage them into leaving their authorized bounds, or committing some other act to give excuse for attack.

The wholly unjustifiable raid of the troops upon the body of the tribe whose offence had been no greater than above described, the irritation of which was not removed by the grudging and tardy acknowledgment of the injustice, was succeeded by the folly of remitting all restraint from Indians known to be outraged as well as starved. However true it may be that the absurdly small force of our Army disables it from attending to all points of danger throughout an immense territory, it is certain that this one point was purposely abandoned because the proper officers did not, after ample warning, appreciate it to be one of danger, and the troops were ordered away with as little judgment as they were used on their arrival. The mistakes of the Army and its commanders react upon themselves in their present dangers and hardships, though probably not directly affecting those most responsible. It may be wished that there were similar retributive justice for the far more serious and continued wrongs inflicted by those members of Congress who render the "peace policy" wholly impracticable by withholding necessary means, and then denounce it as a failure and the Indians as incurable barbarians.

CHARACTERISTICS OF AN INTERNATIONAL LITERARY CONGRESS.

PARIS, July 2, 1878.

IT may now be laid down as a rule that international literary congresses do not assemble American authors of the first magnitude. Glancing over the proceedings of that held at Brussels in 1859, to have a preliminary idea of what international literary congresses are like, one finds in a list of five American names two from Texas and one from Alabama, whom I hope it is not cruelly misrepresenting to describe as quite unknown to fame, and, for the rest, Henry J. Raymond and Cozzens of the 'Sparrowgrass Papers.' At the present time our most conspicuous name is that of President White of Cornell, printed by preference Withe (Andrew). Lowell did not come from Madrid, Bayard Taylor from Berlin, or Henry James, jr., from London. The period would have seemed favorable, but then authors are usually persons of a quiet turn, and by the time of arriving at distinction have seen a good deal of the world already, including Expositions. The absence of American authors of note may fairly be taken to mean in part that they think that what needs doing in the international copyright line needs doing at home. Nobody has doubted for a long time that foreign authors would like to have their rights among us, nor was it necessary to come to Paris for the moral effect of association with great names. Our legislators have shown that they are not afraid of distinguished foreigners. It was as long ago as 1837 that Henry Clay presented a petition of fifty-six British authors, accompanied with an argument of justice and morality, and as late as 1873 that Hamlin's Senate Committee refused to give international copyright countenance. The Royal Commission which has been holding parallel sessions with the Congress at London, and reported favorably to Parliament almost everything a British author's heart could wish for, has now again resolved that it would be pleasing to her Majesty's subjects could an arrangement be concluded with the United States. Thus it appears that the point to be concentrated upon is Washington, not Paris. And the best kind of campaign document would seem to be not the wickedness of stealing a writer's book as well as his overcoat, if it happens to be across the frontier, or the sufferings of unhappy English, French, and Germans, but rather a showing that it is the desire of American authors, statistics (of which there ought to be a considerable collection by this time) of piracies upon our own property by London and Leipsic, and the discouraging effect upon a national literature of the present system, which does not make it the object with publishers it ought to be to pay for good work from the writers of the country.

England proved to be hardly better represented than ourselves, sending only Tom Taylor, who has placarded American bill-boards so many nights, and Blanchard Jerrold, editor and dramatic adapter. The Congress was under the auspices of the Société des Gens de Lettres, an apparently admirable association for mutual benefit, which has had upon its books such names as Balzac, Mürger, Berlioz, and George Sand. It is still of the highest standing, but it does not comprise all of French lettres by any means. One heard vaguely of jealousies and cliques. It seems to be, politically, pretty exclusively of the Left. You did not see at the Congress the monarchical and clerical people, the heavy notabilities, Taine, Renan, Viollet-le-Duc; the romancers, Flaubert, Droz, Jules Verne. On the other hand, you did see Champfleury, Figuier, Daudet, Edmond About, a long list whose names the eye that has amused itself in bookstores of the better sort catches familiarly upon, Belot of 'Article 47,' Halévy, to whom in collaboration with Meilhac we owe most of the librettos of the opéra-bouffe of the late bacchanalian years. Then there are the publishers Hachette and Dentu; ex-minister Jules Simon; Garnier-Pagès, with enormous collar, long grey locks brushed back, and an aspect like a survivor of '93; and, of course, the great central figure of the whole, Victor Hugo. There is hardly any prevailing type of appearance among them. They wear their hair and whiskers in all sorts of fashions and are of all sorts of complexions. There is a type of young Frenchmen and of old, but not of middle-aged.

Nearly all other civilized nations had their representatives, down to Brazil—whose Indian-looking delegate had a readiness upon his feet which it was one of the surprises of the time to discover is a South American characteristic—and San Salvador and the Republic of San Marino. There is room for the belief that these delegations may have been swelled somewhat like our own, with casual enlistments, to add as much as possible to the international aspect, but there were among them Laveleye, of Belgium; Holst, the Danish poet; Wittman, esteemed the best light essayist, or feuilletonist, of Austria—one of the few in the convention who had the gift of adding an amusing humor to the good sense of his remarks; Alfonso, a bright young man who wrote the Spanish report on the Centennial for his Government; and then Turgeneff, of Russia. Turgeneff, whom some think the greatest novelist of modern times, has a presence to be of extreme distinction if he were inclined to carry himself monumentally like Hugo. On the contrary, he is amiable and backward, not a ready talker. He is tall and well made. His head, with soft white hair and beard, is something like Longfellow's, without Longfellow's sharpness of feature. A long lock of hair falls carelessly over his left eye. Sitting as vice-president in the small Parnassus on the platform, he is not intense and darting like the others, but gazes abstractedly through his shining glasses. He does not seem entirely in place there. One could imagine him followed by the Kharloffs, the Bazaroffs and Lizas, the motley and charming figures of his fancy thickening the atmosphere a little about him. For my part, I like better Hugo too meditating quietly at Jersey the pathos of Jean Valjean, the girlish beauty of Cosette, the splendors and mystery of the sea, than in his candidatures, his warning back of Prussians from the sacred city, and the turmoil of affairs.

The rest comprised ministers of two or three of the smaller Powers, and journalists, not of great note but quick-witted, travelled, and very competent to discuss intelligently the matters coming before them. "Do you know where I first saw your Bayard Taylor?" said one; "in Iceland." The process of making their acquaintance was not facilitated by the printing of any list either by the management or the press. Is there an American journal, in parallel circumstances, that would not have given a biographical sketch of all the notabilities, with extracts from their most recondite works? There seemed a singular want of curiosity. The impression exhaled was that the French were there to be seen and learned of, and as to what reputations and stores of information the strangers might have among them it was not of pressing importance. Whoever was most at home and glib of speech—though it was a thing to note the general facility in the French language, which is certainly still the central tongue of these comers from so many quarters of the world—monopolized as much as possible. It was expected that the delegate should speak up for his country when he could, or for ever hold his peace. The condition being understood, of course it was possible to say: "See here; the United States of America is more or less of a nation too, and has a condition of things as well as Nicaragua"; and these communications were then well enough received.

The difficulty of identifying people was increased by the practice of the presiding officer of making no recognition by name of a gentleman rising to speak, unless a personal acquaintance, nor in any other way than by pointing towards him, and waving back, with a troubled gesture, the others who were clamoring for the parole at the same time. Far indeed is a French meeting from the orderly movement of those we know, in which Cushing's 'Manual' is almost an instinct. The members argue back and forth with the chairman. There is no seconding of motions, no motion to adjourn; when the cries of *clôture* have been persistent enough, he says of his own accord: "Gentlemen, the séance is closed." The speaker who gets the floor has no rights entitled to respect. The chairman cannot protect him. The defeated aspirants make their remarks at the same time, while pretending to sit down, or the assembly, if it chooses, drowns everything in cries of: *Assez! aux voix! le vote!* It is only when, towards the last part, a number of persons arise with voluminous manuscripts beginning uniformly: "Gentlemen, the right of literary property is a sacred right," in order to get their names into the proceedings, that anything to commend is to be found in this method of doing business.

The Congress met in the rather shabby quarters of the Grand Orient, in the Rue Cadet. It held nine sessions, extending over nineteen days. The actual business transacted—formulated first in the three commissions into which it resolved itself—was to recommend, locally, that the right of the author, his heirs and assigns, be perpetual, except that the heir may be deprived of his rights who does not publish within twenty years; internationally, that the foreign author be put upon a footing with the native author on complying with the required formalities, and that the author have the exclusive right to permit translations and adaptations from his works. I shall not offer these important propositions, which speak a good deal for themselves, and have not been unheard of before, the slight of discussing them in a paragraph; besides that it was my intention rather to give some glimpses of the convention from a more personal point of view. The most hotly discussed section was that concerning the twenty years' right of the heir. Victor Hugo offered, unsuccessfully, a special allocution in opposition. "We stand," he said, "in the presence of two unities—the author, the public. The book enters the public domain with the author's death. The heir has no right of control over it, only the right to receive a percentage from the publishers who use it. The future belongs to the solution I propose to you. It is patient; it will wait." Another day it was a proposed declaration of the natural freedom of human thought. A cautious sentiment prevailed that this was trenching on politics and would, in despotic countries, neutralize the efficacy of the other proceedings, though Turgeneff, speaking for Russia, said he would be glad to vote for it. The author's right of control over translations was again the occasion of a spirited debate. It was held that it would too much restrict the spread of translations. But Herr Wittman entertainingly lashed the translators and carried the sense of the assembly with him. He maintained that in Austria their work was so bad as to have brought the avocation into contempt. To see one of their plays was to assist at something which had certainly ceased to be French, but was not German, and gave you nightmares.

The third commission accosted an order of business of a more human and really literary interest in itself—the condition of the literary classes of our epoch. It was made up largely of the foreigners, who showed much more interest in each other than was taken in them. As a basis for the formulation of propositions the situation was briefly set forth by a delegate for each country in turn. These expositions were informal, and no doubt pretty superficial, but each had its points of novel and genuine interest. It was to have, too, an enlarged respect for the irrepressibility of the human mind under all sorts of circumstances to see, one after another, subjects of effete despotisms and distracted republics arise and present their views with gravity, polish, wit, a philosophic manner, and so just an appreciation of things in their relative importance. There was not an entire absence of spread-eagleism, it is true, and a young man of Southern Italy had much more to say of Dante and Torquato Tasso than of Ruffini; but as a whole the matter was entertaining and informing.

A word here and there from these reports: The writer in Scandinavia does not arrive at fortune, but easily at comfort. There is a Swedish journal two hundred and thirty-four years old. Holland has probably the worst legislation on international copyright; it protects the first pirate. In return its writers have only "a mediocre present and an uncertain future," and its press, if not exactly despised, is very near it. Switzerland, spoken for by a little, ancient gentleman, who took off his hat and put on a skull-cap, like a figure in a comedy, maintains no literary man by his labors alone. This was a rather common report. He is professor,

editor, lecturer, as a supplementary means of support. In Spain he obtains places under the Government; in Austria the same. In Belgium an author must half-way expatriate himself to be popular—national poems and romances are not wanted; while in Hungary he is apt to be unfairly estimated, on patriotic grounds alone, for making head against Germanism and Slavism. In Germany the pay of an editor-in-chief is from $600 to $2,400 a year. In Italy the bane of letters is cliques—called *églises littéraires;* and at Naples so little is originated that a stock company has been formed to encourage young authors by publishing their works—after acceptance by an examining board—at its expense. In Russia the women are becoming eager readers. In Germany they are making great headway as feuilletonists, and cutting down the prices of labor. In Spain, as their gallant delegate claimed for them, if they do not write and read books so much, it is because they understand so well their ability to inspire them. In the South American republics the journal is an intensely serious thing. It is founded for an idea, and the editor in making it prevail frequently finds himself president. In Poland every newspaper-proof has to be sent in advance to the censorship; yet there are sixty periodicals at Warsaw. By general agreement the romance is better paid than the poem, the play than the romance, and journalistic writing than the play. Almost everywhere there are academies and societies like that of the Gens de Lettres here, which are in train to bring about a better period than that in which Balzac could never make more than $2,400 a year, and Victor Hugo had only a subsistence till the age of sixty. They have tribunals of arbitration, support the author in his relations with publishers, make advances on manuscripts accepted but not yet paid for, give pecuniary assistance and pensions of retreat.

As the result of the deliberations of this commission the Congress has recommended the extension of co-operation, and has taken the first steps for the establishment of a society for the promotion of regular relations between the writers of all countries. Among the projects spoken of is a library and a system of intertranslations at Paris, and an international review, to keep the current of the best contemporary writing, publishing each author in his own tongue and in French. If practicable these measures would pretty effectually prick the bubble of borrowed reputations, trace the real originality of the time to its source, and be a very cosmopolitanizing influence.

I have said Victor Hugo was the great central figure of the whole. It was success enough for a literary convention that he took its presidency. It is not easy to imagine the atmosphere of veneration in which the veteran author is living. His admirers speak of him with bated breath. After his oration they bowed down around him with almost canine servility. At the banquet at the Continental Hotel I saw them kiss his hand passionately. He receives all with a sort of solemn benignity, the sort of manner people who have an idea of greatness expect in their celebrity. But has he not had practice? In 1830 already, when he had struck with "Hernani" the death-blow of the old-fashioned classic drama, he had about him followers who thought it strange that he could walk the street like an ordinary mortal; that he ought only to appear in a triumphal car with a winged victory holding laurels over his head. His "Hernani," revived at the Français, is a long way from its proper daylight now, when realism has come so near finishing romanticism in its turn; but it is gorgeously done, and one can be half-way dazzled by it into a conception as of some wild, different plane of existence, of a melodramatic life where all is herculean feats, raptures, agonies, flashing rapiers, incredible sacrifices. At Belleville, if one will go to the other extreme of society, he can see at the same time a version of "Les Misérables." At the fine-arts exhibition of the year appears not only *Esmeralda*, long since become a standard theme, but a new subject, *Gilliat* and his devil-fish, cut in marble. Observing all this to which the writer can attain, perhaps it is not always so great a hardship, one reflects, that his income falls below that of some tradesmen.

We saw him first when he came to open the public séance on the third day at the Châtelet Theatre—a short old man with hair and beard cropped close, square in every dimension, in a dress-coat with the waistcoat buttoned nearly to the throat, where an end of white scarf shows. His face is much wrinkled, and the almost absence of eyebrows gives it a senile feature; but the voice is strong and deep, and shows an abundant fund of force remaining. He does not use the trick of our orators of beginning in an undertone and rising by degrees. He launches at once upon a tide of swelling, prophet-like sentences, his eyes raised to heaven. "The greatness of the memorable year in which we are, is in this: it gives the hearing to civilization. . . . Menaces resound. The union of the peoples smiles. . . . What is civilization? It is the perpetual discovery made by the human spirit on its march. Hence the word progress."

How well we know them, these sonorous sentences into which no ray of humor ever enters—the "big injun" talk, as I have heard it called. They have always the manner of inspiration. It is their admirable feature that more than half the time they have its real matter. Behind me, in the audience, is a man who cries at every one of them: "Ah, quel *mot!*" "Quel mot *français!*" "C'est d'une finesse!" "Il est le plus grande poëte du monde."

THE LATE DEAD-LOCK IN VICTORIA.

MELBOURNE, May 11, 1878.

I DO not suppose American journals have accorded any but the slightest notice to our late political troubles in Victoria. Our own vanity cannot blind us to the fact that we are not yet a great country in spite of our singular prosperity. But if we are still a mere handful of settlers on a small territory (for Victoria is not quite as large as Great Britain), we are accidentally so situated as to furnish an instructive study for the politician. Our people represent the ideas of the middle and lower classes in Great Britain and Ireland, as they have been during the last forty years, with no admixture of the old Puritan element that exists in New England or of the peculiar democratic influences that your war of separation produced. We are democrats by the force of facts, but democrats with a leaven of strong conservatism, the result of British training and of our own successful money-making. Accordingly, when we are forced to discuss a new problem in politics we always fall back, in the first instance, on the British constitution, and only refer in the most cautious manner to America or the continent of Europe when British precedent will not help us to a solution.

Our great controversy last year was on the land question. It has become evident of late years that estates of more than 10,000 acres have become unduly numerous and show a tendency to increase. Now, the objections which many economists have raised to large estates in England have a double force in Victoria. With us the possessors of great properties are often land-jobbers, who purchase in order to sell again, leave the land in the condition of mere pasturage while it is in their hands, and quit the colony for England when they have made their fortunes. The simple remedy that every American will suggest for this state of things is to tax the land. But our constitution has been so framed that the second house, or Legislative Council, is composed essentially of men who are either land-owners themselves or otherwise interested in the maintenance of the *status quo*—merchants who supply stations, capitalists who lend money on mortgage, or lawyers whose professional conservatism is not diminished by contact with the wealthiest landlords. The Council has the undoubted right to throw out any bill that is sent up to it, and claims the right to amend money bills and to dictate to some extent how cabinets shall be composed. If the Assembly is Conservative, the two houses work together harmoniously. But if the Assembly is Liberal, the Council soon takes up a position of pronounced hostility. It is almost certain to have the country against it; but it cannot be dissolved, it cannot be swamped by new creations, and when the members go out by rotation they, or men like them, are certain to be re-elected, as the constituencies are small and scattered, the cost of a contest considerable, and the honor of a seat small.

For some years the Conservatives very wisely avoided discussing a land-tax, and represented the question of free-trade as the only real issue before the constituencies. Now free-trade is not at present a question of much political significance. The protectionists are in an overwhelming majority, the imposition of protective duties having accidentally coincided, as Professor Cairnes has pointed out, with a general revival of prosperity, and the argument "post hoc, ergo propter hoc" being generally accepted by the multitude. Again, the free-traders have for the most part committed themselves to the gross anomaly of proposing that the state subsidize immigration. Accordingly, the discussion on both sides was a mere thrashing of chaff. Meanwhile, any minister who proposed a land-tax was summarily upset on some other plausible pretext. The ablest and most honest of our free-traders was driven out of office in 1875, partly by professed free-traders, although he proposed a revision of the tariff, because he coupled a land-tax with his financial reforms. Mr. Berry, who followed with another land-tax, was scarcely allowed time to bring it before the country. His successor, Sir James McCulloch, coupled his land-tax with a property and revenue tax, and thus united so many interests against it as to be compelled to

resign it—it was believed, not unwillingly. Certainly he took no measures to bring forward another during his succeeding year of office, and when he proposed one from the hustings in the next election his followers repudiated it in every direction. By this time the constituencies were thoroughly alive to the importance of the question, and the idea of a progressive land-tax—that is, a tax which should fall more heavily on large estates than on small—commanded general assent. Mr. Berry, however, the present Liberal premier, has been afraid to propose a tax of so novel a character, and the land-tax which he carried last year is one of the most ordinary character, exempting all land to the value of £150 a year, and taxing all above this value, on the scale of its carrying capacity, at the rate of sixpence a sheep. I do not defend this method of assessment. It practically favors good land against bad, inasmuch as good land is bought with reference to other qualities than its grazing capacities. Neither should I object to a progressive tax, the principle of which has lately received the sanction of such an economist as Professor Cliffe Leslie, and indirectly of M. de Laveleye. But I think it most unfair that a tax which was designed to be perfectly even in its incidence should be studiously described outside Victoria as if it had been a progressive tax designed to be uneven.

As the constituencies had pronounced almost unanimously in favor of a land-tax, the Council did not dare to throw out Mr. Berry's very moderate bill; but it resolved to ruin the minister who had laid his hand on the ark of landed property, and all who had co-operated with him, from the governor, who had sanctioned the bill, downwards. It threw out every measure of importance that the premier sent up, even one for increasing our defences, and finally picked a quarrel on the Payment of Members' Bill. The majority of Liberal members are not rich men, and cannot afford to leave their homes and live in Melbourne without some allowance for their expenses. Therefore, for some years past, they have received payment at the rate of £300 a year; and it is believed that since this system has been introduced bribery has become a thing of the past. On the other hand, if the system be abolished, country constituencies will have to be represented by Melbourne merchants or barristers, who will perhaps do excellent work in lobbying for their clients, but will vote conservatively on all questions of general policy. Still, there was no doubt that the constituencies were divided on this point, and that many believed that wind-bags and agitators were gathered by the hope of receiving wages in Parliament. Consequently, when the Council first threw out the Payment of Members' Bill as a separate measure, and afterwards as a tack to the Appropriation Bill, the Conservatives justly regarded it as a brilliant piece of strategy. But they had miscalculated the political intelligence of our voters. Liberals everywhere felt that the real question at issue was whether the Assembly or the Council was to determine the government of the country. Mr. Berry did not resign or dissolve, as the Council had hoped he would. Instead of doing either, he announced that he should dismiss as many of the larger office-holders as could be spared, and by aid of this economy carry on the Government pending an appeal to England. Our civil service had been inordinately large in most departments, and the changes made by Mr. Berry's cabinet have actually promoted efficiency as well as economy. Their effect on the country was tremendous. The Liberals gained strength in every direction, men who had been half-hearted about politics believing that the Government had now given proof of courage and earnestness. I do not say that there was no mixture of a baser feeling with this, of a satisfaction that the larger incomes had been specially attacked; but I think the main impulse was a sagacious feeling that the preponderant power of the Council required to be checked summarily and decisively. On the other hand, the fury of the Conservatives, when they found themselves foiled and powerless, was such as I have never seen except in countries where civil war was raging. The Governor and Mr. Berry were assailed with threats of assassination, and the chief Conservative organ commented on these with the observation that "assassination was the natural defence of the weak." The governor was accused of Sabbath-breaking, of immorality, and of pecuniary corruption. The banks tried to call in their advances, but were foiled by a flow of money from the neighboring colonies, where exaggerated reports of the depreciation of property had prevailed. It was ruin for any professional man to avow Liberal sympathies. Men who advertised in the *Age*, our leading and very able Liberal paper, were visited by a committee and ordered to withdraw their advertisements. Meanwhile, a Liberal lawyer, Sir Brian O'Loghlen, devised a constitutional expedient by which the Government could demand money to defray the expenses of collecting the revenue. The Council understood that they were foiled, and gave way sulkily. They have passed the Payment of Members' Bill and a separate Appropriation Bill, the very compromise which was offered them at first. Parliament has dispersed, and the next measure Mr. Berry brings forward will be one to reform the Council. It is understood that he will propose that a bill sent up two years running from the Assembly shall become law, unless the Council demands a plébiscite. The Council will thus be able to suspend legislation, but not to stop it altogether.

Correspondence.

A JUDICIAL FRAUD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is important and would, doubtless, be interesting to know how much, and by whom, the custodian of the written opinions of the judges of the Court of Appeals of this State has been influenced to garble or suppress portions of such opinions.

In the case of arrest against Duncan, Sherman & Co., Mr. Sickels (State Reporter) has stricken out the title of the cause, changed it to "anonymous," and permitted it to be thus published in the Court of Appeals Reports as a true report. It is a question whether the case can now be cited at all as an authority in the courts, but there can be no question whatever whether this garbled volume of "Reports" and the State Reporter himself should not both be suppressed.

The judges of the Court of Appeals must certainly take notice of this action of their subordinate. N. N.

July 13, 1878.

A GIRLS' SCHOOL WANTED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have some girls growing up, and I study very diligently your advertising columns in search of a school to which I would like to send them. Also, I read carefully numerous discussions about female education, the higher culture for women, and so on in your reading columns, and I don't find what I want; hence this appeal.

I am, unfortunately for myself, an old fogy. I don't care a cent for the higher culture for women. The most charming women I know have none of it, and I think it possible for my girls to get on without it. I would like to find a girls' school—I don't mean a young ladies' academy or institute, you know—the master of which would promise publicly and solemnly not to teach his pupils everything. I would, in fact, like him best if he would engage to teach them very little.

I would like to find a school for girls where they would give constant and careful attention to the development and culture of the body, and hardly any to that of the mind; where a good and not too elaborate gymnasium with a *very* good instructor was the principal feature of the school; where the girls should be taught and convinced of the extreme necessity of getting and keeping sound bodies, and of the delight there is in solid health; where they should discover that nothing is so wholesome and satisfying as fresh air, and nothing so unpleasant as the inside of a house; where their lungs should be developed by daily singing in classes of good plain music, whereby presently they would learn also to read music at sight; where they should be taught that the human being at nineteen or twenty-one cannot possibly know much, and that true intelligence consists not in what you know, but in a love of knowledge, which should be so strong as to make them students all their lives. I should like to find a girls' school where they don't cram; where they do not offer prizes or any sort of encouragement to the best students; where they do not give a smattering of a dozen or twenty branches of knowledge, and persuade the poor victims that they have learned something, when they have only learned it by heart. I should think such a school perfect if it possessed, *and used*, a proper gymnasium; if it had a *first-rate* drawing-master, who should also teach writing, and a teacher who actually knew enough of the natural sciences to communicate real information—ideas, not words. This teacher ought to have a moderate laboratory as the tools of his trade; and that is all. To such a school, if I could find it, I would like presently to send a couple of girls who are not brilliant, but who, I think, with its advantages, might become really intelligent young women. Do you know of any such school? One where the master would engage that the girls should grow up to hate sewing and love books; where they would learn insensibly to prefer a good novel to a trashy one, and a very little sound knowledge to a mass of glittering sham and pretence? If you know of the school I want, pray send me its address or catalogue.—Yours, School-Hunter.

New York, July 22, 1878.

Notes.

WE have received from H. B. Hall & Sons, 13 Barclay Street, a line and stipple engraving after the familiar photographic profile of the poet Bryant. The likeness seems to us very satisfactory.——The *Portfolio* for July (J. W. Bouton) contains etchings so important as Jules Breton's wonderful "Gleaner"—in which case the number inadvertently illustrates the Paris Exposition, in one of its most admired pictures—a plate of Unger's after Louis Knaus, and a landscape by Brunet-Debaines, after Bough, representing a distant view of Edinburgh. The plates are not defaced by lettering, which will especially commend them to those who buy the *Portfolio* as collectors rather than as readers. Mr. Hamerton's text, whether in describing the illustrations or in his serial contribution on Turner, continues to be discerning, equable, and quietly right. His lack of enthusiasm for Turner will be painful to many. But the day has probably gone by when either Turner, or any others of those who have treated landscape Byronically, can be regarded with enthusiasm purged of criticism.——The 'Annual Register' for 1877 (London: Rivingtons; New York: Pott, Young & Co.) comes a little tardily, and its mode of editing is all the more difficult to understand. For instance, in the Obituary for November we read: "The death of M. Lanfrey, the historian, is just announced from Paris" (no date), as if this were simply a newspaper clipping. Again, under the United States, the Nez-Percés war is disposed of, not in one connected paragraph but in two widely separated, as if a chronological sequence were attempted. Among the "Remarkable Trials" of the appendix are the Penge case and the Detectives' case (Benson's). The protocol on the Eastern Question, and other connected documents, are also given in their place. Such errors as "ten thousand dollars, or two millions sterling" (p. 283), and "Torfirio Diaz" (p. 295), indicate a want of proper proof-reading.——*Vanity Fair*, London, for July 2, 1878, is distinguished, besides "Ape's" cartoon of the great Jingo chieftain, by a sprinkling of very feeble fables (apparently suggested by the inimitable ones of the New York *World*); by a descriptive list of the "Beauties of the Season" in their social order, beginning with the Princess of Wales; and by one of J. M. Whistler's rapid etchings, "St. James's Street," "the very centre of London bachelordom," in which the family mansion is unknown, while "shops, banks, chambers, and clubs reign supreme."——Bernard Quaritch, Piccadilly, has promptly issued his catalogue of the new books and MSS. bought by him at the Didot sale. As he adds frequently the French description from the Didot catalogue he does a service to bibliophiles who could not procure the original, while his selling prices afford some idea of the prices paid.——Miss Juliet Corson, 35 East Seventeenth Street, has prepared a little manual of cooking called 'Twenty-five Cent Dinners,' designed for those in humble circumstances who can still afford something more than "fifteen-cent dinners." It may safely be recommended.——The British acquisition of Cyprus invests with a timely interest the opening article in the *Geographical Magazine* for July, on "The Vilayet of the Islands of the White Sea" (*i.e.*, of the Greek Archipelago). This is a translation of statistical and military notes from the papers of a former military attaché of the Austrian embassy at Constantinople. It is accompanied by an excellent map, showing the administrative divisions, the telegraphic, railway, and commercial routes, the fortified places, etc. Cyprus is included, but on a smaller scale.——The College of the City of New York has done wisely in selecting Mr. Russell Sturgis to fill its newly-founded chair of Architecture and the Arts of Design. A more competent professor, theoretically and practically, could scarcely be named.

—One seldom meets with a better description of natural scenery than that contained in the paper on Reelfoot Lake in the July *Atlantic*. Professor Shaler happily unites the taste for the picturesque with scientific insight, and the pleased reader finds at the end that his stock of information about the physical changes in the Mississippi Valley has been greatly enlarged without effort and almost insensibly. "The great New Madrid earthquakes of 1811–13" have nearly passed from recollection, and there is good reason in the unhealthy character of the country why the ordinary tourist keeps aloof from the subsided area which Professor Shaler so capitally portrays. Incidentally his narrative embraces a great many topics, such as the cause of the decay of Cairo, Illinois; the character of the emigration to Western Kentucky; the strategic value of Columbus during the rebellion; the opportunity for reclaiming in Dutch fashion the fertile border belt of the Mississippi, etc. There is also a compact treatise on Indian (Natchez) civilization, and the influence of the buffalo in making the ruder tribes nomadic. But perhaps the writer assumes too much when he represents the buffalo as having found its way east of the Mississippi in consequence of the forest-burning habits of the aborigines. Of the weightier articles in this number of the *Atlantic* Mr. Henry Van Brunt's "Growth of Conscience in the Decorative Arts" is best and well worth reading. The sum of its doctrine is that our modern architects, being emancipated from servile adherence to schools of art, and accepting as their inheritance and the legitimate language of their art the achievements of all ages and races, make their personal mark by judicious selection and adaptation. Their composition satisfies them not merely because it reminds them "of certain historic forms rendered precious by traditions and long use," but because the forms are developed out of the necessities of the problem, and "are not chosen because they are beautiful only, but because they are fit." The second instalment of Mr. James's "Europeans" carries on the story with a firm grasp, and closes in a tantalizing manner with Madame Münster caught fibbing by the Puritan who had begun to see in her a person very necessary to his happiness.

—That the illustrated article on William Cullen Bryant in the August *Scribner's* treats of the poet as still alive, points, of course, to the length of time required to manufacture a popular magazine. Except, perhaps, the fact of his having a botanical knowledge of flowers, and his habit of dissecting those he gathered on his walks, Mr. Horatio N. Powers has little that is new to tell of Mr. Bryant. But he describes the scenery about Cummington, the old homestead there, and the Roslyn home, and praises his subject with the freedom of an unqualified admirer. The portrait of Mr. Bryant which serves as a frontispiece is a masterly wood-engraving by Cole, after a crayon from life by Wyatt Eaton. A knowing and well-written paper called "Glimpses of New England Farm-Life," partly retrospective, partly brought down to date, if we may say so, and somewhat idealizing by omission of the harsher phases of that existence, furnishes a pretext for copying, by way of indirect illustration, several rural landscapes by Gifford, McEntee, Henry Farrer, Winslow Homer, and other artists of deserved repute. Very fresh and agreeable, too, are the designs with which Miss Mary Hallock Foote accompanies her own paper on Santa Cruz, California. The text will give pleasure according to the reader's eye for "color." The eucalyptus, "which shows its pale bluish-green foliage here and there," is effectively characterized from the artist's point of view: "It is always 'out of tone,' and looks as if seen through a fog, or with a hoar-frost upon it. Its long leaves flap instead of flutter, and show a silver lining." Mr. Wm. J. Morton's "To South Africa for Diamonds" will very well bear being continued, as it promises to be. In the beginning it does rather less than justice to the English, and rather more than justice to the Dutch Boers who are now British subjects; but the mines are clearly described, with the aid of most interesting illustrations. Diamond-digging is expensive, and costs $800 a month at the Kimberley mine, but it "pays two-thirds of those who engage in it, well. The fortunes made, as a rule, are small and numerous." Yale men, and especially those of the class of 1853, will be glad of the privilege of reading, even if they have already heard, Mr. E. C. Stedman's poem, "Meridian," delivered at the last commencement in commemoration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of his class.

—The profuseness of illustration to which the monthly magazines have attained in their amiable rivalry to secure public favor was never shown more strikingly, we believe, than in this "midsummer number" of *Scribner's* and in the corresponding issue of *Harper's*. While in each a wood-cut is to be found on a good many successive pages, the total number, if equally distributed, would nearly or quite allow one to every two of the one hundred and sixty pages—an unexampled richness. The majority is certainly with *Harper's*, but it would require considerable technical knowledge to decide in which the engraving was finest, all things considered. The test of absolute merit can be readily applied to the wood-cuts which accompany Mr. Keppel's "Golden Age of Engraving," the opening article in *Harper's;* for they copy well-known or readily accessible master-pieces on steel, copper, and wood, such as Dürer's St. Jerome, Rembrandt's Christ and the Tribute Money, Sharp's Diogenes, Bervic's Achilles and the Centaur, Desnoyers's Belisarius, Edelinck's Moses, etc. On the other hand, the remarkable series of birds drawn on the block by Mr. William H. Gibson, is more obviously than the imitations just mentioned the result of the engraver's skill and unwearied patience. The cut of the peacock feather, for instance, which introduces the paper on "Birds and Plumage," must impress even the uninitiated with its rare and costly character, whether regarded as a design or as an engraving. Mr. Gibson has evidently studied his subjects

with great care, and has succeeded in portraying them, both in action and repose, in a graceful and lifelike manner, with instructive accessories. His engravers have ably seconded his pencil. More like the familiar *Harper* illustrations, but still excellently wrought and again very copious, are those which set off Mr. John Esten Cooke's account of the White Sulphur Springs. He makes an interesting story of it, at least so long as he confines himself to description and reminiscence, and he appears to be well justified in the belief that this beautiful region will more and more become the common ground of meeting and fusion of North and South, to the great advantage of both. Mr. Cooke's praise of the medicinal qualities of the Springs is expressly restricted to certain enumerated classes of ills; and this alone will be worth many times the price of the magazine to not a few of his readers.

—The Metropolitan Museum is at present dedicated to keeping green the memory of the late Mr. Bryant. It now contains three weighty memorial works in his honor. The great silver vase which he accepted from members of the Century Club is enshrined in the Museum as its property. By the terms of presentation—terms truly extraordinary in the case of a similar compliment—the vase was to be Mr. Bryant's only while he lived, and it behoved him to take excellent care of it, lest the rights of the ultimate and real beneficiary should be affected; on his death it was to pass to the Museum. Two short years have sufficed, as it happens, to perfect the title of the latter, so that the gift only brushed, as it were, the nominal recipient in passing from the hands of the donors into the "assets" of the institution. This piece of whitesmith's work is certainly one of the most perfect and difficult examples of repoussé that have anywhere been turned out in modern times, though its design is mechanically formal—and therefore, some say, the worthier of the genius it commemorates. Mr. Launt Thompson's bust of the poet, a colossal affair in bronze, and a work of considerable dignity, is likewise in the Museum. There is also on exhibition a large bronze half-length in medallion form, nearly four feet high, by E. J. Soligny, wherein Mr. Bryant looks like one of the least cheerful of Michael Angelo's prophets in the Sistine. A pedestal will soon be erected in the Park for the bust of the poet, by the Century Club, of which he was president so long. The Museum, with no very ardent feelings, is preparing to go into banishment next year to the new building at the northern extremity of the city, where visitors cannot be expected to find it, and where its revenue from admission fees will be cut off. General Cesnola has been closely occupied for some time in preparing for this removal by opening and adjusting the rest of the cases of Cypriote curiosities which have never been shown to the public, though their contents have been described in his book. Among recent loans to the collection of paintings may be named those of Gleyre's "Young Roman's Bath," a canvas on which the Swiss painter has unquestionably put better work than on his more famous "Illusions Perdues," and Cabanel's feebly-forcible "Echo," pictures lent with several others by Mr. Charles S. Smith. The Museum will be closed during the month of August.

—The number of Indians who are actually engaged in, or perhaps more properly to be described as defending themselves from, hostilities has been as much exaggerated as their identity has been mistaken and their conduct misunderstood. The word Bannock is a corruption of Pannaiti, by which name the people know themselves, and means "Northerners"; they, in fact, dwelling the furthest north of all the tribes composing a great linguistic stock which occupied nearly the whole of the interior basin between the Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Nevada, and crossed over both those ranges at several points, in the south of California reaching the Pacific. This stock having no general title, ethnologists have lately adopted for it that of "Numa," from an expression signifying "we," or "our people," used in all the dialects known. A large part of the whole family has in the past been generally styled "Shoshoni," or "Snakes," after one of its prominent divisions. The word Shoshoni is not found in the language, and arose from its application to the division in question by a neighboring tribe, the early interpreters translating it into "Snake." The Bannocks were in 1877 enumerated at the Fort Hall Agency as 625; at Lemhi Agency, 190; both being in Idaho. The Shoshoni at Fort Hall, Lemhi, and Malheur reservations number about 1,600, and at the latter there are also 564 classed as Pi-Utes, all of whom are of the Numa stock, and all probably—and certainly Winnemucca's band of 150—are Paviotso (meaning "athletes"), as distinguished from the true Pii-Utes, who are further south, and in much larger numbers. The whole of these three divisions of the Numas have been in the despatches confused as sometimes all Bannocks and sometimes all Snakes; but, in fact, their languages, though of the same family, are as distinct as the English, French, and German divisions of the Indo-European stock, and there prevails among them not only such want of national sympathy as would render their union improbable, but such mutual animosity as often to disturb their peaceful relations when on the same or neighboring reservations. The Bannocks and Paviotsos, in especial, are hereditary enemies. The Umatillas—whom many reports have classed, but hitherto falsely, as hostile—may be understood either as only the portion of that tribe at the reservation in northeastern Oregon named after them, or may mean to the telegraphers also the Cayuse and Walla-Walla, who are on the same reservation, the total of the three tribes there being about 800. All of these, however, belong to the Sahaptin family, whose immemorial feud with the Numa stock would induce them to attack rather than join the Bannocks. They appear to have witnessed one of the recent battles as indifferent spectators. If they shall take the war-path, it will be from their own local troubles and the influence of our last year's conflict with the Nez-Percés or Sahaptins proper, with whom, however, they did not then unite. All of the tribes above mentioned, when first known in the early part of the present century, and until they were lately forced upon reservations, gained their subsistence by fishing and gathering roots during the summer and autumn, both the fish and roots being preserved for winter use, and towards spring crossed the mountains to hunt buffalo on the upper branches of the Missouri. The most important of the edible roots on which they relied was the cammas, called by some tribes ithwa, a plant producing large and highly nutritious bulbs, and found in profusion on a prairie lying in the middle of the southern part of Idaho, between Fort Hall and Boisé City.

—The Worshipful Company of Fan-Makers of London held their competitive exhibition of fans in the first week of July in the fine hall of the Drapers' Company. The exhibition was to have been opened by the Princess Louise, under whose patronage it had been placed; but domestic bereavement having compelled her absence it was opened by the Lord Mayor. It is now eight years since the first fan-show was held at South Kensington. Since then other exhibitions have been opened in Liverpool and, if we mistake not, in Munich, and fans have formed no small part of more than one loan collection of objects of art, notably of the New York Centennial display at the Academy of Design. The Fan-makers' Exhibition was not as good as the South Kensington display of eight years ago. It contained perhaps as many beautiful exhibits as the earlier one, but it had also a great many poorer fans; it was overloaded with amateur work and with work made solely to sell, and labelled, therefore, in large letters with the maker's name; and it lacked order. Its arrangement, indeed, was as helter-skelter as possible, and the ill-made catalogue reflected doubly the want of taste and skill which characterized the whole display. At South Kensington the fans were uniformly shown attached to screens—by far the best mode of display. A study of the whole exhibition, a comparison of similar fans, was thus possible; and the show gave the visitor a distinct impression of the growth of the fan-maker's art. At the Drapers' the impression was indistinct and confused. There were fans in tall show-cases and fans in flat show-cases and fans in no cases at all, but merely exposed on tables or set up against the somewhat florid architecture of the lofty banqueting hall of the Drapers' Company. At South Kensington the artistic side of the fan was brought out; at Drapers' Hall the commercial side of the fan-making industry was pushed into view. This, however, was to be expected from a corporation of manufacturers. In this large collection of over twelve hundred and fifty there were not a dozen painted fans of which the design seemed in accord with "the eternal fitness of things." There were copies of famous pictures, portraits of people, views of buildings even, but very few in which the figures were airy and ethereal and as intangible as befits a fan. It had very few fans of historical interest, either from their subjects or their former ownership.

—The Parisians are to enjoy a new scandal. The first intimation of it comes in a little book by Eug. Noël, 'J. Michelet et ses enfants,' which is the advance guard of a large and more authoritative work by Michelet's son-in-law, M. Dumesnil. The latter is to give us all the details of the influence of Mme. Michelet the second, of friends alienated, relations kept at a distance, genius deteriorating. It was during a sudden, and to the children terrible, passion for the *noverca*, that Michelet wrote 'L'Amour' and 'La Femme.' As yet we hear little of the object of this passion, and the most interesting part of M. Noël's book is his description of the poet before its fatal influence—enthusiastic, impressionable, child-

like, not to say childish. As he looks over the Hours of Raphael he acts out the animals. For the lamb he baas, for the tiger he growls, for the boar he grunts. He makes a pilgrimage to Rouen to trace the steps of Joan of Arc, and cries with sobs, "This is the scene her dying eyes saw." Reading the 'De Imitatione Christi,' he anathematizes Rabelais; a few days after he is passionately praising Rabelais. To-day he is declaring that "St. Paul is one of us," to-morrow he will not hear of St. Paul. All of which will not in the least surprise readers of Michelet's works. Undoubtedly, M. Noël's book will effect its object, and excite a lively curiosity for M. Dumesnil's; and then, perhaps, Mme. Michelet, who has the pen of a ready writer, will, if she is still alive, present her side of the case, and we shall have a new 'Elle et lui' and 'Lui et elle.'

WEBB'S IRISH BIOGRAPHY.*

THE two things which strike one in every collection of Irish biography are, on the one hand, the small part which the bearers of Celtic names, or, in other words, the Catholic population, have contributed to the fame of the country either in arts or arms; and, on the other, the remarkable extent to which the credit of the really important services which the Protestant or English colony in Ireland has rendered to the mother country has been concealed or attributed to Englishmen. The failure of the unhappy Catholics to achieve greatness on their own soil is not surprising to those who know anything of Irish history, consisting, as it did, down to the close of the last century, so far as they were concerned, of a hopeless and barbarous resistance to ruthless conquest and oppression. The evidences of the capacity of the Mac's and O's are to be found not in the annals of their own country but in those of France and Austria and Spain, in all of which the many exiled Catholic gentlemen reached high eminence, both in civil and military life.

"It is in these quarters," says Mr. Lecky, in his 'History of England in the Eighteenth Century,' that "the real history of the Irish Catholics during the first half of the eighteenth century is to be traced. At home they had sunk into torpid and degraded pariahs. Abroad there was hardly a Catholic country where Irish exiles or their children might not be found in posts of dignity and power. Lord Clare became marshal of France. Browne, who was one of the very ablest Austrian generals, and who took a leading part in the first period of the Seven Years' War, was the son of Irish parents; and Maguire and Lacy, Nugent and O'Donnell were all prominent generals in the Austrian service during the same war. Another Browne, a cousin of the Austrian commander, was field-marshal in the Russian service and governor of Riga. Peter Lacy, who also became a Russian field-marshal, and who earned the reputation of one of the first soldiers of his time, was of Irish birth. He . . . took a leading part in organizing the army of Peter the Great, and served with brilliant distinction for the space of half a century in every Russian campaign against the Swedes, the Poles, and the Turks. He sprang from an Irish family which had the rare fortune of counting generals in the services both of Austria, Russia, and Spain. Of the Dillons, more than one obtained high rank in the French army, and one became archbishop of Toulouse. The brave, impetuous Lally of Tollendal, who served with such distinction at Dettingen and Fontenoy, and who for a time seriously threatened the English power in Hindostan, was the son of a Galway gentleman, and member of an old Milesian family. Among Spanish generals the names of O'Mahony, O'Gara, O'Reilly, and O'Neill sufficiently attest their nationality, and an Irish Jacobite named Cammock was conspicuous among the admirals of Alberoni. Wall, who directed the Government of Spain with singular ability from 1754 to 1763, was an Irishman, if not by birth, at least by parentage.

"The physician of Sobieski, King of Poland, and the physician of Philip V. of Spain were both Irishmen, and an Irish naturalist named Bowles was active in reviving the mining industry of Spain in 1752. Tyrconnel was French ambassador at the Court of Berlin. Wall, before he became chief minister of Spain, had represented that country at the Court of London. Lacy was Spanish ambassador at Stockholm, and O'Mahony at Vienna."

To complete this picture we ought to mention that the Abbé MacGeoghegan's statement, made up from the French archives, that between 1691 and 1745 450,000 Irishmen died in the military service of France, is now accepted as probably accurate—a nameless and forgotten multitude, to whom doubtless, as to Sarsfield, death would have been sweetened if it had come on Irish soil or in the Irish cause. Mr. Lecky mentions a collection of letters in the Record Office of Dublin Castle, written about this time by "obscure Irishmen in the Spanish service," and captured by the Government, "full of affection for those who were left at home and of a most touching and beautiful piety."

It is not wonderful, then, that nearly all Irishmen who have, since 1640, achieved distinction in science or war or politics or law, have been descendants of the English and Scotch emigrants who settled in the country in successive waves, under the reigns of Elizabeth, James I., under the Commonwealth, and after the victory of William of Orange; but the number of these has been remarkably great, considering the smallness of the colony and the strain on character caused by their position as members of a ruling caste surrounded by a conquered race whom they despoiled and oppressed. The credit of nearly everything they have done has, as soon as their fame went beyond the shores of Ireland, been appropriated by England, with resulting injury both to Irish self-respect and to English relations with the island. If Mr. Webb were to publish a supplement to his work, showing the extent to which England has been indebted to her Protestant colony in Ireland for soldiers, statesmen, judges, lawyers, and administrators, and the extent to which her armies were recruited from the native Catholic peasantry from 1750 down to 1853, he would not only do a great deal to raise the fame of his countrymen, but surprise the English public. That so small a body as the Protestants of Ireland has always been should have been so prolific in ability as it has proved, especially in view of its long and close exposure to a colonial policy far more oppressive than that which at last drove America into revolt, would be amazing if we did not remember that the first emigrants were, as was the case in this country, for the most part adventurous and energetic spirits, who looked on Ireland as a good field to seek a fortune in, and did not mind fighting in order to get it. We might fill several pages with the curious and interesting facts which could be extracted even from the work before us, if read with this line of enquiry in view. We must content ourselves with a very few, and shall confine ourselves to the contributions of Protestant Ireland to the civil and military service of Great Britain since 1700, which will be seen to be sufficiently remarkable.

Sir Eyre Coote, whom Macaulay justly styles "one of the most distinguished soldiers of his time," "conspicuous among the founders of the British Empire in India," who with the minority advised Clive to fight in the famous council of war which preceded the battle of Plassey, who beat the French at Wandiwash, and gave the Carnatic to England, was the son of a Limerick gentleman. Sir Philip Francis, almost certainly the author of Junius's letters, whom Macaulay styles "the ablest member of the Council" when Warren Hastings was governor-general, was the son of a Dublin minister. Sir William Jumper, who was Sir George Rooke's best officer in the reduction of Gibraltar, was a Cork man. Blakeney, who made the splendid but unsuccessful defence of Minorca against Richelieu, and whom Admiral Byng was shot for not relieving, was also a native of Limerick. Eyre Massey, one of Wolfe's ablest lieutenants, was also an Irishman. So was Admiral Graves, who received the thanks of Parliament as Nelson's second in command at Copenhagen. Sir George Macartney, who shared with Clive and Hastings and Coote, and on not unequal terms, the glory of founding the Indian Empire, and refused the governor-generalship in 1785, was born in the County Antrim. The soldier and the statesman who, after Pitt's death and the innumerable reverses by land which preceded the Peninsular Campaigns, brought the war with France to a happy issue, and gave England the wonderful prestige with which she appeared at the Congress of Vienna, Wellington and Castlereagh, were both Irishmen. Wellington's ancestors on both his mother's and his father's side had been settled in Ireland for over three hundred years. Castlereagh, whose support it was that enabled Wellington to conquer, was the son of a County Down gentleman. Wellington's brother, the Marquis Wellesley—both of them making their way up from poverty and obscurity—was one of the ablest governor-generals India has ever had, and played for forty years a conspicuous, and, indeed, we may say an illustrious, part in English politics. Of Edmund Burke we do not need to speak, nor of Sheridan; but it is not generally known that George Canning was the son and grandson of an Irish gentleman, his father having settled in London, where George was born, owing to a family quarrel. General Rawdon Chesney, the explorer of the Euphrates Valley, was an Irishman of the County Down, where his hardly less distinguished son, the late Colonel Chesney, the well-known writer on military subjects, was also born. Sir Henry Lawrence, who defended Lucknow during the Sepoy War, was an Irishman, and the son of an Irish colonel; and General Nicholson, who fell at Delhi, who first stemmed the tide of insurrection pending the arrival of the reinforcements from England, and whose death was pronounced at the time "a national misfortune," was the son of a Dublin doctor.

General Pakenham, who commanded at New Orleans and fell there, was an Irishman; General De Lacy Evans, who rose from a sick-bed to bear the brunt of the attack at Inkerman, after having been wounded

* 'Compendium of Irish Biography, comprising Sketches of Distinguished Irishmen, and of Eminent Persons connected with Ireland by Office or by their Writings. By Alfred Webb.' Dublin: M. H. Gill & Son; New York: Catholic Publication Society Co. 1878.

at New Orleans and serving on Wellington's staff at Waterloo, and who sat thirty years in the House of Commons, was a Limerick man also. Sir Garnet Wolseley, the rising general of the British service, who has just been appointed Governor of Cyprus, is also an Irishman, belonging to a family long settled in Wexford. Of seven distinguished Indian officers selected by Mr. Kaye for one of his volumes of biography, three—Pottinger, Lawrence, and Nicholson—were Irishmen, one Scotch, and only three English. Captain Crozier, the explorer of Sir John Franklin's expedition, was an Irishman also; and so was the other distinguished explorer, Sir Robert McClure. Lord Mayo, who was Governor-General of India for two years prior to his assassination in 1872, and filled the place in a way which excited expectations such as we think none of his predecessors called out, was an Irishman of the old Anglo-Irish family of Bourke. Lord Dufferin, who has just left the governor-generalship of Canada, and has given proofs both there and as British Commissioner in the reorganization of Syria in 1860, of high administrative ability, is an Irishman and Sheridan's great-grandson.

The English law-lists might be searched, though Mr. Webb has not done it, with results somewhat similar. It is not many years since five of the twelve English judges were men of Irish birth, and the present Lord Chancellor, Lord Cairns, who, as he is still living, does not come within the scope of Mr. Webb's book, is a native of Belfast, and universally acknowledged to be one of the two or three ablest men who have filled his position, and an orator of rare power, though of the severer sort.

The organizer of the Irish Constabulary, the best body of gendarmerie in existence, and the first really efficient police force which had been seen in Great Britain—"just the kind of man," Sir Charles Napier said, "needed to govern India"—Mr. Drummond, was an Irishman; so, let us add, was Sir Richard Mayne—whose name Mr. Webb has overlooked—who organized the London metropolitan police, which has since furnished the model of city police all over the Anglo-Saxon world. Mr. Webb omits the name of Captain Crofton, as he is still living, the author of the Irish system of prison discipline, which has been so successful and is so celebrated.

Mr. Webb is, so far as we have been able to test him, accurate and painstaking, and has accumulated a good deal of out-of-the-way information about his characters, and, considering the volcanic nature of the soil he traverses, observes a commendable impartiality. His work is dedicated to his father, the late Richard D. Webb, whose merits might well have entitled him to a place in the Compendium itself.

The Dead Towns of Georgia. By Charles C. Jones, jr. [Collections of the Georgia Historical Society, Vol. IV.] (Savannah. 1878.)—The mistaken judgment of settlers or speculators; the diseases attendant upon the opening up of a new country; changes in the industry of the colony; the conclusion of peace, and the devastations of war, are the principal causes of the decline and more or less complete disappearance of the towns commemorated in this handsome volume. Old Ebenezer, settled by Lutheran and Moravian Salzburgers, was speedily abandoned, because of its unhealthy and unfertile situation. The New began to prosper in the cultivation of silk—silk and wine being the products on which the Trustees of Georgia had set their hearts, and which they favored to the discouragement of other growths; but cotton proved king here in the long run, and just before the Revolution silk had withdrawn from the unequal competition. The Salzburgers raised rice also, and laughed when told that it could be cultivated only by negroes, "seeing that several People of us have had, in last Harvest [1738], a greater Crop of Rice than they wanted for their own Consumption." They even desired that negroes be kept away from the settlement. In 1775 they had so far succumbed to the custom of the land that in an inventory of their property occurs the item: "(5). Belonging to the Church is a Negro Boy at Mr. John Flörls', and a Negro Girl at Mr. David Steiner's." The services in this church, by the way, were conducted in German down to 1824. The British occupied the town during the Revolution, and made a military thoroughfare of it. The Salzburgers, under a Tory pastor, were divided in sentiment, and the material and moral losses were never repaired. In 1855 there was but one inhabited house in a place which had once contained a library of "Books wrote in the Caldaic, Hebrew, Arabec, Siriac, Coptic, Malabar, Greek, Latin, French, German, Dutch, and Spanish, besides the English, viz.: in thirteen languages."

Though Oglethorpe gave his immediate oversight to the two Ebenezer settlements, he was the founder of Frederica, on St. Simon's Island, having in view the protection of the southern part of the colony. The chapter which relates to this settlement is therefore the most interesting in the book, since Oglethorpe figures in it constantly, and his activity, foresight, courage, and high tone appear at every stage in the progress of the town until his final departure. Frederica answered its purpose as a healthful abode and a bulwark against Spanish encroachments, but after the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle it began to languish; its fortifications fell away, and with them its colonial importance. It suffered from privateers and land-raiders during the Revolution and in the war of 1814, and Mrs. Kemble, whose lines were cast for a time on the beautiful island, records its ruin in a work which has more than an antiquarian interest. The civil war assuredly did nothing to revive it.

Sunbury was another rival of Savannah up to the time of the Revolution, and it had in its neighborhood a Massachusetts Puritan element which might have maintained its pretensions had peace prevailed. But this same element made the region prominent by early sympathy with the cause of the colonies, and while Sunbury thus furnished two signers to the Declaration of Independence, it invited and received early attention from the British, whose destructiveness was sufficient to blight for ever the prospects of the town. It could still be famous for a time on account of its academy, the most noted in Southern Georgia, but its downward career was hastened by the importation of bermuda grass, which made the place unhealthy and now reigns supreme on the site.

These three are chief among the dead towns. A dozen more are dismissed at less length. Hardwick aimed to be the capital, and ceased to be even a county seat. Petersburg had tobacco for its *raison d'être*, and the rise of cotton left it no excuse for being.

From every point of view this work is deserving of praise, and is specially remarkable for two things: First, the author, though having to refer more than once to the disastrous operations of Federal troops in the civil war, never disfigures the text (of which the literary excellence is noticeable) with intemperate reproaches of the North or glorification of the "lost cause." In the next place, the Georgia Historical Society consents to print as an appendix the valuable "Itinerant Observations in America," reprinted from the *London Magazine*, 1745–6, in which are to be found some very plain and feeling exposures of the evils of slavery. Thus, the writer says of the negro quarters that "they are, indeed, true Pictures of Slavery, which begets Indolence and Nastiness"; and of the slave-marts, that "'t is really shocking" to see the buyers handle the negroes "as the Butchers do Beasts in Smithfield, to see if they are Proof in Cod, Flank, and Shoulders," and he adds that he has seen the women who have plantations "mighty busy" in the same examination. There are stronger expressions of abhorrence than these, and a formal apostrophe to "Slavery, thou worst and greatest of Evils!"

We have not been able to decide whether the events narrated by Mr. Jones on pp. 199 and 203 are really identical. Both happened on the same date, but the details of names and circumstances are quite different.

China: A History of the Laws, Manners, and Customs of the People. By John Henry Gray, Archdeacon of Hong-Kong. Edited by William Gow Gregor. 2 volumes. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1878.)—Our knowledge of the manners and customs of the Chinese is derived from a variety of sources—the researches of students in Chinese literature; the studies of such sinologues living in China as Williams, Wade, Medhurst; the local experience of merchant and missionary authors; the impressions of travellers. Of all these sources only the first two have, as a rule, any great value, the productions of the others being only too often the result of superficial observation, and biassed by prejudice of race or creed. The work before us is an exception to the rule given above; although written by a missionary, it is evidently the production of one who is exceptionally well acquainted with the peoples and dialects of Southern China, and who has travelled more or less extensively in the northern part of the Empire. It is not a general treatise on China, and it will not by any means hold, as a description of the sociology of the Middle Kingdom, the rank that Richthofen's great work occupies in relation to its physical geography. But it is a remarkably full description of the manners and customs of the people, and, to the extent of the author's researches, it is also comparative as regards the customs in different parts of the Empire, and their resemblances to similar ones in other ancient and modern countries. Illustrations on nearly all points, drawn in profusion from the author's personal experience, show that he has made the subject a long and earnest study, and give to the book a singularly attractive character. Among the most interesting chapters are those on "Marriage," "Servants and Slaves," "Benevolent Institutions and Beggars," and on "Aboriginal Tribes." The chapter on "Physical Features" would have been better omitted, and what little information

it contains brought in elsewhere. The only other defect is the orthography of the proper names, which the author writes according to their sound in a southern dialect instead of using that of Peking. The "Chinese Question" is gradually assuming so much importance that some readable book is very much wanted in which the characteristics of this remarkable people are depicted without prejudice; this want seems to be fully satisfied in these two volumes by Archdeacon Gray. The work is profusely illustrated and is published in a liberal and artistic manner.

Insanity in Ancient and Modern Life, with Chapters on its Prevention. By Daniel Hack Tuke, M.D., Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, London. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1878. 12mo, pp. 226.)—Dr. Tuke divides his book into three parts. In the first, on the prevalence of the causes of insanity among the nations of antiquity, he examines various evidences regarding the relative extent of the causes of insanity in antiquity and modern civilization, noting the habits of life of prehistoric times and among the Jews, Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans, and distinguishing between the earlier and later stages of social growth where it is possible to do so. He quotes many significant passages from ancient authors, and his conclusion is that probably there was no great development of the causes of insanity among primitive races, nor yet in the earlier life of the four important nations referred to, but much greater in their later, more civilized society, especially in Rome; but that the accumulation of the insane was less than in modern England, partly because there was less ruinous drinking, but chiefly because in ancient times the insane were neglected or destroyed, and "fewer half-starved and diseased children *reared*," while modern benevolence favors the accumulation of insane persons, and in many cases permits the transmission of tendencies to insanity. In part second, the author considers insanity in relation to modern life in the working and higher classes, and examines statistics relating to the increase of insanity. Among the poor, insanity is caused largely by beer and gin, bad and insufficient food, overwork, anxiety, hopelessness, and domestic distress; while the higher classes are in danger from stress of business, excessive competition, failures, reckless living, and habits of intoxication. There has been an enormous increase of recognized insanity in Great Britain in the last fifty years, but most of this is accounted for by the increasing thoroughness of provisions for segregating and registering insane persons. There is, however, reason to fear some real increase in the number of new cases, an actual growth of the evil. In part third, self-prevention of insanity is considered. Various signs of danger are described, and there are two excellent chapters on the importance of cheerfulness, sufficient mental rest, diet, etc. Among the chief dangers to be avoided are high-pressure school education, with its senseless accumulation of studies, speed in living, and brooding over mystical notions and insoluble questions connected with religion. Dr. Tuke regards the use of intoxicating liquors as the cause of a vast amount of physical and mental degeneracy. The suggestions regarding self-control, and a wise ordering and guidance of one's own life, are admirable. There are some valuable statistical tables at the end.

Ferns in their Homes and Ours. By John Robinson. (Salem, Mass.: S. E. Cassino.)—We have here a greatly-needed addition to our fern-literature. Other works may give descriptions of species and discussions of disputed points in classification or nomenclature, but this is a charmingly-written little work of about one hundred and eighty pages, which is destined to tell us what ferns really are, how they grow, where they are found, what is the true "secret of fern-seed," and how best to cultivate ferns either in proper fern-houses, or in Ward-cases, or on artificial rock-work. All this, and much more besides, Mr. Robinson has clearly explained, and withal so pleasantly that his book has the charm of a new story-book, while it also contains a great deal of most valuable instruction. Chapter vi., on ferneries out of doors, contains an interesting account of the way in which a rock-work was constructed and stocked with ferns, mosses, and a few perennial flowers. We have been very successful with a rock-work fernery built mainly of serpentine, and would suggest that rocks containing lime or magnesia are in general better for this purpose than granite, sandstone, or basalt. In planting the more delicate varieties, it is well to select crevices or pockets under projecting rocks, so that the roots may be protected from both drought and excessive moisture. The illustrations in the work are from Mr. Emerton's pencil, and add not a little to its interest.

Another new fern-book is Mr. John Williamson's 'Ferns of Kentucky' (Louisville: J. P. Morton & Co.) This consists of some fifty-nine etchings by Mr. Williamson, and one hundred and fifty-four pages of text. The etchings are designed to illustrate all the genera and species of ferns found in Kentucky; and although here and there not quite so clear as one could wish, on the whole they are very fair representations. Every plant figured has also a brief description; and some interesting particulars of its habit, the localities where it is found, or the best mode of cultivation, are added. There are a few pages of introduction, giving some account of the structure, fertilization, classification, etc., of ferns; and as the book may easily be carried in the pocket, it will be of considerable use to fern-lovers not only in Kentucky but in the greater part of the Northern States.

In the Wilderness. By Charles Dudley Warner. (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1878. Pp. 176.)—These half-dozen bright sketches from Adirondack suggestions, in Mr. Warner's usual manner, make a pleasant little book for summer afternoons. Some of them are rather slight and tenuous; often the style is all—a style of indolent ease, of deliberate grace and humor. "How Spring came in New England" has more vigor; it echoes the mannerisms of Victor Hugo's ''93.' But emigration to New England will not be promoted by it. This is, perhaps, as good as any other half-page:

"I knew that catamount well. One night, when we lay in the bogs of the South Beaver Meadow, under a canopy of mosquitoes, the serene midnight was parted by a wild and human-like cry from a neighboring mountain.

"'That's a cat,' said the guide.

"I felt in a moment that it was the voice of 'modern cultchah.'

"'Modern culture,' says Mr. Joseph Cook, in a most impressive period—'modern culture is a child crying in the wilderness, and with no voice but a cry.'

"That describes the catamount exactly. The next day, when we ascended the mountain, we came upon the traces of this brute—a spot where he had stood and cried in the night; and I confess that my hair rose with the consciousness of his recent presence, as it is said to do when a spirit passes by."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Annual Register for 1877	(Pott, Young & Co.)	
Bennett (G. L.), First Latin Writer	" "	
Durant (Dr. G.), Horseback Riding	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin)	$1 25
Fawcett (Prof. H.), Free-Trade and Protection	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 75
Grenfell (E. F.), German Exercises, Part 2	(Pott, Young & Co.)	
Johnson (R. W.), Play-Day Poems	(Henry Holt & Co.)	1 00
Lea (H. C.), Superstition and Force, 3d ed	(Henry C. Lea)	
New Encyclopædia of Chemistry, Parts 31-25, swd	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	50
Randolph (Rev. W.), Analytical Notes on Obadiah and Habakuk	(Pott, Young & Co.)	2 75
Rollins (Mrs. A. W.), The Ring of Amethyst: Poetry	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 25
Sauveur (L.), Talks with Cæsar De Bello Gallico	(Henry Holt & Co.)	1 50
Saxe Holm's Stories, 2d Series	(Chas. Scribner's Sons)	1 50
Thompson (M.), The Witchery of Archery	" "	1 50
Tolstoy (Count L.), The Cossacks: a Tale	" "	1 25
Williamson (J.), Ferns of Kentucky	(J. P. Morton & Co.)	2 00
Wright (C. R. A.), Metals and their Chief Industrial Applications	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 25

WILL BE READY JULY 27.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 1, 1878.

The Week.

THE Government is making praiseworthy efforts to circulate the Fathers' Dollar, and has been soliciting the banks to draw some of it, which the banks are doing. But it will not be a success until there is enough of it afloat to do the bulk of the business of the country with—that is, pay debts and settle balances. Mr. Halstead intimates, in reply to some recent remarks of ours, that he will not go to Europe, as we suggested, and wait for the silver trouble "to blow over," and declares that the sluggishness of the Fathers' Dollar is due to the fact that there is no free coinage—that is, that people cannot bring in their silver and have as much coined as they please; in other words, that no arrangement was made for letting us down at once on a single standard. He said at one time that the great value of the dollar lay in the fact that its issue would stop the greenback agitation; but this agitation has never been so lively as since it was issued. He also said that the fall in the price of silver bullion was caused by our demonetizing it, although we had none of it in circulation; it has, however, fallen heavily since remonetization accompanied by circulation. In fact, it seems as if he must be getting near the bottom of his bag of peculiar arguments and opinions about silver, and as if he would have to go to Europe whether he pleases or no, like the beaver which, in defiance of the laws of his nature, climbed a tree to escape from a dog, on the plea of overwhelming necessity.

The Potter investigation seems to be over as far as Secretary Sherman is concerned, and he certainly has been convicted of nothing wrong in Louisiana. But we regret to say that the result is not what one could desire with regard to a gentleman occupying his position. He has again gone before the Committee, and now denies plumply ever having written the Anderson letter; but he did not venture to deny it until he had heard all the evidence about it and was satisfied it could not be produced; and a Republican Congressman, Sypher, swears he once saw it. The denial is of course better late than never, but it would have been more welcome in the beginning. He swears positively that he never met privately with any member or members of the Returning Board. The most important item in his evidence is a letter he wrote to Mr. Hayes from New Orleans in November, 1876, in which he says the evidence of intimidation in the bulldozed parishes "was so well made out on paper that no man can doubt as to the just exclusion of their vote." The phrase "on paper" is important here, as the evidence was actually made up of protests filed mainly by the unspeakable rascals who have been testifying on the Democratic side for some weeks back before the Committee, and who were no better then than they are now, and supported by the affidavits of negro witnesses supplied by the Republican State Committee, and summoned and paid by Pitkin, the United States Marshal, in the absence of any counter testimony, he (Pitkin) having been forbidden, he says, by the Attorney-General to summon any witnesses on the Democratic side. It is worthy of note, too, that every one of these witnesses who has since been examined has recanted and sworn that his deposition was not read over to him.

We do not affirm that they swore falsely the first time, or that there was not probably a good deal of intimidation, but it makes one blush to hear an American prominent enough to be a Cabinet minister talking of the award of the Presidency through such performances as those at which Mr. Sherman assisted, and through which he himself was seeking an office, as a judicial proceeding. One is therefore not surprised to find that, after "observing them carefully," he "formed a high opinion of Governor Wells and General Anderson," and "thought them thoroughly honest and conscientious," knowing, as he must have known, that ten years before Wells had been removed from the governorship of the State as a scoundrel by General Sheridan, and that the private character of both of them was thoroughly bad in the estimation of respectable men of all parties among whom they lived, and that a Congressional committee had found them guilty of making improper returns on a previous occasion. The reply of Mr. Hayes to this epistle is very creditable, but it is the only thing in Mr. Sherman's testimony that is creditable. The passage in which he (the President) says, "Let Mr. Tilden have the place by violence, intimidation, and fraud, rather than undertake to prevent it by means which will not bear the strictest scrutiny," would, however, have been read with much amusement by the two Chandlers. This is what statesmen of that school call "Sunday-school politics."

The Potter sub-committee at New Orleans has taken the testimony of Major E. A. Burke on the subject of the negotiations which resulted in the recognition of Hampton and Nicholls by Mr. Hayes. It consists mainly of telegrams to and from Burke, explained by his narrative of the circumstances. His story brings out very strongly the fact, which we suppose no sensible person has ever doubted, that there was an understanding on the subject of the attitude of the new Administration towards Hampton and Nicholls before the count was finished. What is new in it is the evidence of a distinct bargain on the subject between representatives of Mr. Hayes, acting under his authority, on one side, and Mr. Burke on the other. It appears that Burke, feeling that no reliance could be placed in the Democratic party as a whole, they being interested solely in the Presidential question, went to work in February, 1877, to organize the filibusters into a working party for the purpose of obstructing the count, and in this way to force guarantees for the possession of Louisiana and South Carolina out of the new Administration. By encouraging them to resist the count he swelled their number from about forty to one hundred and sixteen, or enough to stop the count. This frightened the Republican leaders, and Mr. Sherman sent for Burke. The result of the negotiations which followed appears in a telegram from Messrs. Burke, Ellis, and Levy, representing the State of Louisiana, to Nicholls, dated March 1, 1877, from which the following is an extract: "We have the guarantees of Sherman, Dennison, Matthews, and Foster representing the views of Governor Hayes." . . . "Copies exchanged, and satisfactory written assurances from Hayes that he is correctly represented by his friends here, Foster and Matthews, from whom we have written guarantees."

Such was the result of the "Wormley Hotel Conference," of which so much has been said; and there could not be clearer evidence of a bargain with regard to the disposition of the South Carolina and Louisiana cases. As soon as the guarantees were exchanged the filibustering was put a stop to and the count proceeded. As to the moral complexion of the proceeding there can be hardly room for much difference of opinion. The Presidential title had been settled by the action of the Electoral Commission, the two Houses having bound themselves to abide by its decision. The filibusters were therefore wholly without excuse in their attempt to stop the count. At the same time the misgovernment of Louisiana and South Carolina had reached a point at which, unless something was done, anarchy was sure to ensue. Under such circumstances the "bargain" was simply an engagement on the one side not to interfere further with the settlement by Congress of the Presidential dispute in the manner which had already been virtually agreed to; and on the other, in consideration of this, a promise that the United States troops should not be longer used to bolster up

the rotten Republican "machines" in Louisiana and South Carolina, after their continuance had been proved to be fraught with danger to the public peace, and their permanent existence shown to be impossible. If any "bargain" in politics is allowable, certainly this one was; but of course it is a capital handle now for the Republican malcontents who hate the Administration, and, like Mr. Conkling, look with scorn and loathing upon all understandings with political enemies.

Mr. Shellabarger has given the Potter Committee, which is now sitting in this city, a letter from Henry R. Smith, postmaster at Canton, Mississippi, referring to the Eliza Pinkston outrage. It is dated July 4, and states that the writer has had a long interview with Eliza and her present husband, Pritchard, in relation to the affidavit recently published recanting her testimony given before the Visiting Statesmen. They told him that on June 22 they went to Canton at the request of W. T. Mosby, on whose place they live; that on reaching Canton they were taken to the office of a Mr. Hoffman, where they met a Mr. Garrett, Justice of the Peace, and Hon. Mr. Zacharie, of New Orleans. Mr. Zacharie then proceeded to convince Eliza that it was on her shoulders that the crime of having put Hayes into the White House rested, yet that it was to Democrats she owed her daily bread, and that the Democrats were her friends if she did what she ought. Having thus "conciliated" her, he asked who killed her husband, on which she reiterated her original story and said the Democrats had killed him. Mr. Zacharie offered her money and talked to her for some time, and then told her he had written down what she said, and she swore to it without knowing what he had written. Mr. Smith read the affidavit in the *Herald* to Eliza, who at once declared that she had made no such statements to Mr. Zacharie; in this she was corroborated by her husband. This letter is apparently regarded by the Republicans as a vindication of Eliza's original story.

The "nullification" movement in South Carolina has made no further progress. The facts with regard to the killing of Ladd by the party of revenue officers, as stated by those who support the decision of Judge Kershaw, are that the officers made an attack on his house without warrant, expecting to find the outlaw Redmond concealed in it; that Ladd "snapped a cap" at them, and that he, being thus "disarmed," was immediately murdered in cold blood. As this may be supposed to be the best face that can be put upon the transaction, it must be said that when a man "disarms" himself by "snapping a cap" at an approaching officer, the latter, being presumably uninformed as to whether the gun or rifle is loaded or not, is allowed under the common law and the Constitution considerable liberty of action. The statute, too, on the subject of a transfer to the United States courts seems very plain. It provides (R. S. U. S., Sec. 643) that in case of the commencement of any civil or criminal proceeding in a State court against any revenue officer or person acting by authority of such officer, on account of any act done "under color of his office" or of any revenue law, the proceeding may be removed to the United States Circuit Court upon the petition of the defendant, and the case there be proceeded with like a cause originally commenced in that court. There can certainly be no doubt as to the intention of this act. The whole object of it is to prevent State courts from trying cases of this kind where the defence is the official character of the act that is made the foundation of the proceeding. Judge Kershaw refuses to transfer the case, on the ground that the offence against the revenue laws for which the officers were trying to make an arrest was simply a misdemeanor that did not justify killing the party under any circumstances, and, therefore, the killing could not have been done under color of office. But this, as we understand it, is the very question at issue; and it is very clear that, if Judge Kershaw is right, the statute is useless, for it amounts to saying that in all cases the question whether the act was done under color of office, or whether color of office is a mere pretence, may be tried in a State court first, and that the United States court cannot enquire into the question which the statute directs it to enquire into until the State court has decided that it may.

Secretary Schurz's decision that the unsold lands granted to the Pacific Railroad Companies by the acts of 1862 and 1864 are open to pre-emption by actual settlers at $1 25 per acre, to be paid to the companies, has led to discussions in the press involving the nature and scope of the land-grant mortgages executed by them. The language of the law is that the lands not "sold or otherwise disposed of" after the expiration of three years shall thus be open to pre-emption. The *Financial Chronicle* contends that the mortgages are a "disposition" of all of them within the meaning of the act, and must be satisfied before any other rights can intervene. There is some ambiguity here, undoubtedly, and the case is therefore one where contemporary history may be invoked to aid in the interpretation. Investigation will show that Congress intended to put some limitation upon the use and disposal of the lands as an offset to the money subsidy granted to the companies, since other companies embraced in the Pacific Railway legislation, to which no money subsidy was given, were not restricted by the pre-emption clause in the disposal of their lands. The presumption thus becomes strong that Congress intended that after a certain period named in the act these particular lands, or the unsold portion, should fall within the purview of the public-land system, except that the money received for them should be paid to the companies. It can hardly be doubted that Congress had the power to annex this condition to the grant, and if it had the power the condition was as much a part of the mortgages as though it had been written in them. The question, then, is whether the rights of settlers under the pre-emption laws can be defeated by a mortgage drawn with such a clause. Mr. Schurz holds that they cannot. Probably some litigation will grow out of the Secretary's ruling, and in fact the land commissioner of the Union Pacific has given warning to that effect; but the chances of a favorable decision will be very much on the side of the settlers, especially if any considerable bodies avail themselves of the opportunity now thrown open to them. A number of filings have been already made.

The reception of Kearney, the California agitator, in Boston by a crowd of workingmen, the careful reports of his speeches by the press, and the editorial comments on him by all the leading papers, form altogether a spectacle that must delight Thomas Carlyle, if he still pays attention to contemporary politics, for Kearney is probably the lowest type of demagogue that has yet appeared in history. All his predecessors of which there is any record have laid claim to some of the qualities which are supposed to distinguish the civilized man from the savage, but Kearney makes no pretence to anything which the reading, thinking, and remembering part of the human race has hitherto considered respectable. He simply does what the naked Bushman does—curses, calls names, and threatens death. Nevertheless, he has in one of the foremost communities of the modern world a considerable following, and is an object of interest, and even of deference, to most of our politicians. He is worth study because he is a kind of animal for which neither American politics nor manners have made as yet the slightest preparation, and because he is the first to assert a claim which has been long in the air—viz., the claim not simply of the poor man to rule the State, but of the brutal, ignorant, blaspheming ruffian to have his way with the frugal, industrious, prudent, and religious; and assuredly we have not seen the last of his kind. Let us add—and without any wish to raise a question of party politics—that the moral and religious people of the North, in using their influence and the force of the Federal authority to procure and maintain for several years the government of great civilized communities at the South by the grossly ignorant portion of the population, and to discredit the intelligent portion for political purposes, have been sowing the seed from

which the Kearneys spring. If Kearney makes the well-meaning believers in nose-counting as an efficient means of administering human affairs a little more thoughtful and cautious, he may yet prove a useful blackguard.

In London there was during the week a decline of ⅛ per cent. in British consols, the result of a firmer money market, and of the apprehension that the discount rate would further advance. The drain of gold from London to the Continent continues, and sterling exchange here is slowly but surely drifting to the point that will also bring gold to New York. As it is a critical time with the harvests in many parts of the country, the weather reports have been scanned with unusual attention by all classes. In the Northwestern States these reports have been made tributary to a mammoth speculation projected by capitalists having their headquarters in New York, Milwaukee, and Chicago, and having as a field of operations the markets for wheat and railroad stocks. The fact appears to be that the recent bad weather has somewhat damaged the crops in Minnesota, but that they will be much, if at all, less in bulk than last year is not believed. The rush for United States bonds continues, and another $5,000,000 of 4 per cents. has been sold since we last wrote, and another $5,000,000 of 5-20s called in. On Tuesday, the 30th, the first lot of 5-20s ($5,000,000) called in for redemption became due; within the next ninety days $40,000,000 of 5-20s will cease to bear interest. Silver was steady during the week at 52⅝*d.* to 52¾*d.* per ounce in London. At the close the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar was $0.8894. The gold value of the U. S. legal-tender note for one dollar at the close was $0.9950.

The Treaty of Berlin has been ratified by all the Powers except Turkey, whose ratification is, however, of little consequence. The Austrian troops will, by the time this is in the hands of our readers, have entered Bosnia and Herzegovina without conditions, all efforts of the Turks to procure a preliminary acknowledgment of the Sultan's title, or a limitation of the period of occupation, or a reservation of the property rights of the mosques, having failed. Everything has, however, been done to make it easy for the Turks to withdraw gracefully and avoid any armed collision; but General Philippovitch, who is to command the occupying force, intimates in his proclamation that he will make it unpleasant for any one who opposes him. By the end of the summer, therefore, these two fine provinces will have been restored to civilization, and over a million of people will sleep in security, which neither they nor their fathers for many generations have known. It was to France after all that Greece owed all that the Conference did for her. England would have passed her by with a vague recommendation to the Turks in the protocol only to deal handsomely with her; but Messrs. Waddington and Corti insisted on its being embodied in the Treaty, accompanied with an offer of mediation which Turkey, if need be, will have to accept, and by a suggestion, which is really a command, fixing the minimum of Turkish concessions, viz., that the new frontier be a line following the valley of the Salambria from Phteri on the Gulf of Salonica, and we presume including Larissa, and then westerly to the mouth of the Kalamas opposite Corfu, or altogether about half of Thessaly and Epirus, and carrying with it the Gulf of Volo.

In Asia, Batum is to be a Russian free port; but it seems likely that Russia will have to take it by force from the Lazis, the present Mussulman inhabitants, whose character appears to be about as good as that of the Circassians, but who bitterly hate Russia, and over whose unhappy fate the English Conservatives have been ready to weep. The hollow character of this sympathy was amusingly exhibited at the Conference, when Lord Salisbury, who was speaking eloquently in their behalf, was suddenly asked by Prince Bismarck what was the name of this remarkable people, and had to look for it in his notes. The Prince seemed to enjoy the joke, and subsequently referred to them sardonically as "cette intéressante tribu." Ardahan and Kars also go to Russia, but Turkey retains Erzerum and Trebizond and the caravan route to Persia—a highway about which Lord Beaconsfield has displayed great anxiety. The Armenians, one of the most valuable and industrious of Eastern races, have made a strong appeal for autonomy, but, being peaceable and patient, have excited but little attention from the Ministry or their friends.

The Treaty is now, however, an old story, and public interest has been concentrated on the British convention with Turkey, by which Turkey cedes the island of Cyprus to Great Britain, to be held in a sort of trust as long as Russia keeps Kars and Ardahan and Batum, but to be restored (the plenipotentiaries must have smiled when inserting this clause) should Russia relinquish these places. England is to pay Turkey about $550,000 per annum by way of rent for the island, and is to defend the Asiatic dominions of the Sultan against any future attack by force of arms, while the Sultan is to introduce necessary reforms to be agreed upon between the two Powers. The reasons for making the convention, as expounded by Lord Salisbury, are that the defeat and losses sustained by Turkey in the late war have destroyed the Ottoman prestige and prepared the Asiatic world for the dissolution of the empire; that in this state of things Russia would, unless measures were taken to prevent it, be looked on as the heir of Turkey, and there was consequently no alternative for England but to step in and proclaim that she was not going to suffer any further diminution of the Sultan's Asiatic dominions. As further expounded by Lord Beaconsfield at the dinner given him by the Carlton Club, the certainty that England will have to be met in case of another attack on Turkey will probably induce Russia to avoid or postpone it; and when she does make one, the English Ministry of the day will, instead of hesitating and delaying, have a plain duty before them. In the course of his speech he denounced Mr. Gladstone as "a sophistical rhetorician inebriated with the exuberance of his own verbosity and egotistical imagination." This is in return for Mr. Gladstone's characterization of the convention as "insane." It has already been discovered in the House of Commons, amid "much laughter," that Cyprus has no harbor or any accommodation as a naval station beyond "a good anchorage," and the cost of the occupation begins to interest the taxpayer.

The Liberal attack on the Government policy was formally opened by the Marquis of Hartington in the House of Commons on Monday in a long speech. Against the Treaty itself, as a reorganization of Turkey and an amelioration of the lot of the Christians, there is, of course, nothing to be said: it is in these respects all that the Liberals could desire; but Lord Hartington was able to make the telling point that this might have been accomplished without letting Turkey go to war—an argument which is a heavy blow against the judgment and capacity of the Cabinet. His objections to the convention with Turkey are substantially those which have been set forth in our own columns, and they are pretty sure to appear weightier as time goes on. But in the present debate the Government is, of course, sure of a majority, and a heavy one. The effect of the convention abroad is clearly bad. The impression produced in Germany seems to be that it opens up a new chapter in the Eastern Question, and that fresh trouble between England and Russia cannot be long deferred. In France even M. Gambetta, who was one of Lord Beaconsfield's admirers until the convention became known, is out of temper, and his paper joins with those of all other parties in pronouncing it a slight inflicted on France. The Republicans are, however, somewhat checked in their denunciations of it by the fact that the Monarchists are maintaining that if France were not a republic England would not have ventured on it.

THE GREENBACK PARTY AND ITS PLANS.

THE National Labor-Greenback party of New York have adopted a platform of principles declaring that all debts, public and private, should be paid with paper, and that the paper should not be paid with anything; that all acts of Congress providing for the payment or redemption of Government paper were passed, like the bill demonetizing the silver dollar, by stealth and fraud, and ought therefore to be immediately repealed; that the Government ought not to pay interest on its debts; that the national banks ought to be abolished; that the ownership of land ought to be limited; that the importation of articles and materials which can be produced in this country ought to be prohibited, and all other articles admitted free of duty (customs revenue being thus reduced to zero); that a graduated tax should be imposed upon incomes above $1,000; that all salaries of public officers above that amount should be reduced one-half; and that all persons guilty of "trafficking in votes" should be disfranchised. This declaration goes as far beyond the Ohio platform of the same party as the Indiana Republicans are usually in advance of those of Massachusetts when treating of currency and finance. The Ohio Greenback-Laborers proposed to limit the paper issues of the Government to the demands of business or the employment of labor, and suggested that gold, silver, and greenbacks be made the equals of each other in value. The New York branch propose no limits whatever, and have no toleration for metallic money of any kind. "Absolute money" is the only medium of exchange they admit into their bedlam.

A platform so wild and incomprehensible furnishes no material for criticism. Those who believe in it are obviously beyond the reach of any argument which can be put in the form of words. It is a pity they could not be collected together in some island and given free scope for the exercise of their fancy. It would be desirable that they should have a few Butlers, Ewings, and Voorheeses to prey upon them and to be the objects of their vengeance after their experiment had been fully tried. But, since there is no way of expelling those who are seeking to get your property away from you through the forms of law, they must be fought where they show themselves, and with the weapon of their choice, which, it is now evident, is to be the ballot and not the torch or the musket. The violent demonstration of last summer is not to be repeated this year or the next. The election of 1880 will not be upon the issue of law and order against lawlessness and disorder—the issue of Cæsarism against anarchy—as the faction who are pushing General Grant forward would have it. All the parties which enter into that contest will have a single eye to results to be achieved by outvoting their opponents, not by shooting them. What is wanted by the dangerous element of society is not a *mêlée* with barricades, but quiet and peaceable possession of the Government, with the right to manage the public treasury in their own way, and particularly the right to issue "absolute money" in any amount and for any purpose. Communists of this type cannot be held in check by military methods, and General Grant is one of the last persons of whom they would need to stand in any dread.

Whatever the differences of the Greenback-Laborers may be among themselves as to methods, they are united in one thing, and that is in an attempt to repeal the Resumption Act. The nearness of the time fixed for resumption, the decline of the gold premium to one-half of one per centum, and the continued course of the foreign trade favorable to the importation of gold have alarmed the whole soft-money fraternity, and set them groping for arguments for a resuspension of specie payments in the event that resumption is actually accomplished. Mr. Bland, of Missouri, in the current number of the *North American Review*, holds a joint discussion, or symposium, with Mr. H. V. Poor on financial questions—which we may characterize in passing as rancorous and puerile in the last degree on the part of both disputants. Mr. Bland points the way for an assault upon the Resumption Act after it goes into effect by arguing that, inasmuch as the legal-tender note bore upon its face no particular date for redemption, the Government was, therefore, not bound to redeem it at any particular time, and, since it is not bound to any particular time, it may change its determination to redeem as often as it chooses. It follows, of course, that the Government may redeem certain notes and not redeem others, and that it may redeem notes for A and not redeem for B. The omission of the Government to print upon its notes the date of payment was, in contemplation of public law and morals, a wrongful act, and one which, if interpreted at the time of issue as a claim of the right to redeem *at no time* (which is the equivalent of Mr. Bland's present claim), would have destroyed the Government credit utterly and paralyzed the military arm beyond remedy.

After resumption we may look for various devices on the part of Mr. Bland and his allies to bring about a new suspension. The difficulties of achieving this while the course of foreign trade continues as at present will be considerable, and it may be expected that a large body of persons who have been doubtful of the Government's ability to resume, and therefore either actively or tacitly opposed to resumption, will become the friends and supporters of a sound currency whenever the experiment of resumption is found to be successful. Moreover, the Greenback men do not understand the problem they are working at well enough to join in some one decisive step to accomplish their purposes. They are divided in their councils, one faction desiring to abolish the national banks, another to pay off the bonds in greenbacks, a third to strip the Treasury of its gold by redeeming the 5-20s, a fourth to repeal the limitation on the coinage of silver, a fifth to embark in extensive public works to be paid for with new greenbacks. The last project may be counted the most dangerous of all, since it appeals to the cupidity of politicians and speculators in every Congressional district, and falls in with the cry for employment for the laboring classes. It is here that a stand must be made by everybody opposed to the introduction of chaos in government and society. So long as river and harbor improvements, canals and railways, and public buildings are paid for by the proceeds of taxation the harm done cannot be great or irreparable. But if resort is had to the printing-press in one instance to defray the cost of such works, any scheme which the wildest Communist may desire to realize will be, perhaps not easy of accomplishment, but within the range of possibility.

To abolish the national-bank currency would be a grave blunder, but would not necessarily bring on a resuspension of specie payments. If the Greenback party, and their imitators and sycophants in the other parties, should succeed in accomplishing it, there would inevitably be a return to the old system of banking and bank paper under State laws, to which the South appears to be already strongly inclined, and which the East would undoubtedly favor as a shelter against a new régime of irredeemable currency. The Pacific States would adhere to the exclusive gold currency which they have maintained all along, and thus the first thing achieved by the abolition of the existing banks would be to deprive the noteholder of the security which now protects him against total loss by bank failures and partial and daily loss through the discount on uncurrent funds. Notwithstanding this and other arguments which ought to appeal to the wayfaring man as readily as to the scholar and the financier, there is a strong probability that the first movement of the Greenback men after resumption will be a measure to abolish the national banks. An amendment to repeal the existing tax on State-bank circulation should be pinned to it at once, and then the whole should be rejected.

There is not much vitality left in the project to pay off the bonds in greenbacks. This had its day in 1868. When Mr. Pendleton was voted down in the New York Convention, and when Senator Morton and the present Secretary of the Treasury were brought back into the traces at the Chicago Convention of that year, the danger in that quarter was virtually at an end. Since then the Southern States have resumed their seats in Congress, and their influence has been, on the whole, conservative as regards the public debt. Notwithstanding the Syracuse declaration, there is no evidence that any considerable body of voters are in favor of attacking the public credit in that wholesale fashion. The move-

ment to abolish the limitation upon the coinage of silver is likewise in a languishing state, and is not even alluded to by Mr. Bland in his latest contribution to fiscal science. The same remark may be made of the plan to disburse all the Treasury gold in the redemption of 5-20 bonds. The projects of the Greenback party are heterogeneous, and are perhaps well enough described by General Butler in his last interview with a *Sun* reporter as consisting of a great variety of discontent. A state of general uneasiness is much more likely to result in a breaking up of old parties than in the formation of a new one having a settled and definite line of financial or other policy. Nevertheless, it may be assumed that all who are ranging themselves on the side of the National Greenback-Labor organization are bent upon mischief to the currency, and that if they succeed in holding the balance of power in the country at large they will exercise a very demoralizing influence upon the other parties, and especially upon the Democratic party. If the ultimate effect should be to draw all the friends of a sound currency and social order into one column, and send all the adversaries into another, leaving only the office-holders and expectants of the old parties "making it hot under the old flag," there would be nothing to regret in such a dispensation.

ENGLAND AND RUSSIA.

THOSE of the philo-Turkish papers in England which are not committed to admiration of Lord Beaconsfield, and particularly the *Pall Mall Gazette*, appear to appreciate the grim humor of Prince Bismarck's late conversation with the Berlin correspondent of the London *Times*, in which he declared that England had achieved a "magnificent success" at the Congress. From his point of view everything has turned out admirably. Turkey has undergone a first partition without a general war. Russia has more than succeeded in fulfilling the promises of the Emperor in his Moscow speech, not only without detriment to her friendly relations with Germany but with several weighty reasons for being grateful to Germany. Austria, too, has, without any unpleasantness or any appearance of coercion, been pushed down among the Slavs and made to take more distinctly than ever the position of a Slav power. Finally, England has been induced to abandon her opposition to the destruction of Turkey in Europe, and saddle herself with enormous responsibilities with regard to Turkey in Asia, not only without vexation but with an immense feeling of triumph. The German Chancellor is not a sympathetic man, and his humor is of the cynical sort; so we may imagine the gusts of merriment which must have shaken his frame over his evening pipe and beer after seeing the author of 'Tancred' go home in high feather, with Cyprus and Asiatic Turkey on his hands.

A part of the popularity of Lord Beaconsfield at home, and a large part, is undoubtedly due to his assertion of English influence in Continental affairs, which has been steadily waning ever since 1815, and would have declined more than it has done but for Lord Palmerston's habit of audacious interference. But Lord Palmerston, though ready enough with his pen, and though he earned the reputation of a pugnacious Minister of Foreign Affairs, managed to abstain very steadily from anything more formidable than despatch-writing, and while having much to say, and saying it, in every Continental trouble during his term of office, very dexterously avoided committing England to any course of action or saddling her with any responsibility if her advice was not heeded. If the despots did not mind him he let them run. So that, on the whole, he at best only retarded slightly the growth of the opinion that England was irrevocably committed to a policy of isolation. The Crimean war did nothing, or next to nothing, to dispel this idea, for it was an admitted failure, and the supineness with which England looked on at the crushing of Denmark and of France converted it into an axiom of Continental diplomacy.

A powerful section of English society has, however, always writhed under it, and there are probably few Englishmen who in their secret hearts do not think an aggressive and meddlesome foreign policy a condition of English greatness. It was this feeling which made possible the creation of the Indian Empire, the attempt to subdue the American colonies, and the long struggle with Napoleon. It was quelled for forty years after 1815 by the frightful misery which the French war left behind it, the wonderful growth of manufactures and trade through the perfection of the steam-engine and the invention of the power-loom, and the quickening of the public conscience about the condition of the poor which assured peace brought with it. It has been slowly reviving under the influence of the prodigious accumulation of wealth produced by the successful industry of the last twenty-five years, and showed itself almost fatally in the fierce eagerness of the well-to-do classes to take the part of the South during the civil war in this country. Its growing strength, combined with the humiliation of the Geneva award, had much to do with leading to the overthrow of Gladstone, in spite of his extraordinary legislative contributions to the national well-being, which, perhaps, have had no equal in English history since the nine happy years of Pitt which preceded the French Revolution. It was held in check at the beginning of the troubles in Turkey solely by the Bulgarian massacres. But for these there can be little doubt that Turkey would not have been left to face Russia alone on the Danube, and Lord Beaconsfield would have been enabled to develop his Asiatic policy at an earlier period. It has now served to cover up the enormous blunders and inconsistencies of the negotiations with Russia, and actually to give an air of gains to the prodigious burdens which Great Britain has assumed. The joy caused by the news of the convention with Turkey was, however, largely the joy of escape from a great humiliation, and the English papers which most cordially approve of the Turkish protectorate and the acquisition of Cyprus as necessities, show plainly the great anxiety about the future which the Beaconsfield *coup* has caused, and which will probably be deepened every day by reflection. The British public is, in fact, much in the position of the gentleman who has come home overjoyed at the great bargain he has made in door-knockers at an auction, and is now sitting down to consider in what way he will get his money out of them; and the prospect is not likely to brighten under the influence of sober examination.

The situation is this. A very great change has been made in the conditions of the national existence by an old man, who has won all his celebrity as a rhetorician and romance writer, and has never conceived or carried out any policy whatever either in foreign or domestic affairs, or ever shown any capacity for legislation, and who, even if he has thought out his Asiatic plan to its remote results, will certainly not live to execute it. This plan has at one stroke converted the vague fear which for thirty years has haunted the British imagination that Russia and England might some day or other come into collision at the Himalayas—a very far-off contingency at worst—into actual consciousness of collision along the frontier of Asiatic Turkey. Russia will, in fact, now be able to attack England within a few miles of the Caucasus, and draw there on all her resources and on those of India, instead of seeking her across a thousand miles of desert. This is not all, however, or the worst. The arrangement is such that Turkey will be able to play off one Power against the other, and will probably be ready to throw herself into the arms of Russia before she has endured the protectorate for five years; and the only way in which England can check hostility of this kind will be by the seizure of the Asiatic Empire and the assumption of its direct government.

The only supposition which can make this prospect seem less serious is the supposition that the Russian agreement to treat her present Asiatic frontier as final will stand indefinitely. The probability is, however, that it will stand as long as the Treaty of 1856, by which Russia surrendered Bessarabia and agreed to keep no navy in the Black Sea. Many English writers seem to take comfort in the thought that something will happen to Russia, that she will be broken up or her expansion stopped by some internal convulsion, so that she will really make no more impression on Asiatic Turkey. But no one who reads her history or examines her society with an impartial eye expects anything of the kind. Her growth

has been marked, it is true, by much conquest, but the conquests have been possible because behind the armies there has been a huge social organization, animated by common hopes and ideas, and possessing a prodigious power of expansion. It is this which has been pressing on Turkey for a hundred years, and which is now swallowing up Central Asia, and which, in spite of all its reverses and defeats, fills the imagination of Europe with a wonder not unmixed with dread. It can be met and checked by another social organization, but it cannot be repressed by a contingent of Hindu troops and a corps of British civil servants. That it could ever impinge on a country as remote and as densely peopled as India was highly improbable, but that it will eat its way into Asiatic Turkey, and that disputing its progress at Kars and Trebizond will be a serious and hopeless task, there is no sort of doubt.

Lastly, England is undertaking this great increase of present expense, and incurring this risk of enormous expense in future, on a declining trade and revenue, and with the loss of her commercial supremacy staring her in the face. For all the contingencies of her own national existence her wealth and resources might fairly be pronounced inexhaustible; but the government and defence of an Asiatic empire such as that she now has on her hands is something which nothing but some such marvellous addition to her powers as was made in the beginning of the present century by steam, can render prudent. That such an addition will be made no one, in these days of invention and discovery, will confidently deny; but the chances are against it. He would not be a bold prophet who should say that fifty years hence the historian will point to the convention with Turkey as the beginning of a process of exhaustion, in which the real sources of English greatness had been sacrificed in a vain attempt to realize the gaudy dreams of a novel-writer, who had climbed into power as a rhetorician through the intellectual degeneracy of a party which had ceased to have anything behind it but wealth.

MR. PARKMAN AND HIS CANADIAN CRITICS.

MR. PARKMAN'S more recent books have excited warm protest from a certain class of French Canadians, such ardent lovers of their country and their Church that they can bear nothing reflecting upon either. These books are a surprise to them, as their own writers have eliminated everything that might touch the sensibilities of Canadian patriotism or Canadian Catholicity. Thus an ideal picture has been created, and it is unpleasant to discover that its coloring is not always true. The *Revue Canadienne* first gave expression to the feeling which this discovery awakened in an article on the 'Old Régime in Canada,' written by an eminent and accomplished churchman, who does not question the facts of the book, but, like *Hamlet*, "thinks it not honesty that they should be so set down." He complains that "the author examines and judges everything from a point of view purely natural and human. The principles which form one of the essential elements of our history belong to an order of things which he does not admit. As to the reproach of superstition which he makes against us, we grant it readily; but it would be easy to prove that the intellectual level of Canada was not inferior to that of New England." In evidence of this he says: "Nothing can be more poor and scanty than the annals of New England compared with ours. Our ancestors took account of their social existence, observed events, and recorded them in writings of which nobody contests the value." Here is a double mistake. The materials of New England history are far more copious than those of Canadian history, and they nearly all proceed from the pens of New England writers, while the annals of the French colony, at least during the first century of its existence, were the almost exclusive work, not of "our ancestors," who wrote scarcely anything, but of priests and government officials sent from Old France. In further support of his position the critic says: "Mr. Parkman himself observes that the Jesuit College of Quebec was founded three years before that of Harvard." This is true; but Massachusetts was twenty-two years younger than Canada, and Harvard was founded and maintained by the New-Englanders themselves, while the Jesuit College, like other educational establishments in Canada, owed its existence and support to an association external to the colony. The colonists themselves had nothing to do with it.

According to his critic, Mr. Parkman, though naturally well disposed, is perverted by new-fangled ideas of the nineteenth century. "Democracy," he says, "is for him the type of social perfection." Again, he charges him with a "recrudescence of fanaticism" in the cause of democracy and Puritanism, as against monarchy and Romanism. Mr. Parkman was never before suspected of fanaticism, either for democracy or for Puritanism. Again, after recounting the martial exploits of the Canadians against New England, he exclaims in triumph: "We have merited the cry of hatred which the American author launches against us by the mouth of his ancestors." This "cry of hatred" would sound like a joke if the writer were not too mortally in earnest to admit the faintest idea of one. The border settlers of New England bore no love to those who butchered their families by midnight; but these barbarous raids are now scarcely remembered, and the modern New-Englander no more thinks of hating French Canadians than of hating Welshmen. It is three to one that he hardly remembers their existence, unless he has been reminded of it by Mr. Parkman's books. At most he knows them only as an inoffensive people who come down to work in the factories, and he never dreams of connecting them or theirs with the scalping of his great-great-grandmother.

The critic credits Mr. Parkman with conscientious research and most of the literary virtues except Romanism, which he thinks essential to the writer of Canadian history. Here we must differ from him. Canadian history has not been truthfully written by ultramontane Catholics. In their view truth is of two kinds, mundane and ecclesiastical, and where the two interfere with each other, the latter must prevail. In the interest of the Church a great deal ought to be suppressed, and in this duty of suppression Mr. Parkman has failed. Yet, with all his intense feeling on this point, the critic is by nature too fair-minded not to make the following significant avowal:

> "We have been accustomed to regard our past under an aspect too ideal, and answering more to our dreams than to reality. Too often, instead of writing history, we have written panegyrics. Mr. Parkman's books have at least this good in them, that they teach us to examine our annals with the eyes of cool reason."

He nevertheless complains that Mr. Parkman's realistic picture of Canada represents the country as if in the depths of a dreary winter, with its features bereft of every charm. He afterwards forgets this, and compares 'The Old Régime in Canada' to a Canadian landscape in all its wild primeval beauty. "The view," he says, "is charming, but let the traveller beware, for wild beasts lurk in the thickets, and the savage Iroquois lies ambushed behind the rock." "The book of Mr. Parkman," he concludes, "has something of the fascination and the danger of our primeval nature. The prudent reader had better not venture into it without a compass and a weapon." This compass and weapon, it is needless to say, are to be furnished by the Church.

The *Opinion Publique* follows with more criticism, and this time it is somewhat bitter. Mr. Parkman is first called to account for depreciating the Canadian people. The charge is not easy to sustain, as his statements are all drawn from French and Catholic writers whom the critic cannot impugn. In one instance, however, he thinks he has found a vulnerable point. Mr. Parkman is describing the rounds of the missionary priests among the remote settlements, and of these priests he pronounces what the critic himself calls a "magnifique éloge." His fault is not against them, but against their flock, and it lies in the following words, in which he describes the approach of the missionary to the infant settlement of St. Denis, consisting of two log-cabins belonging to poor peasants:

> "Wild-looking women, with sunburnt faces and neglected hair, run from their work to meet the curé; a man or two follows with soberer steps and less exuberant zeal, while half-savage children, the *coureurs de bois* of the future, bareheaded, barefooted, and half-clad, come to wonder and stare."

In this the critic sees a malicious slander of the whole Canadian population. It is evident, however, that these two poor families and their log-cabins were chosen, instead of more prosperous settlements, as affording a better illustration of the dreariness and hardship of the missionary life, an object of which the critic can hardly complain. He nevertheless proceeds to describe a larger settlement, called La Bouteillerie, four or five miles off, and shows that its chief man was a respectable officer, while one or two, at least, of its inhabitants knew how to write their names; which is nothing to the purpose, as Mr. Parkman is not describing La Bouteillerie. Still, the question may fairly be asked, Is Mr. Parkman justified in the picture he gives of St. Denis? Now, the governor of the colony, speaking of one of the chief families of Canada, not peasants but nobles, says:

"Monsieur de Saint-Ours came to me to ask leave to go back to France in search of bread. His wife and he are in despair, and yet they do what they can. I have seen two of his girls reaping grain and holding the plough. Other families are in the same condition. They come to me with tears in their eyes. All our married officers are beggars."

At the same time the Intendant Champigny, speaking also of the upper class of the colonists, says: "It is pitiful to see their children, of which they have great numbers, passing all summer with nothing on them but a shirt, and their wives and daughters working in the fields." The Intendant Meules, speaking of the inhabitants at large, says that many of them go half-naked even in winter, and Bishop Saint-Vallier declares that many families are in such destitution that in winter their younger members can only keep warm by lying all day in bed. Such evidence might be multiplied, but this will serve to justify Mr. Parkman's account of the two poor families of St. Denis.

The quivering sensitiveness of our Canadian neighbors is hardly intelligible across the line, where most of us can hear our ancestors called to account without losing equanimity. The *Opinion Publique* retorts Mr. Parkman's alleged aspersion of the Canadian settlers by a commentary of some length on American slavery and Salem witchcraft. These indeed are a God-send to our friends of the North, who rarely fail to bring them to the front on all possible occasions. The critic congratulates himself that the blot of slavery was unknown in Canada. If he would look into the matter, he would find that in the eighteenth century there were about as many slaves, both black and red, in the French colony as climate and other circumstances would admit. It is true that witches were not hanged in Canada, but Indians enough were burned there to make ample amends.

The final accusation is of another sort. It is that Mr. Parkman has exposed the weaknesses of Bishop Saint-Vallier, while saying nothing of his wise regulations for the government of the clergy or of his gifts to the Church. In fact, Mr. Parkman has not said all that might be said either for or against him. He is not writing ecclesiastical history, and has to do with churchmen only so far as they were connected with the social and political life of the colony. He has not enlarged on the bishop's regulations for the government of his clergy or on his gifts to the Church, because, being matters purely ecclesiastical, they were outside his province. For the same reason he has not dwelt on the rancorous quarrels excited by Saint-Vallier in the bosom of the Church, nor on the fact that his ecclesiastical administration was thought so faulty that the extreme measure of removing him from his bishopric was seriously considered by the royal council.

The critic thinks that Mr. Parkman has undergone an unfavorable change of heart, and now regards the French colonists with positive dislike. Of this his books give no evidence. His fault is that he has told unpleasant truths and proved them. The earlier annals of Canada are full of heroism and devotion, and he has so reproduced them. Different elements mingle in her later history, and these he has also reproduced, as he was bound to do. Yet in doing so he has not failed to give praise wherever it is due.

A worthy Catholic lady, speaking of Mr. Parkman's 'Jesuits in North America,' declared that "all it says in favor of the fathers is true, and all it says against them is false." The Canadian writer seems to have borrowed a hint from this comprehensive rule of criticism. Yet he is never wilfully unfair, and even when most offended he seems not wholly to forget that if Mr. Parkman has exposed the faults of French Canada, he has also done something to make known her great and peculiar merits.

PARTY MACHINERY IN ENGLAND.

London, July 6, 1878.

PERIODICAL writers and journalists in this country have been devoting a good deal of their attention lately to the problems of political and party organization. Politicians have begun to realize the fact that the enlarged constituencies are very different agencies from the small pocket-boroughs of the beginning of the century and from the restricted constituencies of the period between 1832 and 1867, and they are groping about for some satisfactory means of guiding and controlling these unmanageable machines. In the old time—the bad time of the Georges—electors were bought like sheep at a market, by the head or by the score, and the representatives whom these sheep elected were bought in Parliament by posts and pensions, sometimes even by hard cash. In the early years of the present reign the habit of bribery at elections still prevailed, and the money subscribed by the Carlton Club for the Tories and by the Reform Club for the Liberals was not always expended on legitimate purposes. Party organization was managed by coarse means and unscrupulous agents. The enlarged constituencies, the ballot, and the transference of jurisdiction in election petitions from the House of Commons to the courts of justice, together with the increased penalties for bribery and corruption which have been enacted of late years, have tended to do away to a large extent with the grosser forms of bribery. When a man has to bribe a thousand electors instead of a hundred, and when he does not know whether those who have received his bribes have voted for him or his opponent, and when he runs the risk of stern exposure, of being unseated, perhaps of being sent to prison and of being found liable in the whole expenses of the trial, amounting, it may be, to many thousand pounds—when he has these issues before him he thinks a good many times, even in the heat of an election, before he spends his money in illegitimate expenditure. And yet both in England and in Ireland there are certain corrupt boroughs—boroughs that are notoriously corrupt—and men are always found willing enough to offer themselves as candidates for them. Within the last six months two contests have been fought in two boroughs of this character. The published expenditure in both cases proved that the candidates had poured out their money like water, but, as in all such cases, the published expenditure was but a fraction of what really found its way out of the pockets of the candidates into those of the inhabitants of the boroughs respectively.

In both cases the Tory candidate was successful. Indeed, it may be taken for granted that in all cases of the sort the Tory candidate does win. The Tory party are cleverer, bolder, and more successful in their dealings with such places than the Liberals, and they always have money at their disposal. They have funds stored away in their war-chest, like the Prussians for military purposes, ready for each campaign. The Liberals have no such treasure-house, and, in consequence, they always start at a disadvantage with their opponents. This disadvantage does not go for much when any question of policy is before the country, provided that the Liberal view of the policy is accepted by the country. The destruction of the Established Church in Ireland, for instance, struck the imagination of the country, and no amount of Tory gold or clever electioneering manipulation could stem the current of feeling in the country. But in quiet times the advantage gained by the exuberance of expenditure, or the reputation of it, can never be overcome by any amount of enunciation of abstract Liberal "principles," and appeals to the memory of the great men whom the Liberal party have enrolled among their members, and to the work which these great men have done. The sinews of war are wanted quite as much in political as in military campaigns, and an election-chest is no despicable element in the chances of success of one party or the other at the polls. The Liberals are heavily handicapped by the want of it, and if those who keep preaching up the necessity of organization would devote their energies to the collection of party funds for the legitimate purposes of party organization and warfare, they would do some real good to the cause which they have at heart.

But while corruption in its coarser forms is now happily confined to certain well-known constituencies in England and Ireland (for both Wales and Scotland have the reputation of being pure in matters of election), the expense of contesting a seat is still considerable, and in some places exorbitant. It is calculated that a general election costs something like four millions sterling, and all this expenditure, except the comparatively inconsiderable sum that comes out of the Tory election-chest, falls upon the candidates. Borough seats cannot be contested except at a cost of from £500 to £5,000 for each candidate. County seats may run up as high as £20,000 per candidate, and no county in the United Kingdom can be fought under £1,000 to each candidate. It would be imagined from these figures that the expense would act as a deterrent, and that it would be difficult, if not impossible, to find some twelve hundred solid, unimaginative Englishmen willing to throw away so much money upon so little, and it is difficult to persuade men on the Liberal side of politics to engage in contests for county seats. The chances of success are small, as the landowning and farming classes are rigidly Tory. In the late Administration there was but one representative of an English county, and he was not in the cabinet. In the present Administration, except the law officers, there are only three representatives of boroughs. Out of something like one hundred and ninety county seats the Liberals do not hold thirty, and some of these are held by means of an electioneering contrivance rather than by regular party fighting. In boroughs, on the other hand, there is no dearth of candidates; it is a plethora rather than a dearth that has generally to be encountered. There is a multitude of rich unemployed men in the country who yearn for occupation, and who regard the occupation,

such as it is, of being in Parliament, even at the cost of a triennial or quadrennial fine of two or three thousand pounds sterling, as the acme of their ambition. These men are afraid of the trouble and exertion necessary to contest a large county, but they turn up in numbers whenever a vacancy occurs in any likely borough. There are others, again, and they are numerically a considerable number, who believe, or whose wives believe, that they gain in social consideration by being in the House of Commons. These are mainly the *nouveaux riches*, of whom there always is a sprinkling in every parliament. Others, again, are desirous of pushing a railway or a company or some commercial undertaking, and struggle to get a seat for the purpose. A few there are who have traditionary claims to political consideration, and who regard a parliamentary career as their legitimate and hereditary right; and there are some who are urged to try their chances by desire for political or professional preferment.

To arrange and satisfy the claims, real or imaginary, of numerous candidates for the suffrages of borough constituencies, and to look out for candidates for county constituencies, is one of the many duties of such party organizations as journalists and magazine writers have been demanding, and various schemes have been suggested for the purpose. The work is best done by local societies or associations in each constituency, working in connection with and to some extent under the control of a central society in the metropolis. This is the method pursued quietly and effectively by the Tory party. What was formerly undertaken by the Carlton Club is now done by a central office, under the direction of the official "whip" or party manager. Every constituency is in communication with this central office and takes its instructions from that office. The local bodies are obedient; they like the dictation of the central body and they act upon it. Occasionally a powerful magnate in some county may kick at the pressure of the central authority, but he is soon brought to reason. The leaders of the party go to him and put it to his patriotism and his loyalty to his party to obey orders from headquarters; and their appeals are seldom disregarded. The Liberal party will obey no such orders. Even a semblance of dictation is resented, and the rumor of interference from headquarters is enough to set up the bristles of every Liberal in the locality regarding which the rumor has been spread. They have a central body to discharge the functions which the Reform Club used to discharge with regard to party management. But that central body modestly confines its efforts to giving good advice and supplying information. It has no means of enforcing its authority. Each Liberal constituency is a law to itself, and is guided by its own local wants and requirements. Attempts have been made to produce a uniform organization by means of caucuses and wire-pulling; but these attempts have not come to much, and are not likely to be admired as they become familiar. The Liberals must go their own way until some great question arises which will bring them together, and then they will be irresistible.

AN ANCIENT MEDITERRANEAN CITY.

MALTA, June 17, 1878.

AS I lately had occasion to touch at Kōmz (or Homs), on the coast of Tripoli, I improved the opportunity to spend an afternoon among the ruins of Leptis Magna. Kōmz is identical with the Ligatah of Smyth's chart and 'Mediterranean,' and has recently become the chief shipping point of the province of that name. It lies sixty miles eastward of Tripoli port and two miles westward of the ruins of Leptis, and owes its sudden commercial activity to the demand for alfa-grass. Vast fields of alfa are found at a day's journey inland from Kōmz, which is the chief depot for it on the whole Tripolitan coast. It is a pleasant walk along the beach that intervenes between the ruins of Leptis citadel and the port of Kōmz. As you near Leptis what has appeared like a variety of chimneys is seen to be the remains of columns and pillars and massive walls and arches and gateways, which attest the wealth and grandeur of the ancient city. Among the first objects of interest are three marble columns, which I carefully measured, and found to have a length of thirty feet and diameter of three feet eight and a half inches. They lie close together on the ground, half-buried in the sand, and appear as if moved to that point for shipment. The marble is of green and white and several other colored veins, which run lengthwise along the columns; green predominates, and there is great beauty in the combination of colors as well as the graceful curves of the columns. The kind of marble (called by Smyth *cipollino*) and form of column are very frequently met with all over the site, and there are many other columns, of the same marble but smaller dimensions, which could easily be removed without damage. The south sides, exposed as they are to the desert winds, are rough and badly marred, and it would be advantageous either to remove them or bury them deeper in the sand. There are many varieties of granite and marble and a great number of columns and fragments. Among the most striking are the huge pieces of red Egyptian granite, which have been broken off the numerous columns of this material for shipment to Sphax and Sousa in Tunis, where they are used as rollers for grinding the olive-fruit to produce oil. The diameter of one circular fragment lying on the shore is four feet and five inches. In one spot on the west side of the old port there are thirteen grey granite columns close together, manifestly collected for removal, but now almost hidden by the soil.

At another point I observed a range of the tops of eleven columns, some broken, others still uninjured, and all of the variegated green marble mentioned above. This row of columns is within the massive walls of a very large edifice, where there is also seen the upper part of one end of a slab of white marble exquisitely carved and bearing a Latin inscription; the exposed part of the slab was seven feet long, three deep, and five wide. Near by is a capital of white marble, broken from a column two feet and a half in diameter. Many other handsomely-carved fragments of white marble capitals are scattered about the ruins. As to the walls, they are a wonder. The huge blocks of stone and granite are hewn to fit as closely as if shaped by the most exact lathes; but this is only in the lower and some of the upper parts. There can be no doubt that portions of all these massive walls have been rebuilt; for besides marked differences in construction, there are fragments of carved and fluted blocks, and in two places fragments of blocks with inscriptions upside down. Near by this edifice there is another with curved outline, of smaller extent but much more massive. The walls are faced with hewn blocks of stone inside and out, but formed of a conglomerate or concrete, with frequent sections of wide, flat bricks. Some idea of the strength of this mass may be formed from the fact that a portion of it having been undermined by the stream which flows by, it has fallen over, but remains intact, resisting strains never dreamed of by the designing engineer. There are some evidences of this edifice having been intended for baths. What was once the river is now a trickling stream flowing into a stagnant pool that was the old port; the entrance is closed by a sandy beach, and there is now no communication with the sea. In many places the quays are still visible, and there is little doubt that they are intact. One peculiarity not noticed in other ancient ports is the form of mooring-rings. At Leptis a semicircular hole is cut through a large mass of stone; one I measured was three feet deep and fourteen inches radius.

The driven sand and the deposits of the river have left little of Leptis above the ground, but what there is excites our admiration and wonder, and seems to invite those who have the means to penetrate into the loose substance which hides its art-treasures. The ruins equal in grandeur and extent those of any ancient city on the African coast, and there are very few on the opposite coast of the Mediterranean that are more interesting. That they are worthy of a careful study no one will deny, and that systematic excavation would repay the outlay may well be believed in the case of a city second only to Carthage and equal to Utica in grandeur and wealth, and older than either. The French seem to have been the first to plunder them. The columns which adorn the maître-autel of the church of Saint-Germain-des-Prés in Paris were removed from Leptis Magna in the last century. After the conclusion of peace between the United States and Tripoli, Mr. Ridgely, acting United States consul, accompanied by M. Delaporte, the French consul, visited the ruins (June, 1806) in the *Enterprise*, Commander (afterwards Commodore) Porter, of *Essex* fame. There seems to have been no systematic excavation, although it appears from a mémoire addressed to the Prince de Bénévent by M. Delaporte "that a party of sailors were landed with picks and shovels." From this pamphlet, now very rare, it would appear that the copying of a few inscriptions and finding a few fragments of statuary comprised all that resulted from the excursion. Ten years later the Pasha of Tripoli gave the ruins to the British king. Two expeditions were sent under Commander (afterwards Admiral) Smyth, who was furnished with everything necessary to excavate and remove whatever he wished to. The allowance of money was certainly small, but then Arab labor was very cheap, and its employment was not necessary when there were so many British sailors at hand. The first expedition prepared many of the finest columns for removal, leaving them ungarded. The Arabs took advantage of this opportunity to provide themselves with a good supply of mill-stones and to ship the surplus to Tunis. When Smyth returned he found his columns almost all destroyed, but resuming the work of de-

struction begun by himself and his party and only continued by the Arabs, he soon gathered many more columns than he could move. Those that were removed are now, or rather were, in the royal gardens of Virginia waters, Windsor. Smyth, in his report, states that "the materials are the richest I have seen in such extensive quantity, for it appears to have been a profuse mass of porphyry, granitic porphyry, oriental granite and granalitique, and marbles of every description." I did not see any porphyry above ground; in other respects the description is still true. The weight of each of the three *cipollino* columns mentioned in the beginning of my letter (which are doubtless the ones which Smyth reported "that neither the raft-ports nor hatchways of the *Weymouth* would admit") is twenty-five tons. How were these and other heavier masses transported in the vessels of the time, and lifted in and out of them and into place? Is it not strange that some men of means and leisure, such as cruise about the Mediterranean in yachts, do not devote time and money to explorations and excavations which would not only afford them temporary amusement, but satisfy the universal human desire for distinction? A properly-fitted yacht might accomplish much with her crew, and I believe permission and protection could be very readily obtained from the Porte. Had I the time and means I should seek amusement in examining the numerous ruins between Algiers and Egypt, and, first of all, Leptis Magna.

The northern and southern shores of the Mediterranean present such a contrast that it must be seen to be appreciated. Every one knows what there is to be seen on the former. On the latter there are stretches of one hundred miles of coast without a habitation within five miles of the sea. Such is the Gulf of Sidra. Yet there are in the vicinity of its dangerous shores immense salt-ponds where nature does all the work except gathering the salt, vast fields of alfa, and a remarkable deposit of sulphur, besides excellent pasturage and a great deal more water and arable land than people generally suppose. The "mountains of salt" spoken of by travellers are identical, in my opinion, with some that I have seen, notably one at Karcorah. This is (or was, for it is being removed and shipped to Black Sea ports) a hummock forty-two feet in height and about three hundred yards in circumference. It was the result of eight years' gathering of about a hundredth part of the salt that had formed on the Karcorah pond. At the end of autumn the newly-gathered piles are covered with straw and the straw burned. This forms a crust perfectly impervious to water, and the winter rains have no effect on the pile.

Correspondence.

MR. SICKELS AS REPORTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "N. N.," under date of July 13, 1878, writes you a letter entitled "A Judicial Fraud," in which he complains of Mr. Sickels, the State Reporter, and charges him with "garbling" and "suppressing portions of opinions." The specification under this charge is that he has "stricken out the title" of a certain cause, "changed it to 'anonymous,' and permitted it to be thus published in the Court of Appeals reports as a true report." In consequence of this your intelligent correspondent remarks: "It is a question whether the case can now be cited at all as authority in the courts, but there can be no question whatever whether this garbled volume of reports and the State Reporter himself should not both be suppressed." The enormity charged upon Mr. Sickels is that he reported a certain case under the title of "anonymous" instead of giving its true title. The report is in 67 N. Y. 599. It shows that the defendants in the action had been adjudged guilty of a fraud. Is it a "judicial fraud," requiring the suppression of the reports and the reporter, to withhold the names of parties in a reported case?

What has been the practice heretofore? Let us begin with Judge Cowen, who was reporter before he went on the bench. In the nine volumes of reports prepared and issued by him I find thirteen cases reported under the title of "anonymous." As an example see "anonymous," 2 Cowen 539, in which an attachment was issued against an attorney for costs in a suit which he brought without authority and failed in, and the order of the Court was that attorney pay the costs within ten days or be suspended from practice. And still this "judicial fraud," Judge Cowen, withheld from a curious public the name of the attorney guilty of such malpractice! Does not "N. N." think Cowen and his reports should have been suppressed? Or does he sympathize with the fraudulent attorney?

In the seven volumes of Nicholas Hill, jr.'s, reports I find twelve cases in which that eminent counsellor and model reporter "has" (in the language of "N. N.") "stricken out the title of the cause, changed it to anonymous, and permitted it to be thus published in the reports as a true report." I also find one case which Mr. Hill reported under the title "In the matter of ——, an alien" (7 Hill 137). Why did Mr. Hill suppress the name of this "blasted foreigner"? Let Hill and his reports forthwith be suppressed!

Judge Duer was also guilty of similar suppression in at least five cases—one, like that complained of by "N. N.," a case of arrest (1 Duer 613).

Cairns, Johnson, Wendell, Paige, Sandford, Robertson, Daly, Hopkins, Barbour, Abbott, and Howard have frequently "stricken out the title of the cause, changed it to anonymous, etc."; but no one before "N. N." ever discovered that this was a "fraud," requiring "suppression" of the report and the reporter.

These reporters, as well as Mr. Sickels, have supposed that the main object of reporting decisions was to announce the principles of law established, not to punish the transgressor by embalming his name in the reports in connection with the transgression.

I have no knowledge as to the particular case referred to by "N. N.," except from what appears in the reports. I cannot say whether in this case the reporter, as is usual, was governed by directions given by the Court or one of the judges. As he has done no wrong, I do not think he is called upon to make any explanation. But I do know that Mr. Sickels is a faithful and competent reporter, in whom the Court of Appeals and the bar justly have the greatest confidence; and I do not believe that either the judges of the Court of Appeals or the lawyers of this State are prepared to favor his "suppression" by reason of anything charged upon him by "N. N." Lawyer.

Albany, July 29, 1878.

Notes.

Houghton, Osgood & Co. will shortly publish a 'History of Dartmouth College,' by Baxter P. Smith, of the class of 1854; and Mr. Emerson's Old-South lecture, revised and enlarged, on the 'Fortune of the Republic.'——D. Appleton & Co. have added the Essays of Elia to their tasteful New Handy-Volume Series.——Henry Holt & Co. are ready and desirous to exchange copies of the imperfect first edition of 'Maid Ellice' for the corrected edition.——Charles Scribner's Sons have issued to their subscribers the second volume of 'Bryant's Popular History of the United States,' of which we shall speak hereafter. The narrative at all points is brought down to the eighteenth century.——Among the interesting papers read before the Philological Association at Saratoga during the past month was one by Prof. H. C. G. Brandt, of the Johns Hopkins University, on the Roman alphabet in German. Partly it was an historical account of the origin of the Gothic printed alphabet, and partly it recommended some orthographical reforms in adopting the Roman alphabet. The Spelling Reform Association, which met in the same town, recommended for our English spelling five rules, as follows: (1) use *e* for *ea* equivalent to *e* short, as in *helth;* (2) omit silent *e* after a short vowel, as in *hav;* (3) use *f* for *ph*, as in *fantom;* (4) omit one letter of a final double, as in *shal;* (5) use *t* for final *ed* equivalent to *t*, as in *lasht*.——The Annual Report of the New York Meteorological Observatory for 1877 shows a continued falling-off in the mean annual rainfall for this vicinity, and, from an examination of the Paris records from 1689, Director Draper concludes that we are in a period of still decreasing rainfall. The October downpouring and the December drought (8.14 and 0.68 inches respectively) were alike remarkable.——Mr. Edward McPherson's 'Hand-book of Politics for 1878' (New York: *Tribune* Office) is certainly not the least valuable of his biennial reminders of events which the American people are so prone to forget. It covers the two years from July 15, 1876, to July 1, 1878—a period not closed, as the Potter Committee daily proves. It includes the last of Grant and the beginning of Hayes; the popular vote for President, the count, the Electoral Commission; the inauguration; the civil-service order; the "policy" towards South Carolina and Louisiana; the silver mania in Congress and out of it; State party platforms; various judicial decisions; some useful revenue and currency tables, and much more that we cannot particularize. It is a perfect treasury for the coming campaigns.——In a letter to the *Academy* of July 13 the Rev. Joseph Edkins pays a just tribute to the lamented W. F. Mayers, late Chinese Secretary to the British Legation. It appears that

this admirable scholar had investigated for Mr. Edkins the history of the loadstone. He found the variations of the needle recorded as early as 1080 A.D. by a Chinese author named Shen Kwa.——The death of the great Romance scholar, Frederick Diez, has called out numerous accounts of his life and services to philology. One of the most recent and popular is a lecture by Dr. Hermann Breymann, professor at Munich, for the benefit of the Diez Foundation, and is entitled 'Friederich Diez : Sein Leben, seine Werke und deren Bedeutung für die Wissenschaft.' Breymann gives a pleasant account of the simple and uneventful life which was so eventful for philology. His various works are briefly examined and their value for philology and literary history critically estimated. The student who desires a more extensive estimate of Diez will find it in a valuable pamphlet by Ugo A. Canello, 'Il Prof. Diez e la Filologia Romanza nel nostro secolo,' published in Florence in 1872 as an extract from the *Rivista Europea*.

—The appearance of a third edition of Mr. Henry C. Lea's 'Superstition and Force' is a sign that our highest scholarship is not without honor in its native country. Mr. Lea has met every fresh demand for his work with a careful revision of it, and the present edition is not only fuller and, if possible, more accurate than either of the preceding, but, from the thorough elaboration, is also more like a harmonious concept and less like a batch of studies ; in other words, the *North American Review* articles have become chapters by another process than merely placing them together and finding a common title for them. There are very few pages of this third edition that do not show in text or notes some change to meet the conscientious requirements of the author. His researches during the past twelve years have called for an increase of two-fifths in the number of pages. "The Wager of Law" and "The Wager of Battle" have been equally extended, but somewhat less than "The Ordeal" or than "Torture." In this last chapter there is abundant evidence of further enquiry into French jurisprudence, as in the first two it is clear that Wales and the Norse nations have received greater attention. The same is true of China and Japan and (following the latest explorers) of Africa. Apparently the sense of the oneness of the human race has grown upon the author as his studies have progressed, and he has been led to scrutinize the customs of the Jews for his purpose as archæologists now look for pile-dwellings and stone and flint implements in Greece, once, and not so long ago, viewed wholly as a land of classic remains. He has gone still further and deeper, as the new passages connecting modern superstitions and cruelties with our Aryan ancestors show ; and to this circumstance we doubtless owe a work which he has now in hand, according to an announcement in the volume before us, and to which he has given the provisional title of 'Supernaturalism : Aryan and Semitic ; with special reference to the Theory of Evil and the Practice of Magic.' This can hardly be less than an abstract of the history of the great religions, and its publication, for which no date is fixed, will certainly be looked for with interest both by scholars and by the public at large.

—In *Lippincott's* for August Mr. Edward King continues to utilize his war experience in "Along the Danube." He lingers longest at Orsova, the border town in which the Rumanians, Hungarians, and Servians mingle, in striking contrast one with another. Mr. Edward H. Knight begins a series of papers on the Paris Exposition, with a lucid description of the site and the principal buildings, and answers the natural enquiry, Whether the Exposition is superior to that at Philadelphia, by saying that they roof over more space at Paris, and that their landscape gardening is far superior in finish ; but they suffer from want of room such as Fairmount Park afforded. Mr. Wirt Sikes writes very agreeably and graphically of Tenby, a watering-place on the south coast of Wales. Marie Howland expounds a meritorious system of musical notation—the so-called Galin method—which unquestionably has its use in vocal training, and perhaps in teaching the theory of music ; if it were also capable of greatly facilitating execution, musicians would by this time probably have adopted it, but apparently the power to execute does not outstrip the ability to read our present notation. Mr. James's study of the British soldier is written in the sympathetic vein of his recent writings, and he very well describes the mixed feelings of an American Anglo-Saxon when there is a chance of England's going to war. What struck Mr. James in witnessing the "preparations for precaution" was not only the supremely fine appearance of the British soldier, but his youthfulness :

"It is hardly too much to say that the British army, as a stranger observes it nowadays, is an army of boys. All the regiments are boyish : they are made up of lads who range from seventeen to five-and-twenty. . . . The modern grenadier, as he perambulates the London pavement, is for the most part a fresh-colored lad of moderate stature, who hardly strikes one as offering the elements of a very solid national defence."

—George Eliot introduces us in the July *Macmillan's* to a new breakfast party, where a *menu* somewhat like that set down for the guests of Mr. Mallock's now famous country-house is discussed. The feast is over, and amid the fragrance of Havana cigars the new Hamlet, "blonde, metaphysical, and sensuous," is talking with his Wittenberg friends, Osric, Laertes, Rosencrantz, and the rest. No novice will take pleasure in striving to attach a meaning to the stubborn and uncouth idiom which these college youths use to convey their ideas about the worth of life and the rule of action, whether it be the Church's "imperative," or Taste, or what not. We have not space to extract the argument, but it seems to lean finally toward Hamlet's conclusion—

> "The Ideal has discoveries which ask
> No test, no faith, save that we joy in them."

In the earlier part Laertes wins our friendship for his downright onslaught on the cynical Rosencrantz—

> "Who clothes his body and his sentient soul
> With skill and thoughts of men, and yet denies
> A human good worth toiling for" ;

and the author's sympathies seem to be with him when he represents graphically the possible sources of delight in life for one who looks only to this earth, and maintains that they are sufficient. It is needless to say that the whole poem deserves reading, not so much for its poetry as for its thought. It was, by the way, printed here in *Harper's Bazar* simultaneously with its appearance in England.

—In M. Sarcey's 'Comédiens et Comédiennes,' which we reviewed not long ago, there is a portrait of M. Got in the part of *Maître Pierre Pathelin*. It was fitting that the oldest associate of the Comédie-Française should be engraved in a character of the oldest extant play of the French language. Mr. Henry James, jr., a competent critic of acting, has "no hesitation in accepting M. Got as the first of living actors," and he praises especially the exuberant and tremendous comicality with which he carries off this relic of mediæval farce. The play itself has had adventures enough to furnish forth one of the most extended and interesting chapters of literary history. It was written in the fifteenth century, possibly by the famous François Villon, but more probably by Pierre Blanchet. Saturated in situation and language with Gallic salt, it was the most popular farce of the century, and doubtless received additions on all sides ; it was imitated by Reuchlin in Germany ; and one of its most important scenes is to be found in the "Towneley Mysteries." The familiar phrase "Revenons à nos moutons" had its origin in the action of this play, and many a French proverb is first to be found in it. Both Molière and La Fontaine admired its frank gaiety ; but after their death comedy stiffened, and the frantic farce was worked over into a mild three-act comedy—"L'Avocat Pathelin," by Brueys and Palaprat, which held the stage for nearly two hundred years, and only left it because M. Edouard Fournier, in 1872, brought out a reverent revision of the original text, far more racy and idiomatic than the watered comedy whose usurpation it ended. Another modification of the old farce has been set as a comic opera. It was, however, "L'Avocat Pathelin" which served as a basis for "The Village Lawyer," a two-act farce produced by Garrick in London, at Drury Lane Theatre, with the usual success, and rather a more lasting success than most of Garrick's productions, for the play may be said almost to hold the stage to this day, as it has been played here in New York, by Mr. Jefferson, within twenty years. Nor is this the last of the play's transformations : in those places of amusement which for some inscrutable reason are called "variety" shows, is frequently given "an Ethiopian sketch" in two scenes, called "The Mutton Trial," which is a perversion of "The Village Lawyer" ; and thus traces of the oldest specimen of French dramatic literature are still to be seen on the American stage.

—The new edition of Duruy's 'Histoire des Romains' (New York : F. W. Christern), to which we recently drew attention in No. 678, is beyond doubt the most elegant, and in many respects the most serviceable, Roman history in existence, for there is nothing which can bring a nation or a period so distinctly to the mind of the reader as an abundance of well-chosen illustrations. In this the editors have kept their promise, and the illustrations are without exception genuine ones—actual landscapes, works of art, archæological remains, and (when the time comes) no doubt portraits. Merely to turn over the leaves of these six or eight volumes will be an education in the spirit of antiquity. As for the his-

tory itself, it must be borne in mind, it is not new, but revised. It was originally written before Mommsen's labors had revolutionized so large a portion of early Roman history—at least in the judgment of his followers; and the veteran Frenchman could, perhaps, hardly be expected to examine all over again the conclusions at which he had once deliberately arrived. We must take it, therefore, for what it is, founded upon Niebuhr, but not upon Mommsen; and this very fact will no doubt recommend it to a large number of persons. For example, Niebuhr's Pelasgian theory is assumed as proved. As to the principal topic of the Introduction of one hundred and thirty-one pages, the sketches of the several nationalities—their history, their remains, etc.—are good; but there is no general ethnographical sketch, and the student would hardly learn that the Umbrians, for instance, were any more nearly related to the Romans than the Etruscans were.

—We have received from M. Paul Fredericq, whose 'Rôle politique des ducs de Bourgogne' we noticed a few weeks ago (see *Nation*, No. 667), a thin pamphlet containing an account of the Calvinist University at Ghent, which existed from 1578 to 1584. The very existence of this university has been forgotten until recently, but it forms an interesting and instructive episode in the history of the time. Its establishment was the result of the "Pacification of Ghent" (1576), by which the whole Netherlands were for a while united under the Prince of Orange, while its overthrow belongs to the year of the Prince's death, and is a part of the reaction instituted by the Prince of Parma. The secondary causes of this reaction are well illustrated by the annals of the university, as well as of the municipality of Ghent, both of which were managed in the narrowest and most bigoted spirit, in spite of the protests of William of Orange and his efforts to establish a genuine toleration. The instruction, it may be observed, was gratuitous, and the professors received very fair salaries. The same author has prepared a document in commemoration of the three-hundredth anniversary of the Pacification, which was celebrated at Ghent in the year of our Centennial. This 'Album du Cortége Historique de la Pacification de Gand' is a large octavo of forty-eight pages, with double columns of Dutch and French, and with eleven photographic illustrations of the most striking features of the procession. The Netherlanders, to judge by these pictures, have lost neither their taste for nor their skill in processions and allegorical displays, so amply illustrated by Mr. Kirk and Mr. Motley. Most of the pictures represent enormous cars, containing figures grouped in different scenes—Egmont and Horn before the Tribunal of Blood; the Inquisition; the "Spanish Fury" at Antwerp; the signature of the Pacification of Ghent, etc. The text, by M. Fredericq, describes the pictures, with brief historical explanations.

—We are glad to state that the *Rivista di Filologia*, which suspended publication two years ago on the completion of its second volume, is to be succeeded by the *Giornale di Filologia Romanza*, under the direction of E. Monaci, one of the editors of the *Rivista*. The first number of the new periodical contains a very suggestive article by Canello, entitled "Lingua e Dialetto," in which the writer examines the two classes of words in every language, the learned and the popular, and shows incidentally that Brachet's test to distinguish between the two classes in French, the persistence of the Latin accent, is not sufficient; the word must be judged by its conformity to the laws of phonology. An interesting example is the word *Italia*, which, had it ever been a popular word, would have been *Itaglia*, like *figlia* from Latin *filia*, etc. It is now becoming a popular word, and an Italian minister the other day actually wrote it *Itaglia*, and many deputies so pronounce it in Parliament. The indefatigable scholar, Prof. Rajna, of Milan, furnishes an article on a collection of fables in the Ambrosian library, or rather a collection of morals, for the writer, in his desire to present to the reader only the useful, left out the fables themselves, although he took pains to retain the titles. The morals are in the Franco dialect peculiar to the North of Italy in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, and, as Rajna ingeniously shows, were written by an Italian trying to express himself in French. The collection is valuable as throwing light on the difficult question of the origin of the above-mentioned jargon, which is such a singular phase in the history of the early Italian literature of Lombardy. The same MS. also contains some adages in Provençal, one of which, "Honestaz es e cortesia pensar tal ren qe bona sia" (it is honest and courteous to think the thing that is good), might well be practised at the present day. N. Caix examines the Italian pronoun, and shows that *vi* is from *vobis*, and is not, as is often supposed, an adverb of place from *ibi*, as is the case with *ci* from *ecc' hic*. The writer also shows that *le*, fem. dat., is simply a contraction for *lei*, and not, directly at least, from *illæ*. The department of Miscellany (*Varietà*) contains etymologies, a valuable notice of the relation of a Florentine MS. *canzoniere* (*Laurenz. Red.* 9) to the famous *Libro Reale*, and the correction by D'Ancona of several mistakes made by Perrens in his recent 'History of Florence.' In addition to these there are book-notices and bibliography of periodicals. We trust that all Romance students will extend their favor to the new periodical, which, in spite of its stronger rivals, the *Romania* and *Zeitschrift für romanische Philologie*, deserves the warmest encouragement, for it is the organ of a school of young Italian philologists who have already begun to reflect credit on their country and make valuable contributions to Romance philology.

WALLACE'S TROPICAL NATURE.*

THE present volume by Mr. Wallace gives a glimpse of the tropics from a new point of view. The climate, the luxuriant vegetation, and the varied forms of animal life in the equatorial zone have been described with minuteness by many naturalists. But there appears to have been still wanting a comprehensive treatment of the subject, an exposition of the phenomena which are *essentially* tropical, and an explanation of the relations of such phenomena to each other. It is clear that if some of these relations, such as those of climate to color, and of organic structures to surroundings, are placed in the strong light thrown upon biology by the theory of descent, they may probably receive much needful explanation. This task has been attempted by Mr. Wallace. When we remember that from his investigations in the tropics he originated, independently of Mr. Darwin, the theory of derivation now most widely known as the Darwinian theory, we can better realize the clearness of his vision and his fitness for the undertaking. A twelve years' residence in the tropics, under favorable conditions for exploration, afforded him abundant materials, from which he has selected enough for a bold outline sketch of tropical nature. There is no confusion from multiplicity of details, nor is there left upon the mind any impression that facts unfavorable to the theory have been suppressed. The reader is taken into the confidence of a candid guide, and is shown even those things which one trembling for the safety of a favorite hypothesis might have concealed.

The present volume consists of two parts: the first deals in a general way with the climate, plants, and animals of the tropics as related to one another; the second part comprises several special essays upon kindred topics, all of which have a bearing upon the main subject. It is with only a portion of the first part that the present notice now concerns itself—namely, the relations of climate to vegetation at the equator.

The equatorial zone, in which the chief characteristics of tropical nature are most clearly manifested, and which Mr. Wallace has taken for special study, comprises about twelve degrees north and south of the equator. The striking feature of its climate is the remarkable uniformity of temperature. The annual range is less than thirty degrees, and the daily range about ten degrees, Fahrenheit. Many causes conspire to bring about this high temperature and maintain its uniformity. Mr. Wallace cites among them the constant high temperature of the soil and of the surface waters of the ocean, the great amount of aqueous vapor in the atmosphere, the great extent of the intertropical regions, which causes the winds that reach the equatorial zone to be always warm, and the latent heat given out during the formation of rain and dew.

"In this favored zone the heat is never oppressive, as it so often becomes on the borders of the tropics; and the large, absolute amount of moisture always present in the air is almost as congenial to the health of man as it is favorable to the growth and development of vegetation. Again, the lowering of the temperature at night is so regular, and yet so limited in amount, that, although never cold enough to be unpleasant, the nights are never so oppressively hot as to prevent sleep. During the wettest months of the year, it is rare to have many days in succession without some hours of sunshine, while, even in the driest months, there are occasional showers to cool and refresh the overheated earth. As a result of this condition of the earth and atmosphere, there is no check to vegetation, and little if any demarcation of the seasons. Plants are all evergreen; flowers and fruits, although more abundant at certain seasons, are never altogether absent; while many annual food-plants, as well as some fruit-trees, produce two crops a year."

Local conditions in limited regions may slightly modify these general features. Mr. Wallace states that the excessive violence of meteorological phenomena generally supposed to be characteristic of the tropics is not by any means true of the equatorial zone. Electrical disturbances are much more frequent, but not generally more violent than in temperate regions. "Uniformity and abundance, rather than any excessive manifestations,

* 'Tropical Nature, and Other Essays. By Alfred R. Wallace.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1878.

are the prevailing characteristics of all the climatal phenomena of the equatorial zone." In this zone of equable climate there is a forest belt a thousand miles wide. Its northern and southern borders are unevenly fringed by lower woods, then by open country which ends in arid plains and deserts. The evergreen, equatorial forest consists mainly of unbranched trunks, which are not thickly crowded, and which suggest the columns of an immense edifice. The roof of foliage is almost unbroken, and the gloom of its depths is the only twilight of the tropics. The trunks are seen, on closer inspection, to be of many different kinds. In the forests of the temperate zone there is a monotonous repetition of identical shapes—the forests of pines are pines alone, the oak forests have chiefly oaks. But in the forests of the equator the columnar trunks are of many different species and of great diversity of form. Some of them are cylindrical, others are broader at base, and many have wing-like projections or buttresses which radiate from the trunk like flat roots. These buttresses spring from various heights, in some cases thirty feet or more, and with such space between them that it would, if roofed over, form a good-sized hut for several persons. These strong slabs, which flank the trunk, contribute much mechanical support. The same end is reached in other ways by other trees. Some have secondary aerial roots, which thicken until they can bear much strain in stress of weather. Beneath the higher forest there is a second, of shade-loving trees; and beneath the latter an undergrowth of shrubs, of ferns, and of dwarf palms. Clothing the ground of the forest there is a carpet of Selaginella, the club-moss of our florists, and this is often varied with a few herbaceous plants having unattractive flowers.

The climbing plants in the tropics form a conspicuous feature of the vegetation. Many of these twine around other slender trunks and hang in festoons from branch to branch. They are often twisted around each other, forming cables; but more frequently they are independent of such mutual support.

"In the shade of the forest they rarely or never flower, and seldom even produce foliage; but when they have reached the summit of the tree which supports them, they expand under the genial influence of light and air, and often cover their foster-parent with blossoms not its own. Here, as a rule, the climber's growth would cease; but the time comes when the supporting tree rots and falls, and the creeper comes with it in torn and tangled masses to the ground. But though its foster-parent is dead it has itself received no permanent injury, but shoots out again until it finds a fresh support, mounts another tree, and again puts forth its leaves and flowers. . . . When these accidents and changes have been again and again repeated, the climber may have travelled very far from its parent stem, and may have mounted to the tree-tops and descended again to the earth several times over."

But where are the flowers of the tropics? These are less conspicuous and less abundant than are the flowers in the temperate zone. A few brilliantly-colored, showy blossoms are found in favored localities, but these are so rare as to be exceptions. The correlations of colored flowers with insects are supposed to afford an adequate explanation of this scarcity:

"The varied forms of life are linked together in such mutual dependence that no one can inordinately increase without bringing about a corresponding increase or diminution of other forms. The insects which are best adapted to fertilize flowers cannot probably increase much beyond definite limits, because in doing so they would lead to a corresponding increase of insectivorous birds and animals which would keep them down. The chief fertilizers—bees and butterflies—have enemies at every stage of their growth, from the egg to the perfect insect, and their numbers are therefore limited by causes quite independent of the supply of vegetable food. It may, therefore, be the case that the numbers of suitable insects are totally inadequate to the fertilization of the countless millions of forest-trees over such vast areas as the equatorial zone presents, and that in consequence a large proportion of the species have become adapted either for self-fertilization or for cross-fertilization by the agency of the wind."

A few of the lower forest-trees bear conspicuous blossoms, but these are low down on the trunks, and are visited by the low-flying butterflies. The sensitive plant of the tropics has, of course, attracted Mr. Wallace's attention. When a sensitive mimosa is rudely touched the leaflets close and the whole leaf shrinks into its narrowest compass. Mr. Wallace suggests that, since these plants are all low-growing herbs or shrubs with delicate foliage, they might possibly be liable to destruction by herbivorous animals, and might escape by their singular power of suddenly collapsing before the jaws open to devour them. "It is curious that, as most of the species are somewhat prickly, so easy and common a mode of protection as the development of stronger spines should here have failed, and that its place should be supplied by so singular a power as that of simulating death, in a manner which suggests the possession of both sensation and voluntary motion."

In this volume Mr. Wallace brings out very clearly the fact that the plants of the equatorial zone have not had to contend against unfavorable atmospheric influences. The struggle has been with other plants and with animals, and under nearly uniform conditions. Therefore, as a result of the abounding energy of plant-life under wholly favoring and uniform conditions, every nook of the forest has some specially-adapted form. "The never-ceasing struggle for existence between the various species in the same area has resulted in a nice balance of organic forces, which gives the advantage now to one, now to another species, and prevents any one type of vegetation from monopolizing territory to the exclusion of the rest."

The work is written in an engaging style and without technical terms. In a subsequent notice we may consider Mr. Wallace's chapters on Color and Climate.

HEBREW RECORDS.*

A PORTION of Dr. Giles's critical work on the Scriptures appeared nearly thirty years ago, but was soon withdrawn from circulation. Over "the cause which led to this, and the results which followed," the author, apparently from charitable motives, casts a veil, and we see no reason for attempting to lift it. What interests us is whether the work then withdrawn deserved to be reissued; and we must emphatically say it did—not as a production of uncommon erudition, originality, or ingenuity, but as a very serious and very honest piece of labor devoted to the elucidation of subjects not only naturally wrapt in obscurity, but by many—from piety, or weakness—assiduously and zealously kept from the light. What gives additional value to this attack on prejudices which ought to be obsolete but are not, is the religious devotion of the writer to the kernel hidden within the historical shells, the smashing of which he renews with such youthful ardor, though a septuagenarian; to "that inner spiritual life which remains when criticism has done its best and its worst."

The object of the author in his first volume is "to enquire into the historical value of the several books of the Old Testament, their authors, the time when they were written, the harmony, as well as the discrepancies, which exists between them, besides many other points . . . determining the historical value of these Scriptures" (p. 19). His main conclusions may be summed up thus: The Hebrew Canon, as it now appears, "began to be put together in the fifth century before the Christian era." "The Law was first published, with such additions and insertions in the original legislation of Moses as were thought applicable" to the times of the compilers, "whether found in any ancient documents or handed down by tradition, or dictated by their wish to produce a code suited to the emergencies of the age." This compilation was "due to the laborious zeal of Ezra and perhaps of Nehemiah," about 450 B.C. "We must look for a later date for the first appearance of the Prophets, as they are now found, in a uniform collection, made probably soon after the year B.C. 400, when the prophet Malachi produced the short work which now stands last" in the respective division. The collection of the Hagiographa, as contained in the Hebrew editions of the Old Testament, was probably "added to the Canon about 150 years before the Christian era, when the Book of Daniel . . . is thought to have been compiled" (p. 194). The historical books, from Genesis to the second Book of Kings, form one continued narrative, compiled from books and documents now lost, and in part distinctly referred to by the editors. The language in which the earlier writings of the Hebrews were composed must have differed very considerably from that used by the compiler. Nothing that we now possess was so composed by Moses, who would have written in Egyptian. We possess very little that can be plausibly ascribed to David or Solomon, most of the Psalms and Proverbs, Canticles, and Ecclesiastes being productions of a late date. The Books of Job, Daniel, and Esther are fictions composed for moral or political purposes, the last-named being based on a solemnity existing among the Jews, the historical origin of which has been effaced by time. The Books of Chronicles form a late supplement to the historical writings, with priestly tendencies, and of very questionable authenticity. All the historical parts of the Canon teem with discrepancies, anachronisms, exaggerations, and other inaccuracies; their value concerning the events of the remoter ages, for which they

* 'Hebrew and Christian Records: an Historical Enquiry concerning the Age and Authorship of the Old and New Testaments. By the Rev. Dr. Giles, Rector of Sutton, Surrey, and formerly of Corpus Christi College, Oxford.' Now first published complete Two vols. 8vo. London, 1877. (This notice is limited to vol. i.)

supply us with no contemporary records, is particularly light. The history of those ages is full of obscurity and uncertainty.

Dr. Giles's historical scepticism is generally uncompromising, at times even excessive for a lay critic. But his criticism is not sweeping or presumptuous. He endeavors to prove every assertion by a long chain of arguments, supported by ungarbled quotations in full. We must say that in at least two-thirds of the matters considered one-third of his arguments ought to be sufficient to justify his conclusions, but he has to contend against prejudices which produce serious efforts to prove, for instance, that the prophet Samuel is not necessarily the author of the book which contains a long narrative of events that happened after his death, although his name is generally placed at its head—because it begins with an account of his life, just as "Numbers" is the superscription of another book which opens with a census; or that the patriarch Job could not have written the book detailing his trials and designated after him—which is like proving that Odysseus and Æneas must not be considered the composers of the epics called 'Odyssey' and 'Æneid.' Yet, as long as there are universities in the most enlightened countries of Christendom from the chairs of which the view is still seriously defended that the prayer of Jonah was actually composed, though not written, in the belly of the fish that swallowed him, we must not be too hasty in condemning as absolutely Quixotic attacks even on the most absurd notions, if sanctioned by age. In fact, the chief merit of Dr. Giles's fight for historical truth as established by critical evidence lies in the heaviness of his attacks on absurd traditions, and in the regular method which characterizes his labor. His work—barring some digressions—is an exhaustive popular compilation, including such argumentations as in any other field would expose their author to the reproach of descending to the level of the vulgar. His proofs are based on common sense; no particular learning is required in following him; the English Bible is the only book which the doubting reader has to consult; the results are inculcated by ample repetition—more than needed; the diction is free from obscurity, though often diffuse and rambling; the tone serious, candid, and free from sarcasm and virulence.

But while most of the evidence adduced is cogent and convincing, much of it is light and flimsy. With all his radicalism, Dr. Giles admits too much as worthy of historical consideration. In controverting one Biblical point he often adduces against it another, the authority of which, according to himself, is still feebler. He combats, for instance, statements contained in Kings with weapons drawn from Chronicles, and not merely in order to show up discrepancies. He often seriously considers facts in the lives of Abraham, Jacob, and Moses, as if we had their history with precise details before us—after having amply proved that all the narratives concerning those personages of a legendary age were composed, or at least compiled, a thousand years after it, and based on the reminiscences of a people constantly distracted by civil war and foreign invasion, and prone to superstitious belief and national self-glorification. Such assertions as "The Pentateuch . . . is a correct account, as far as human things admit, of what Moses did and taught" (p. 77), or "The Law of Moses was given fifteen hundred years before Christ" (p. 119), however qualified they may be, do not agree with the author's critical principles or with his opinion about the Hebrew "chain of tradition" supposed to link the Pentateuch with the time of Joshua. "What a long period—nine hundred years! Nations have arisen and passed away; revolutions upon revolutions have been made and again forgotten; empires have been formed and perished in half that time; languages have changed so totally," etc. (p. 89). Dr. Giles, though correct in his main argument, is, as a critic, both too destructive and too conservative, discarding—what is doubly surprising—much indirect evidence from sources of an historical age, and admitting too much of what, from the nature of the things, must be purely legendary. His historical Israel begins too late, the prehistorical has too distinct a shape. There is altogether too much looseness in his expositions; their positive *residuum* is very indefinite. Inadequate knowledge of Hebrew, which is betrayed throughout—we do not refer to the numerous shocking misprints—may have had something to do with it, by preventing a thorough sifting of the poetical parts of the Old Testament, and an appreciation of the archaic portions, preserved in their original form, according to their real historical value.

Slips of various kind occur, some of which are chargeable to lack of revision. Thus we find "446" (p. 22) and "445" B.C. (p. 51) as dates of the same event; the number of the twenty-two books of the Hebrew Bible "reduced to seventeen by the union of the first five" (p. 26), instead of to *eighteen*; "Eli" for *El* (p. 42); the Book of Enoch enumerated among the lost writings mentioned in the *Old* Testament (p. 304); *sahadutha*, a plain Chaldaic derivation from *sahad*, turned into a compound (p. 312); and a "king of Sihon" (p. 322) for *King Sihon*. Severe critics will easily detect graver defects of detail; but the value of the work does not consist in its statements concerning separate points, but in its negative *ensemble*. Nor is it written for scholars, though it serves them here and there by accumulating and grouping critical evidence. It addresses itself to plain readers of the Old Testament, misled by false superscriptions, but not devoid of common sense and freedom of judgment.

Private Libraries of Providence. With a Preliminary Essay on the Love of Books. By Horatio Rogers. (Providence: Sidney S. Rider. 1878.)—This handsome volume has grown out of a series of articles originally prepared for the daily press, and now revised and increased in number, and introduced by a rambling but pleasant discourse on books, the mania for them, the more noted bibliophiles, the prices they have paid, etc., etc. Space is also found in the foot-notes for interesting biographical sketches of the late John Keese and William Gowans, the one a witty auctioneer of the last generation in this city, the other a not yet forgotten dealer in old books; and of the veteran Joseph Sabin, who is still in the flesh, and whose name promises to outlast him at the old stand, since his sons are associated with him. The sale which Mr. Rogers commemorates on p. 46 as having brought "the largest sum ever realized for the same number of volumes," still retains this distinction: the Perkins collection of 865 lots brought £26,000 in June, 1873, or "an average of rather more than £30 per lot." While these sheets were in the press, however, the Firmin-Didot collection of 715 lots was bringing £34,200, or an average of nearly £48; and the sale which is to take place in the fall, and should be regarded as a postponement rather than as a separate sale, will make by far the highest total ever realized from the library of one man, though perhaps the average may not exceed that already attained in June. To the various hides used in binding, enumerated on p. 65, a recent discovery in the British Museum adds the skin of the kangaroo.

The Providence libraries here described by samples are eight in number; of most of them an interior view, or the owner's coat-of-arms or his bookplate, is given. The best known and the best is the collection of the late John Carter Brown, whose strength lies in Americana of date prior to the present century, and which contains more than one unique copy of rarities such as the first libraries in the world would gladly contend for. Even its own catalogue, in four volumes, of which only fifty copies were printed, commands a high price when obtainable. A new and enlarged edition of Part I. of this catalogue (fifteenth and sixteenth centuries) was reprinted in 1875; and Mr. Rogers states that Part II. (seventeenth century), likewise enlarged, is nearly ready for the press. The Brown library is estimated to contain ten thousand volumes. Twice that number is assigned to the library of Mr. Joseph J. Cooke, who has cultivated no one special line; eight thousand is the supposed number of Mr. C. Fiske Harris's, whose specialty is American poetry (indexed in print in 1874), chap-books, song-books, broadside ballads, etc.; works relating to American slavery and the Rebellion; specimens of early printing, and engravings. Mr. Rogers, by the way, in a foot-note on p. 183, controverts the romance of Müller's forced retouching of his plate of the Sistine Madonna, and consequent death, to which a writer in the August *Harper's* has just given fresh currency. Mr. John Russell Bartlett's modest yet choice working library is strong in whatever pertains to our civil war. Mr. Royal C. Taft's collection is praised for its rich quality of bindings. He has devoted himself to English literature, costly illustrated works on botany, and to Stothard's designs, whether in books or by themselves. Mr. Alexander Farnum also makes English literature a specialty, and his collection of wood-engravings is worth remembering. Mr. Sidney S. Rider excels in works relating to Rhode Island and to the Dorr rebellion in particular. He inherited a large collection of documents on the latter subject from the late Thomas A. Jenckes, who had contemplated writing a history of this important episode in our political development. Mr. Rider, it appears, is engaged upon an index of the newspapers published in Providence from 1820 to the present time, and has brought it down to 1852. Mr. Rogers does not vaunt his own library, but he allows us to see that it is admirable for something else besides economical stowage. Bibliography is perhaps its most salient feature. He owns the unpublished MS. journal of Lieut. Hadden, one of Gen. Burgoyne's aids in his American campaign, and is about to print it in the series of "Rhode Island Historical Tracts" now being published by Mr. Rider.

An American cannot read a work of this kind without asking himself

what is to become of all these collections when their owners pass from the scene ; and the habit of public spirit is so firmly grounded in us that we expect rather than hope that the public will finally fall heir to them. Mr. Carter's library alone has had the opportunity of being so bestowed. His death occurred, we believe, before the present struggling Public Library was founded in Providence. His collection was certainly not adapted for general circulation; most of it was and is too precious to be handled except by a select few; but it could readily have been kept by itself under restrictions, and it would have formed a magnificent nucleus of a library such as the city of Providence is bound to support and to make symmetrical. This may be its final destination; it now remains in the family. Mr. Rogers takes the liberty of giving a hint in one case. Of Mr. Cooke's volumes he says that the rapidity with which he has gathered them "has awakened much interest, and some speculation, as to how he will ultimately dispose of them"; and he cites Petrarch's example in offering his library to the Cathedral of St. Mark, in the hope that "the illustrious city of Venice will acquire other trusts of the same kind from the public."

Topographie der Stadt Rom, etc. [Topography of the City of Rome in Ancient Times]. By H. Jordan. Vol. i., part 1. With plates. (Berlin : Weidmannsche Buchhandlung ; New York : B. Westermann & Co. 1878.)—This work, characteristically German in its high grade of scholarship, familiarity with existing materials on the subject, and, we may add, in a scepticism occasionally excessive, is worthy of study as the only recent thorough, comprehensive German work in its own sphere. The book was originally meant to be a remodelled edition of Becker's work, but has actually taken a widely different shape. The part which has now appeared is the first division of the first volume ; the second was published seven years ago, but in the meanwhile the author issued his valuable edition of the ancient "Capitoline" plan of Rome with the support of the Berlin Academy ("Forma urbis Romæ regionum xiv," 1874, with 33 colored plates). Jordan speaks with great respect of De Rossi and Lanciani, but descends on Parker's 'Archæology of Rome' (still in course of publication) very severely, with the words "a dilettante book, highly inconvenient in shape, utterly without any scientific basis, which could be left unmentioned if it did not contain some illustrations that could not be obtained, or only with difficulty, elsewhere." While the reader of this book may be disappointed at being forced to realize how surprisingly little we know of the ancient city, how very imperfect most of the existing topographical material is, and what a mass of useless polemics and obsolete or demonstrably false theories has to be removed, leaving but a small heap of wheat by a mountain of chaff, he will be repaid by the residuum of indubitable, strictly tested fact, by the many important results of the excavations between 1870 and 1876, and by a number of new and very interesting details, which lend freshness to our ideas of the life of ancient Rome. Those who have had an opportunity of visiting the Eternal City will be gratified to find that in many respects it deserves that title by having altered less than is generally supposed. The mean temperature, Jordan believes, has not materially altered ; the malaria seems to have been a regularly recurring danger then as now ; the inundations of the Tiber followed very much the same course ; the most important thoroughfares in and about the ancient city are, broadly speaking, still closely followed by modern streets, guided by the general character of the ground ; ancient sewers, ancient aqueducts still in part do their duty ; the Rome of the Empire, like the Rome of the Popes, had its gardens on the Pincian, its fountains at innumerable street-corners ; all this, not to speak of the better-known differences. The great fires of ancient days, even that under Nero, effected, the author thinks, changes far less important than hitherto assumed. Though an imperial city—the most magnificent the world has ever seen—even the great streets had no names posted up ; the side-streets had often no names at all ; the houses no numbers. If you asked your way, it was told you by laboriously counting so and so many side-streets, then so and so many pillars in a long row of precisely similar ones separating one shop from another. The names of the streets are not without interest : two only within the older walls were "ways," the Sacred Way and the New Way ; other names of the Republican Period are : "Among the Potters," "Among the Scythemakers," "Garlic Street," "Money-changers' Street," "Shoemakers' Street," "Glaziers' Street," etc. The name of the Accursed Street is familiar. Many preserve the family names of magistrates, or are called after neighboring temples or gates, or after neighboring public monuments, statues, pictures, or signs—*e.g.*, the streets "of Shepherds' Cross-road, the Wooden Pillar, the Dolphin, the Restored Mile-stone, the Spouting Fountain-Mask, the Head of Africa." We just instance these matters, rather than other things in the book, because they bring modern and ancient life more closely together, and the essential interest of the study of antiquities lies in this very tracing back of our common human nature, even in details. We hope we shall not be kept long waiting for the continuation of this excellent work.

Popular Astronomy. By Simon Newcomb, LL D., Professor U. S. Naval Observatory. (New York : Harper & Bros.)—The public naturally like to hear what a man who has recently distinguished himself has to tell them about his specialty ; and astronomers will be glad to have a collection of Professor Newcomb's highly competent opinions in regard to various questions of astronomy. This book will not, however, fascinate the general reader. The style in which it is written suggests that it may have been first composed for a school text-book, and afterwards worked over for popular reading. In Part I. an attempt is made to teach the first elements of astronomy in their historical development ; a very good idea, well worthy of a fuller working out. Part II. is entitled "Practical Astronomy," not certainly because it teaches anything practically, but because it supplies information concerning telescopes and the work which is done with them. Part III. describes the solar system, and Part IV. the stellar universe.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Abbott (Rev. E. A.), How to Parse	(Roberts Bros.) $1 00
Adams (C. F., jr.), Railroads: their Origin and Problems	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)
Browne (I.), Short Studies of Great Lawyers	(Albany *Law Journal*)
Bryant (W. C.) and Gay (S. H.), Popular History of the United States, Vol. II.	(Charles Scribner's Sons)
Destiny of Russia	(Thomas Wilson)
Gems of American Scenery: White Mountains	(Harroun & Bier tadt)
Grohman (W. A. B.), Gaddings with a Primitive People	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 00
Grove (G.), Dictionary of Music and Musicians, Part 3, swd	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 25
Guerrier (G. P.), Pipes of Corn: Poetry, swd	(W. B. Clarke)
Habberton (J.), The Crew of the *Sam Weller*, swd	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 40
Kirkman (M. M.), Railway Service: Trains and Stations	(*Railroad Gazette*)
Lamb (C.), Essays of Elia, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.) 30
Le Fanu (J. S.), Birds of Passage: a Tale, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.) 25
Longworth (N.), Sophocles's Electra Translated in Verse	(Robt. Clarke & Co)
McPherson (E.), Hand-book of Politics for 1878	(Solomons & Chapman) 2 00

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Continued from page iii.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 8, 1878.

The Week.

THE week has produced one good sign in politics and another bad one. The Maine Republicans have, without ifs or buts, made the financial question the most prominent plank in their platform. It is true that when they demand "honest money for the people," and declare that "the currency must be as good as coin and redeemable in it," they probably mean depreciated silver as well as gold coin; but they nevertheless denounce all schemes of paper inflation, and even Mr. Blaine, this time drawing his feet firmly together, vehemently reprobated repudiation of the paper obligations of the Government in all its forms. Besides "pointing with pride," the remainder of the platform approves of "temperance among the people" and of the navigation laws, and exposes the evil designs of the Democrats, including the payment of $100,000,000 of suspended war claims.

The bad sign is the breakdown of Mr. Foster, of Ohio, one of the ablest and most clear-headed and rational members of the late House, who, after prominently supporting Mr. Hayes's wise, because inevitable, course towards the South, has gone back to his constituents, and, finding them probably cool or hostile towards the Administration and being a candidate for re-election, has abandoned his old position and virtually admitted that "the policy" is a failure. The reasons he gives for coming to this sad conclusion are that (1) the Southerners have not shown their gratitude by voting the Republican ticket; (2) that the illicit distillers at the South are angry when the United States revenue officers visit them; (3) that Jeff. Davis makes treasonable speeches; and (4) that Mr. Singleton, of Mississippi, says "that his paramount allegiance in peace and war is due to his State." As a remedy for this deplorable state of things Mr. Foster proposes that the "Solid South" should be for an indefinite period confronted by the "Solid North," which of course means that the one business of the Republican orator and editor and politician at the North shall be abuse and depreciation of the South, and the promotion of hostile feelings towards Southern men. The objections to this piece of statesmanship are that a Solid North cannot be obtained for any such purpose, and that a party which had no better reason than this to give for its existence would soon become a powerless, cursing, and vituperating Rump, and this is what the Republican party is in danger of becoming if such counsels as Mr. Foster's are followed. No party can in our time live on hate alone: it must show the capacity to govern. A man of Mr. Foster's sense surely cannot expect the South to reveal in one short year its gratitude for having been subjected for twelve years to the rule of the little party of jail birds who have been testifying before the Potter Committee.

In this State the campaign cannot be said to have begun, but the preparations for it have. It will be a very important one, for on it will depend not only the selection of Mr. Conkling's successor in the Senate, but the future of the "greenback-labor" movement, and also in part of the Democratic Presidential nomination of 1880; to say nothing of the mayoralty in this city, which promises to give the politicians a great deal of trouble. The mayoralty question the *Herald* proposes to settle by giving the office either to Mr. Whitelaw Reid, Mr. George Jones, or Mr. Charles A. Dana. This, however, seems to be advanced in jest rather than seriously. Following the example of our "esteemed daily contemporaries," we have interviewed leading Democrats on the situation, whose names we withhold from the same motives of delicacy which influence them. They report that Mr. Tilden has cut loose from many of his former friends and associates, and is relying in his present movement chiefly on the country and Kings County Democracy; that in the convention which is to be held before long he relies on both Tammany and anti-Tammany delegations being excluded until the organization is captured by his forces, after which he expects to have virtual control of the State. We have also learned that the anti-Conkling party, or Administration Republicans, expect to be beaten in their fight for the control of the machine. It is to be noticed also that Tammany Hall has lost the support of very nearly the entire press of the city, without anybody having gained it.

No reasonable man can honestly deny that, everything considered, the progress of the South since March, 1877, has been remarkable. If any one will take up the predictions of the Republican papers during the fall of 1876 as to the consequences of Wade Hampton's election in South Carolina, for instance, and contrast them with the reality to-day, he will be amazed. The negroes are growing in wealth, in intelligence, and in self-respect all over the South. They are in the enjoyment, for the first time, of security for person and property, and with the growth of wealth and intelligence political weight must come. No combinations of the whites can prevent it. Signs of division in the white ranks already show themselves in various States, and as these divisions grow the negro vote must become more and more independent. Wade Hampton has already a crazy reactionary movement started against him by General Butler; in Georgia Alexander H. Stephens has had another, and has triumphed over it, and in Tennessee and Kentucky the "Bourbon element" and the nascent National party have been beaten by a combination of Republicans and Liberal Democrats. Anybody who, instead of encouraging these healthy symptoms by a spirit of conciliation and kindness, produces hate and discord and fratricidal passions as a remedy for evils which the experience of a thousand years has proved that they cannot cure, is a public enemy, besides being a fool.

Mr. Hewitt's House Committee, charged with the duty of enquiring into the condition of the laboring population, have been rendering the community a good deal of service during the week by giving a hearing to all the apostles and evangelists of the labor movement who presented themselves, and the result is reassuring as showing that there is no general agreement among them on any scheme for the reorganization of society. Each reformer is, in fact, a "solitary thinker," and most of the schemes produced have been so absurd, and in such flagrant contradiction with all the facts of life, that when produced by poor men who have to earn their living there is a certain pathos in their folly. One feels that a man whose brain harbors such fancies cannot earn a living, and must be supported by somebody or starve. Most of them, too, showed that they never discussed their hobbies with any one of a different way of thinking, for a single question from the committee often disconcerted them. It was indicative of the utter ungeniality of the American atmosphere for these dreamers that most of their plans caused great laughter among the audience. Their opportunity came to an end on Tuesday. Hereafter the committee will summon their own witnesses, and hear what the sane and well-informed have to say.

Kearney has made his appearance at Faneuil Hall, in Boston, where he has delivered one of his blasphemous harangues to a tumultuous crowd of workingmen, who appeared greatly delighted with his oratory and indulged in enthusiastic cheering over the name of Butler. The General has had a meeting with Kearney, in which the latter propounded several "constitutional questions" on the subject of the Chinese, which the General justly observed "required time for thought," and took home with him. They talked over the various ways of dealing with capitalists, including robbing and

hanging, but came to no decision as to the best plan, Kearney reminding the General that men like Vanderbilt were called "thieves" on the Pacific coast; the General admitting that the proposition might be justified by the facts, but indicating a philosophical desire to lay the blame "on the system rather than on the men." Butler seems sure of the workingmen's nomination for governor. With this hanging over the community and his new California "pal" belching forth in Faneuil Hall curses and threats against everything that has made the State prosperous and civilized, and a large party rising into sudden power based on the "social theories" of this pair, Massachusetts presents a pretty spectacle to the world.

As we have said more than once, the silver craze must not be allowed to pass away, and the experiment of a double standard composed of two metals of widely different value be abandoned, without the punishment of at least some of those who have been most active in inducing the country to try it. This punishment need not, and perhaps ought not to consist in the infliction of any *legal* penalty; simple withdrawal for a short period from the public gaze, as a sign of shame or sorrow, would be sufficient. The two persons who have most prominently exposed themselves to this penalty are Messrs. Halstead and Medill, and we have supposed them both to be men of too much dignity not to go into exile when the time for it has plainly come. We are therefore pained to find Mr. Halstead framing excuses for postponing indefinitely his own departure for Europe. He assured us that if we insisted on "making the bonds and other contracts payable in gold," the Greenbackers would end by paying the contracts in inconvertible paper, and that the way to escape this danger was to make them payable in depreciated silver. In other words, he advised us, by way of preventing a total robbery, to agree to participate in a robbery of ten per cent., he guaranteeing that, this done, honesty would resume its sway. So we joined him in the ten per cent. robbery, but we now find that the robbery of the remaining ninety per cent. is more popular than ever, and has a large party in its favor. On mentioning this to him, he replies that the men who did not want to rob at all and the ten-per-cent. robbers must still "stand together" on what he calls "high and firm ground"—that is, we presume, the ground that it is inexpedient to cheat more than ten per cent.; but we quite agree with the Greenbacker that this is a purely arbitrary line, which neither Mr. Halstead nor any other moralist has a right to fix. We therefore warn him again that there is no use in waiting or temporizing. Nothing will turn up to help him out of his trouble. His pursuer is Law, and it follows him "without haste, without rest." He may run fast now and then, and occasionally hide himself in the bushes, but it will surely overtake and lodge him with unerring hand in the cabin of an ocean steamer.

Mr. Manton Marble has addressed a letter to the papers on the subject of "the Fraud," to which the anti-Fraud press gives considerable prominence, but which the journals that "hold Fraud sacred" treat with ridicule and contempt. Mr. Marble, who was during the electoral trouble of 1876 a close friend of Mr. Tilden, now declares that the prevailing impression that Mr. Tilden had no plan of his own for the settlement of the disputed title to the Presidency is entirely erroneous; that he had a plan and a very distinct one. His idea, it seems, was that the Democrats, having the right of the matter and not contemplating any revolutionary plans, should simply stand upon the constitutional doctrine that both houses had equal and co-ordinate rights in the counting of the votes; and that as to the contingency of the failure of an election (in which case the House elects) the House was itself the sole judge of its arising. The effect of this plan would have been to throw the responsibility of any act of usurpation on the Republicans. The two houses would, of course, have disagreed as to the count of the disputed States, and if the House persisted in its view one of two things would have happened—either enough Republicans in the Senate would have gone over to the Democratic side to secure the election of Mr. Tilden, or the House would, at the last moment, have declared the popular election null and void and proceeded to elect him itself. In neither case would any force have been resorted to, and in either case, according to Mr. Tilden, the moral superiority of the Democratic position must have made it triumph in the end. If force was resorted to, it must be by the Republicans. In other words, his plan was a policy of delay. Mr. Hewitt, it should be observed, does not corroborate Mr. Marble in his description of Mr. Tilden's attitude, though agreeing with him as to the opposition of the Democratic candidate to all the plans actually proposed. Mr. Hewitt represents him as urging delay, without any plan of his own, and when informed that something must be done at once, begging for more time for the purpose of maturing a plan. If we are to take Mr. Marble's statement as the correct view, the only trouble with Mr. Tilden's plan was it could not have been carried out; the Democrats themselves had not the nerve, and, indeed, it may be said that the country had not the nerve, to let things drift along until the 4th of March without any action at all. Mr. Marble, too, is entirely in error in representing the Electoral Commission plan as a surrender to the Republicans. Mr. Hewitt's telegram of January 16, 1877, to Mr. Edward Cooper—"Our Senate friends earnestly favor acceptance, because they do not believe it possible to pass over ——"—gives the general Democratic feeling at the time. "——" is, of course, Judge Davis, who it was then confidently believed would be the fifth judge. Mr. Marble's letter is long and able, though full of a funny sort of lego-scriptural rhetoric.

It will be remembered that Insurance-Superintendent Smyth, of this State, was arraigned last spring before the Senate and by them acquitted of unlawfully collecting the costs of examination from the companies direct, instead of from the State, after the bills had been audited by the Comptroller. One of the Senators who sat on this trial, and voted for acquittal, was Mr. Harris, of the law firm of Harris & Rudd, who had in his professional capacity advised Mr. Smyth that he might safely disregard the express provisions of the statute. The same firm recently submitted to the Comptroller a bill against the Germania Insurance Company for his audit, but with the intention of presenting it to the company for payment. The Comptroller thereupon consulted Attorney-General Schoonmaker as to the propriety of his auditing and paying this bill without a hearing on the part of the company, although the Legislature had made no provision for such a hearing; and also as to the propriety of the company's direct payment of the bill, with or without the Comptroller's audit. The Attorney-General replies that the Comptroller is clearly bound, under the statute, to audit and pay the bill from moneys appropriated for the purpose; that he must do so even if the provision for reimbursing the State from the companies is defective or nugatory; that, although the law does not explicitly provide for a hearing on the part of the companies, nevertheless, as the act of auditing is a judicial one, it implies such a hearing, with authority to examine witnesses and to require verification or proof of the bills. He therefore considers it the Comptroller's duty to hear the parties, and to take testimony if offered or if it appears necessary. That the companies should settle directly with the examiners of the department or their attorneys is distinctly prohibited and illegal. This opinion relieves honest companies of blackmail, but, as it leaves the amount of the bill still to be fixed by the department, there is a considerable margin for "squeezing" in the case of companies not anxious to be heard at the auditing. The Attorney-General says that the courts must decide whether, under the right of supervision, any sum may be collected of a company, "even to the extent of disabling it to transact business."

The Indian "war" has degenerated into a scarcely-exciting pursuit of the various scattered bands which when united gave some color to the idea that the outbreak was a formidable one. It is now evident that the hostile force was always insignificant in point of mere numbers, and that we have been hunting down a desperate few who preferred death in the field to starvation at the agency. That these were the manlier part of the tribe, whose lives ought to

have been preserved by Government care as they would have been by natural selection, no one in his sober senses will deny. Reports have been received from the San Carlos Agency in Arizona that the Indians there were in a starving condition, and were resolved, if not relieved immediately, to leave the reservation. General McDowell has urged upon the War Department the economy of feeding them rather than fighting them, as the Territory has been stripped of troops for the Northern operations, and even if an abundant force were available they could not be kept from depredations if driven to them by hunger. Governor Hoyt, of Wyoming, has visited the Shoshonis, Bannocks, and Arapahoes in their reservations and found them destitute of food and agricultural implements, and bitterly complaining of Government neglect and promises unfulfilled.

In the financial markets the events of the week were the advance in the Bank of England discount rate to 4 per cent., the continued large demand for U. S. 4 per cent. bonds, and the decline at the New York Stock Exchange in the price of speculative stocks. The rise in the rate for money in London was caused by the drain of gold to the Continent and by the appearance of new corporate loans. These latter, during June and July, amounted to nearly $100,000,000, or more than twice as much as during the corresponding months in the two previous years. Bills on London here advanced to 4.87½ for short-sight drafts, partly owing, however, to the scarcity of commercial bills incident to the wheat speculation at Milwaukee and the appearance of yellow fever at New Orleans, which, it is feared, will delay the cotton movement. The popular demand for U. S. 4 per cent. bonds has not abated; the sales average about $1,000,000 per day. Another $5,000,000 of 5-20 6 per cents was called in for redemption, making $50,000,000 so called since May 1 on account of the sales of 4 per cents. The decline in railroad stocks was largest in the shares of the Western railroads which derive their grain-tonnage from the States of Wisconsin, Iowa, and Minnesota. It appears that the damage to the spring wheat in parts of these States has been important, but there is little doubt that the injury has been overestimated in the prices of stocks, as is usually the case at the Stock Exchange. The decline in these stocks during the last week was 4 to 7 per cent; the decline since the injury to the crops was first talked of is 16½ to 22 per cent. Silver in London has been steady at 52⅝*d.* to 52¾*d.* per ounce. The bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar at the close was $0.8894.

The English Liberals have, as was expected, been badly beaten in the division on Lord Hartington's motion of censure, the number being 338 to 195. The difficulty they have to contend with may fairly be pronounced insurmountable. Their real charge against Lord Beaconsfield is that, after having threatened to deprive Russia of the fruits of the war and set Turkey on her legs again, he has let Russia have all she could reasonably ask for, besides joining her in a spoliation of Turkey which she never proposed, and all to the manifest benefit of the Christian population. But this, if true, only proves Lord Beaconsfield to have been inconsistent to the point of charlatanry and to be unworthy of the confidence of sober-minded men; it does not prove that he has made a wrong settlement of the Eastern question as regards England, and it is the settlement only the people see; about the jugglery they do not concern themselves. As regards the Asiatic Convention, too, no Liberal can deny that it will be a good thing for the Christian population if carried out; all he does say is that it is too big a job for England to undertake without the consent of Parliament; but here again the Premier has his enemies at a disadvantage, for people do not mind the bigness of the undertaking as long as it redounds to the national glory, until the bills begin to come in. Five years hence the matter will probably wear a different aspect. In the meantime Beaconsfield and Salisbury are revelling in popular applause.

The only Philo-Turk who has come out of the affair with moral credit is the *Pall Mall Gazette*, which is now taking a savage pleasure in putting the reasons Lord Salisbury gives for the Anglo-Turkish Convention side by side with the ridicule he heaped, only a year ago, on the alarmists who thought Russian advances in Asia Minor were likely to endanger British interests; but here again what the opponents of the ministers really say is, "Why, you rascals, you have come round to our way of thinking," and the ministers only laugh and the mob cheers. The Asiatic enterprise, however, does not improve on examination, and the Liberals will probably find compensation for their present trials in watching the attempts to execute it. Lord Beaconsfield has performed another happy theatrical *coup* in appointing the Marquis of Lorne Governor-General of Canada. The Liberals would never have thought of the spectacular effect of this, but would have considered Lord Lorne's mental and political claims to the place. For these Lord Beaconsfield does not care a cent, but goes straight to the Canadian heart by setting up a Court at Ottawa with a Princess of the blood at the head of it. The great popular success of all these devices gives some idea of the mortifications wrought by much of the Liberal foreign policy. We have no doubt, for instance, that the Geneva Award, and the sight of the unexpended millions in the Treasury here, have rendered the present Ministry incalculable silent service among thousands of voters.

The debate in the House of Lords when Lord Beaconsfield laid the Treaty and protocols on the table was not particularly interesting, the Premier's speech being mainly an apologetic iteration of well-known facts. What was most valuable and important in it was Lord Derby's and Lord Northbrook's exposition of the probable difficulties of executing the Anglo-Turkish convention, by which Great Britain undertakes to see that the Sultan reforms one of the worst governments in the world—or, in other words, that all the pashas, mudirs, and cadis do their duty, that the taxes are fairly collected and honestly spent, justice well administered, and the roads policed over an enormous area. People in England have a vague idea that the problem can be solved as it has been solved in India, by a system of "residents"; but Lord Derby pointed out that in India the British resident at a native court has the supervision of the prince all to himself, while in Turkey there will be a "resident" from every one of the great Powers in every district, each with the right to advise the Turks, and all jealous of England. If, under these circumstances, the Turk proves a tractable pupil in civilization, it will argue a wonderful change in his nature.

The seeds of immediate or very near trouble seem to lie in the fact that Greece feels that she has been cheated by the Treaty and made a mistake in taking England's advice not to fight; and that, both in France and Italy, and especially in Italy, the public feels that its representative cut a small figure in the Congress, and ought, when the division of the spoil was going on, to have secured something, or to have conspicuously and successfully championed somebody's cause. The result will probably be that France will now take Greece up and egg her on, and make her a thorn in the side of the Porte. The Italians are furious, and their excitement seems to grow every day, thinking that when Austria got so much Italy ought to have secured those bits of Italian soil which are still under Austrian sway, Trieste and the Trentino—"Italia irredenta," or unredeemed Italy, as they call it. Indignation meetings are being held in various parts of the country at which the Government is denounced in unmeasured language, and the Ministry have had to address reassuring explanations to Austria. Lastly, the Bosnians and Mussulmans, probably with instigation from Constantinople, are resisting the Austrian troops in a small way, and the occupation will probably not be completed without bloodshed, and perhaps a resort to stern measures of repression after its completion. The Mussulman beys, or great landholders, have been for centuries a turbulent ruling class, real birds of prey, rebellious towards the Porte and fiercely rapacious towards the Christians; and the first work of the Austrian Government, and the most valuable, will be reduction of them to obedience to law.

THE GREAT ECONOMICAL DIFFICULTY OF THE DAY.

ONE of the most marked results of the application of steam and improved machinery to industrial operations during the last fifty years has been the rapid accumulation of great masses of capital available for the work of still further production. These masses of capital are known to the general public as "great fortunes," and for the most part are thought of not as capital so much as money possessed by individuals for the purposes of personal enjoyment. Nine out of ten, for instance, we venture to assert, among the farmers and workingmen, whenever they heard of the late A. T. Stewart being the owner of $50,000,000, thought of it as a sum which Mr. Stewart amused himself with or spent in luxury, or did something with that was not quite right—they could not tell exactly what. The probabilities are, too, that if they talked the matter over with one of the social reformers of the day he agreed with them in thinking that no one man ought to be allowed to have as much money as that; that it was not good for him or for the community; and that it was a great pity that some safe means could not be devised of preventing his acquiring it, or taking it away from him after he had acquired it, on the assumption that the more he had the less other people had. Of course the remedies proposed for the evils of great fortunes are various. The more moderate reformers would fix a maximum at which each person's accumulations should cease, or put on a progressive tax which would make accumulation beyond a certain point difficult or impossible. The radicals would seize the whole of it, and have it used and managed by the state for the employment of labor and the more equitable distribution of happiness. But the idea which, whatever its cause or aims, underlies all hostility to the possession of great amounts of money by individuals is the same—viz., that the individual owner makes a bad use of it, and that with a little pains somebody could be found who would use it better. It is this which inspires all the diatribes in Congress and at labor meetings against the "money kings," which in many minds makes increasing poverty of the poor an inseparable concomitant of increasing riches of the rich, and which inspires most of the attempts to increase the control of the Government over industry, either in the shape of inspection or regulation, or of the execution of "public improvements." Talk to anybody you please who is mourning over the badness of the times and thinks there is some other way of recovery than through industry, economy, and security, and you will find that he is possessed by the idea that the capital—*i. e.*, the accumulated wealth of the country—is in bad hands, and that the Government should either force the present possessors to part with it somehow or should itself seize it, through taxation or confiscation, and use it in the work of production, under the superintendence of its own officers; and he assumes that there would be no difficulty in finding the right kind of officers for the work for very moderate salaries.

Now the painful truth is—and it is a truth which the occurrences of every day make plainer and plainer—that, so far from there being a superabundance of the kind of talent needed to manage great sums of money profitably or usefully, there is a great dearth of it. The men who own large fortunes and use them in the work of production and exchange may be said, as a general rule, to be the men who are best fitted to discover public wants and supply them. The great capitalist is, in other words, generally a man who has been appointed by natural selection to take charge of a portion of the savings of the community and use them to the best advantage in producing and exchanging. He gets hold of the capital, first, by knowing what is likely to be profitable, and, secondly, by knowing how to take care of the profits after they are made; and his remuneration for his services consists in the portion of the profits he spends on himself, which in this country seldom exceeds forty or fifty thousand a year. The rest he reinvests or lends to other producers. That his talent is a very rare one is proved by the very small number of men who make fortunes and keep them, or who, having inherited fortunes, do not lose them, and by the enormous difficulty which exists in finding persons equal to administrative duties, even of the simplest kind. There is probably no employer of labor who cannot testify to the trouble there is in filling any place which calls for the exercise of judgment and discretion, or, in other words, which cannot be filled under precise instructions, or which requires any unusual combination of mental and moral qualities—say the union of clear-headedness with energy and persistence, or strong reasoning power with tact in dealing with men, or great business capacity with strict integrity. The head of a great factory, or mine, or railroad needs all these in the highest degree; a corporation which gets hold of such a man for its president or treasurer almost invariably succeeds; for want of such officers most of the corporations which are started are sooner or later wrecked and hundreds of millions of capital lost. In fact, we do not hesitate to say that were the administrative talent of the country increased by one-third, production would be more than doubled, and the security of the savings of the frugal increased ten-fold. Very few of the corporations which have failed since 1873 have failed through any other cause than the want of ability or of integrity of the officer managing the capital of the concern, and the success of even the most prosperous of those now in existence is well known to be due to their luck in having men of marked administrative capacity and high character at their head. No kind of capacity is, in short, harder to find. Good material for lawyers, doctors, judges, editors, ministers, farmers, mechanics, abounds among us; but men to whom one can commit a large sum of money with perfect confidence in their ability to invest it in some undertaking that is likely to pay, and manage that undertaking with prudence and sagacity and honesty, are extremely scarce, and their scarcity has been made increasingly manifest by the great growth of wealth within the last forty years. Indeed, it is literally true that we have more money than we know what to do with—*i.e* , than we can find men fit to manage.

The financial history of the last eighteen years illustrates this curiously. When the tide of speculation began to rise after the war, with its swarm of new enterprises, there appeared among us a large body of "financiers" of great repute, who had immense enterprises on foot, and to whom all the simple-minded ran for advice, and whose mere hint was supposed to be sufficient to make a poor man's fortune. The widows and orphans and professional men brought out their savings in every direction and invested on their opinion, with almost childlike confidence, in railroads, mines, factories, steamship companies, real estate, and what not. There probably has not been so much money invested on mere faith in authority, and without any enquiry, from the foundation of the Government down to 1860 as between 1860 and 1873. It is safe to say that fifty per cent. of it has been lost, that of the financiers under whose advice it was invested not five per cent. have preserved their reputations as counsellors, while a large proportion of them are themselves ruined, and that people now look back on their confidence in them as a kind of madness. At this moment among the many hindrances to a revival of business is the difficulty of finding directors of undertakings, or, in other words, the dearth of administrative talent. It is felt seriously in the Government, in education, and in all branches of trade and exchange—in everything, in short, in which numbers of men have to be superintended, and complicated pecuniary transactions safely carried out. The small supply of it we have—small, we mean, compared to the demand created for it by our wealth and energy—comes to us almost wholly by the process of natural selection; that is, the men who fill the places make the places for themselves. They do not appear in answer to advertisements or after a laborious process of search. They are men whose fitness is so notorious that anybody's testimony to it is superfluous, and even ridiculous; nobody is competent to fix the amount of their salary—they fix it themselves.

Nevertheless, with these facts staring them in the face, and matter of everyday experience, there is hardly a plan for reviving business or improving the condition of the workingman through legislation that makes its appearance, whether it comes from the foul-mouthed Communist or the sentimental philanthropist, which does not

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involve or call for an enormous corps of administrators of the highest class, who are to superintend vast and complicated enterprises, handle huge sums of money, and make great multitudes happy and contented on salaries of $2,000 and $2,500 a year, and these Social Archdeacons are to be got, of course, by caucus nomination. We are to take a great fortune out of the hands of a Stewart, and, because Stewart has his weaknesses, give it to somebody who was never quite able to exchange any species of service for the support of his own family, or take a great railroad out of the hands of "Tom Scott" because Scott is not all we could desire, and give it to somebody whose brain the running of two omnibuses would bemuddle into bankruptcy.

JUSTICE BETWEEN THE EAST AND THE WEST.

AT the recent State Convention of the Arkansas Democrats the eleventh resolution of the platform adopted relates to the Southern Pacific Railroad, and pointedly calls on Congress for "money aid" in behalf of that enterprise. The railroad company itself is less presuming. It only asks the endorsement of the Government to a few millions of bonds which it proposes to put on the market, expressly disclaiming all appeal for "money aid." Adjoining Arkansas is Missouri, and the Democrats of that State have likewise been in convention. They, too, have a pet measure for the development of Western interests, which the National Government is called upon to adopt and portion. But as they put their petition, or rather demand, on a higher ground than a charitable contribution, we propose to give them the benefit of their own argument. The eighth resolution of their platform is as follows:

"That, in view of the large appropriations that have been made by the Federal Government for works of public improvement on the seaboard and lakes, justice to the people of the Mississippi Valley demands that appropriations shall be made for the improvement of the Mississippi River and its tributaries commensurate with its commercial wants and the interests of this section of the country. Believing in the constitutional power of the Government to aid in the construction of national enterprises which serve to benefit large sections of the country, and which cannot be accomplished by individual enterprise or State action, we favor such legislation in this behalf as will not increase the national indebtedness or impose any additional burdens upon the people; such a policy, in our opinion, while it would cheapen the cost of transportation and add to our agricultural wealth, would afford remunerative employment to the surplus labor of the country."

It will thus be seen that the Democrats of Missouri are asking simply that "justice" be done between the East and the West in the matter of national money appropriations. So far as their recommendation concerns legislation that "will not increase the national indebtedness or impose any additional burdens upon the people," although looking to one of the most gigantic enterprises ever projected at the national expense, it must be admitted that the views of the resolution-makers seem to be somewhat involved, and the language used is doubtless to be set to the account of political claptrap; but the idea of *justice* in the apportionment of Government aid among the different sections of the country is clear, concise, and emphatic. There is no ambiguity about the word, nor about the sense in which it is employed. We like it exceedingly in the connection in which it is used. It is high time for the element of "justice" to be considered in making Government appropriations, with a view to the rights of those who have to contribute, in a manner and to an extent not heretofore dreamed of. Indeed, in the past the public money has been dealt out according to the caprices or the bargains of Congressmen, with scarcely any reference to the equities of the case. It is time that the figures were being arranged in some sort of order and a balance struck in a way to determine who should pay and who should receive. By all means let some attention hereafter be given to the justice of the matter.

But in deciding what would be a just accounting between the East and the West on the basis of equality in gifts and receipts, the first question is, What items are to come into the calculation? The Missouri Democrats were doubtless thinking merely of Congressional grants. But is that all that should be considered? We think not; for it so happens that the West has received in aid of its leading enterprises certain large contributions from Eastern pockets that now constitute a binding legal and moral debt with which Congress has had nothing to do. The State of Arkansas, for instance, since the war has expended nearly twelve millions of dollars in the construction of railroads, levees, and other internal improvements, or at least has issued bonds to that amount on their account. These improvements she now has and enjoys, and if they are not as valuable as she expected them to be the miscalculation has been her own. Not having the money for their construction herself, she issued her bonds, which were in good faith and for value purchased, and are now almost exclusively held by Eastern people and institutions. What difference does it make, so far as the obligation of Arkansas to the East is concerned, that Congress had nothing to do with the matter? Again, to assist in building railroads and other public works which they deemed essential to their prosperity, Arkansas counties and cities issued bonds to the amount of nearly $10,000,000 more, which were sold in the East, where they have remained. These bonds, as well as those of the State, are still outstanding. The principal in no case has been paid, and the interest rarely. On the municipal securities in some instances suits have been brought in the United States courts by non resident creditors, judgments have been obtained, and writs of mandamus have been issued to compel the payment of what is due. So the matter stands; but when we look at the platform of the Arkansas Democrats we find that the tenth resolution—it is the eleventh that asks Congress for "money aid" to the Southern Pacific Railroad—is an appeal to Congress to interpose between the Federal courts and the delinquent communities by taking the writ of mandamus from the former, so that Eastern capitalists whom Arkansas wishes to tax for another railroad for her benefit will not be able to collect the money they have advanced to supply her with the railroads she already has. Is that justice? And looking further, we find that the twelfth and thirteenth resolutions favor the absolute repudiation of the $12,000,000 of railroad and levee bonds which the State has issued, and urge a constitutional amendment which shall for ever prohibit their payment, so that their holders, who are to be called upon to contribute involuntarily to the State's further development, will never get back a cent of the money they have voluntarily lent her. Is that justice?

Turning to Missouri, we find that the people of that State a few years ago were very anxious for railroads. They had not the means to construct them, and so their cities and counties issued their bonds to an aggregate amount of twenty millions of dollars, and sold them mostly to people in the Eastern States. They have got their railroads, but, as a general thing, they now refuse to pay the bonds. Sixty counties represented in the convention that asked Congress, in the name of justice, to put its hand into the national treasury and take therefrom enough money, belonging to people East as well as West, to improve the navigation of "the Mississippi River and its tributaries," are refusing to pay, according to contract, for the commercial facilities they already possess. And that, too, after Congress has contracted with Mr. Eads to pay some fifteen millions of dollars from the national coffer for opening the mouth of the Mississippi. To say nothing of the modesty of this further demand for jettying the Mississippi and all its tributaries, at an incalculable outlay of Eastern as well as Western treasure, we simply ask whether, under the circumstances, there is "justice" in the proposal?

We do not now oppose Congressional appropriations for so-called public improvements, although ordinarily benefiting but limited areas; but we insist that, when it comes to the question of apportionment between the East and the West, the State and municipal debts of the West to the East, that have been contracted in aid of public improvements, shall be taken into the account. There can be no equalization that leaves them out of view. Another thing to be insisted upon is that, in its appropriation of the money of the public, Congress should make no grants to communities that refuse to pay their bonded debts, which are simply debts owing to the public; in other words, that Congress shall see to it that there is

honesty on one side, as well as liberality on the other. Not only does Congress owe the adoption of such a rule to the cause of public morals, which throughout large portions of the West is rapidly yielding to a spirit of lawless repudiation, but it is a necessary condition of "justice." Why should the holders of dishonored Arkansas and Missouri bonds, that have supplied those States with a large share of the commercial facilities they possess, be called upon to contribute further to their systems of internal improvements, when they cannot get even thanks from their supercilious debtors? It is time these matters were being considered, both in view of the increasing demands upon the nation's bounty, and the growing indifference of large sections of the country to the sacredness of their legal obligations. It is time that Eastern Congressmen were having their attention called to them, and that Eastern constituencies were selecting representatives who will weigh them. The subject has been too long neglected by those who have had charge of the national purse. One illustration on this point is sufficient. At the last session of Congress, in an appropriation bill which was hurried through in the last turbulent hours, there is said to have been a considerable grant for a public building at, and chiefly for the benefit of, Kansas City, in the State of Missouri. Kansas City is in a county and a township that together owe three-quarters of a million of dollars on bonds which were sold by their own agents, of which they have the benefit, and about the equity of which no question can be raised, but on which, although perfectly able, they pay not one cent. Not another dollar of public money should go to that work while that state of things continues. Other similar instances might be given.

THE ALLIANCE OF THE EMPERORS.

PARIS, July 11, 1878.

THE work of the Congress of Berlin is progressing with a stupendous rapidity, and the easy manner in which questions of the greatest magnitude are solved with a *trait de plume* would sufficiently show that preliminary arrangements had taken place between the great Powers, if the whole world had not been made aware of it by the trial of the unfortunate clerk who sold for a few pounds a copy of the famous Memorandum signed by Count Shuvaloff and Lord Salisbury.

It is becoming more and more evident to all who have eyes and are willing to use them that the so-called alliance of the three Emperors has always been a stout and solid reality; that Russia entered into the Eastern war with the permission not only of Germany but of Austria. Count Andrássy had a difficult task, and, on the whole, he may be said to have performed it well, perhaps owing to his defects as much as to his qualities; by his defects I mean a natural indolence, a sort of *laissez-aller*, a great dread of written engagements. He had to take care of the Hungarians, who have all along been in full sympathy with the Turks, and who have a great contempt for all the Christian Slavs; it pleases the Magyars to have one of themselves Chancellor of Austria-Hungary, adorning the court with his fine person and his dazzling uniforms. The Hungarians have been amused all along by a simulacrum of opposition to the plans of Russia, or at least by bold and high-sounding declarations that Austria-Hungary would defend Austro-Hungarian interests as soon as they were endangered. Then came the "accomplished fact"; Turkey was crushed at Plevna, the whole fabric of the Ottoman Empire fell to the ground; it was perceived that after all this dreaded empire was but a shell, and the shell was broken. If the Russian armies had chosen to enter Constantinople they would have met with no serious resistance. The mere fact that they did not crown their victory by the occupation of Stamboul was a new demonstration that the alliance of the three Emperors was not an empty word; it is clear that Constantinople was forbidden ground and a sort of *ne plus ultra*.

So far all went well with Russia; the Hungarian demonstration was not very serious, the German Chancellor paid not the slightest attention to the complaints of those intolerant Germans who were beginning to think that the "Colossus of the North" was becoming too big and endangered German interests. At this moment England entered on the scene. The real difficulties only began then, and the peace of the world seemed already in peril. What would have been the consequences of a war between Russia and England it is difficult to imagine; but everybody felt that Europe, and perhaps extra-European Powers, would be fatally drawn into its vortex. Already dangerous questions of maritime law were discussed; cruisers were bought or were preparing their armaments; the battle of the elephant and the whale, as Prince Bismarck called it, would necessarily have been long and full of unforeseen incidents. The Treaty of San Stefano seemed at one moment to have been completely torn in rags; the sweeping circular of Lord Salisbury left nothing untouched in the work of Prince Ignatieff. England was arming in earnest; she sent her regiments by the Suez Canal to Malta. It had been said all along that she had no army: her little army of England could not be a match for the stupendous Continental armies of the present day. But the statesman who added the title of Empress of India to the title of Queen of Great Britain had not done it for the vain object of adding a few rays to the lustre of the crown; he had intended to make England truly Asiatic, to make her the greatest power on earth, not only by the addition of acres and acres of land, but by the support of thousands and millions of men. The arrival of the gorgeous Indian regiments on the scene of Europe is one of the most extraordinary events of our time, of which all the consequences can hardly be foreseen.

Still, it was a bold, it was even an imprudent course to throw the Treaty of San Stefano away with contempt; to deny to Russia the right to alter the frontiers and the treaties without the consent of Europe; to refuse to her what was contained in her victories. Russia was not so exhausted as her enemies said. She had, owing to the opposition of England, only been allowed to borrow a little money at Berlin, in Holland, and in France; her foreign debt had only been increased by six hundred and fifty millions of francs—all the rest had been borrowed at home, in the shape of paper money. The rouble had lost much of its value, but the Minister of Finance had profited by its depreciation in buying back roubles with treasury bills; the Russian people was thoroughly used to the paper rouble; a little more or less in the circulation could not much affect the welfare of the country. Russia comes out of the war with her foreign debt very little increased, and her credit as a nation will undoubtedly soon be as good as it was before the war. As a nursery of men and of soldiers Russia can well be said to be inexhaustible. It seems, therefore, idle to say that she has been forced to make peace by her internal condition. England knew well what were the resources of Russia, and, though her statesmen assumed a very haughty tone and were willing to risk a war for the defence of English interests, they always preferred in their heart a pacific solution. It was felt by Count Shuvaloff, who is now well acquainted with English society, that England would after all be quite satisfied with a diplomatic victory, and that she was willing to give much of the substance to Russia if she could only keep for herself what could not well be called the shadow, but what is more properly included in the French word *prestige*. To appear before the world as the arbiter of peace and war, as the law-giver of nations, as the indispensable Power without whom nothing can be definitively settled, done, or undone, was enough for the pride of England. As for Russia, her subtle diplomacy has always known how to avoid all extremities; it was clearly her interest to keep as much as possible of the Treaty of San Stefano without going to war with England. She had asked for a maximum in order to be sure of a minimum. The minimum which she keeps can content a patriotic Russian, if it does not content thoroughly the Panslavic party. Russia has a despotic government, which is not placed under the control of the press and of a parliament. The Russian Government is, therefore, better placed for making great diplomatic concessions. Before the public, England maintained the right of Europe to have the *whole* of the San Stefano Treaty placed on the table of the Congress; but while taking this attitude she conducted negotiations with Russia, and the two Powers came to an agreement. Lord Salisbury's circular was the screen behind which the secret negotiations were conducted. The Crown Prince, who was at the time in England, had probably much influence on the issue of this secret negotiation; Nobiling's attempt on the life of the Emperor William was, indirectly, a powerful instrument of peace. How could the members of the Congress come to Berlin, under the painful circumstances created by this horrible attempt, without being determined to come to an agreement rapidly? Could they intrigue, fight, quarrel before the old, dying sovereign? Could they not all feel that more was in question in Europe than the fate of some half-barbarous countries in the East? This famous alliance of the Emperors, which had been the cornerstone of the policy of Prince Bismarck, was it to come to an end at the very moment when one of the Emperors had been twice in a single month threatened by assassins? What were Rumelia and Bessarabia and the Dobrudja, what was Batum and what was Sophia, compared to the terrible questions which were in the minds of all European statesmen?

Prince Bismarck is not an idler, he is not an *idéologue;* when he came back from Varzin and found his old king, now become an Emperor, in the state in which he still lingers, he probably made up his mind to end this miserable Eastern Question as well and as soon as he could. Something is rotten now in the state, not of Denmark, but of Germany; something is going wrong in Russia: Sara Vassulitch has become in Geneva the guest of the French Communists. Bismarck may have himself reflected bitterly on the *Kulturkampf* and the May laws, and asked himself if it was safe to introduce in the common school theories on which the highest thinkers cannot pronounce. The immense development of wealth created by the railways and by industry, the corresponding misery, the revolutionary agitations of the last thirty years, the wars, the uprooting, if I may say so, of all human existences, have all contributed to shake European society to its very foundations. The governments, if they understand their mission, had better keep the keys of their own houses and act at home with prudence, firmness, and sagacity, rather than fight among themselves.

The Congress began with the alliance of the three Emperors, and how does it end? It ends by an alliance of the four Emperors (is not Queen Victoria Empress of India?). What happened in the East has been compared to the first partition of Poland, which was soon afterwards followed by a second partition. So it may be; but surely the new Principality of Bulgaria, under a Russian gendarmerie, with a Christian prince, will be happier than it was under the pashas; Austria will take better care of Bosnia and Herzegovina than Turkey had done before her. The new settlement, though it may be only a step towards a final settlement, marks a real progress for civilization. Even the Dobrudja, when it shall be crossed by dikes and cease to be a swamp, will be one of the most fertile countries in Europe. Turkey proper, crossed by roads and railways, will be a new country in a few years. As for the Asiatic provinces of Turkey, it remains to be seen how they will be transformed under the joint and, let us hope, harmonious influence of Russia and England.

SOCIALISM IN GERMANY.*

I.

HAMBURG, July, 1878.

THE social and communistic movement in Germany is older than is commonly known. It has passed through two stages of development. The first was theoretical, harmless, and sentimental; the second, however, is practical, materialistic, and highly dangerous.

The first period of German socialism began a few years prior to the Revolution of 1848, and was subdued a little later. It originated in 1844, when the linen-weavers in the mountainous districts of Silesia could no longer live on their scanty wages, so that a famine desolated several villages. In the summer of that year they rose in desperation, destroyed some factories, and attacked some of their employers, but a military force quickly quelled the riot, and the courts sentenced the ringleaders to severe punishment.

Insignificant as the whole affair appears in comparison with later events, the impression it made on the public mind was deep. It was as if society had suddenly discovered the fathomless chasm which separated two classes of the same people. It became alarmed, and by partly well conceived, partly foolish measures tried to atone for the shortcomings which announced their existence with bloodshed and fire. The well-to-do classes formed associations for the amelioration of the condition of the poor working-classes; philanthropists, high officials, and professors of universities organized societies for the moral advancement of mechanics and laborers; students and young people in general called for radical remedies, and even the Government directed its attention to the cure of the evil. While those who advocated reform and the peaceful social development called themselves, or were called, Socialists, the more radical, who pleaded for a social revolution as the only means of salvation, or who proposed to abolish private property, were designated as Communists.

At that time Germany had hardly begun to throw off the last remnants of feudalism and to develop her rich material resources. With the exception of some parts of Silesia, Westphalia, and Rhenish Prussia, agriculture and husbandry prevailed all over the country; 75 per cent. of its population were rural; there were no great industrial establishments, but few manufacturing interests, and no masses of working-people concentrated in great cities or in large industrial centres. German manufactories were in a transition from handiwork to machine-work. This process had just been initiated in the line of weaving and spinning; hence the poor weavers could not compete with the machines which were imported from England and Ireland. Shortsighted as they were, they considered as avarice on the part of their employers what was only the unavoidable consequences of modern industrial improvements. Comparatively, however, so small was at that time the number of those suffering that the Government was enabled in a great measure to alleviate their wants by teaching them another trade. The Minister of Commerce, under the superintendency of expert agents, sent dozens of skilled weavers to England, Belgium, and Turkey, where they learnt the weaving of Brussels, Smyrna, and other carpets. Thus a new industry was introduced into Germany, and enterprising manufacturers soon founded large factories. The town of Schmiedeberg, in the Giant Mountains, has since become one of the centres of elegant and fine carpet-weaving establishments. Several houses there work exclusively for the American market. A great many Smyrna carpets which you buy at present at Stewart's or Sloane's in New York have never seen the East, but are directly imported from Schmiedeberg.

Together with these benevolent and beneficial steps went a new social literature, the character of which was in general sentimental. Novels, poems, essays, and tragedies painted the misery of the working-classes in glowing colors and admired the generosity of their character, while they attacked the heartlessness of the better-situated minority and denounced the cruelty of the existing laws. Social periodicals were as numerous as short-lived; but they seldom dared to enter into disquisitions on leading social questions or politico-economic arguments. At that period even German public men and writers had but a faint idea of political economy, and only exceptionally made it a subject of their studies. Instead of expounding the fundamental laws of an exact science, they addressed their readers with glittering generalities and entertained them with harmless Utopias. Soon, however, a host of young and able men devoted their skill and energy to the propagation of Socialism. On this field, as on so many others, the first impetus was given by France; for at that time the social problem was almost the sole absorbing theme of her public life, and her authors—for instance, George Sand, Louis Blanc, Considérant, and Proudhon—tried to solve it. No less a man than Heinrich Heine, then living at Paris, who had already in earlier days been the interpreter of the creeds of St. Simon, Enfantin, and Fourier to the German mind, in 1844 published a wild revolutionary song on the sufferings and famine, the woe and the martyrdom, of the Silesian weavers. Almost all his poetical productions of that period bear the communistic and revolutionary red-hot stamp. Other poets like Georg Herwegh, Alfred Meissner, Moritz Hartmann, Ferdinand Freiligrath, and Carl Beck followed in his steps. Professor Lorenz Stein wrote the first systematic treatise on French Socialism and Communism, and thus made scholars and students acquainted with them. Newspaper correspondents like Moses Hess and Carl Grün studied the new doctrine at its sources in Paris and daily sent letters on the subject to their papers. German "ouvriers" returned year by year from Paris fresh with the new gospel they had imbibed in the workshops of that city, and which they were eager to reveal to their friends at home. The police arrested these apostles wherever it could, but was unable to prevent the spread of the new ideas among the working and even the so-called higher classes. One of the most fanatical of these prophets was a tailor by the name of Wilhelm Weitling, of Magdeburg, who in 1843 published his 'Guaranties and Harmonies of Freedom,' and for a time was a great authority among the Socialists. The critical part of his pamphlet is brilliant, while its constructive part is quite dull and in some of its deductions rather stupid. Weitling afterwards went to New York, and, having flattered himself in vain for years that he had invented a buttonhole sewing-machine, died some time ago while in the employ of the Commissioners of Emigration in Castle Garden.

These men, however, were only the forerunners of Karl Marx, who first based the social movement on scientific principles, and for more than thirty years has been, and still is, the spiritual leader not only of German but also of European Socialists and Communists. Remarkable by his indefatigable industry and the thoroughness of his studies as well as by the wide range of his researches and the philosophical and critical turn of his mind, he ranks among the first scholars of the time. His chief collaborator was and is Friedrich Engels, the son of a rich merchant at Barmen, who had spent several years at Manchester and studied there the condition of the English working-classes. Engel's book on that subject, published in 1845 in Leipzig, proved the author to be an able ob-

* This article is the first of three which we shall publish from the pen of a German writer of very high authority.—ED. NATION.

server and a sound political economist. His work distinguished itself as well by the fulness of its details and the boldness of its reasoning as by its bitter attacks on the manufacturing classes, and made a deep impression in Germany. The brilliant qualities of this man, however, are overshadowed by a reckless, domineering spirit, an insatiable ambition, and an intolerant character which blackens, vilifies, and, if possible, destroys everything and everybody in its way. He who does not believe implicitly in Marx, or who dares to have an opinion of his own, is doomed, driven out of the church, and denounced to the Philistine as a "bourgeois," as a spy, as an "agent provocateur," and in the eyes of the right-minded (as the slang of the church, the so-called Schwefelbande, goes) ruined and annihilated for ever. Like all founders of new creeds, Marx knows only obedient tools and blind admirers, and has but few friends.

Having studied philosophy in Bonn and Berlin, he adhered in his youth to the radical wing of Hegel's school, and associated with the most advanced German thinkers, whose respect he won by the keenness of his intellect and the acuteness of his reasoning. In 1842 he was appointed editor of the *Rheinische Zeitung* (Rhenish Gazette), an opposition journal established at Cologne by prominent merchants and bankers, such as Hansemann, Camphausen, and Mevissen, who in 1848 became reconciled to the Prussian rule, and, leaving behind their old liberal aspirations, cheerfully accepted seats in the Cabinet. Marx made his *Gazette* the leading one of all the opposition papers, and by its merciless criticism of Government measures, its bold and menacing tone, its sarcastic sneers at Prussian red-tapeism, raised such a storm that, although being daily submitted to the censorship, in the spring of 1843 it was, nevertheless, wholly suppressed by the Prussian authority. Marx himself, in the preface to the first number of his 'Political Economy,' says that when assuming his editorial duties he understood nothing of political economy, and that his attention had at first been called to it by being compelled to plead for the alleviation of the misery of the poor wine-growers on the Moselle. He soon after went to Brussels and Paris, and in the latter city published, in company with Arnold Ruge, the *Deutsch-französische Jahrbücher* (German-French Annals), a radical philosophical and political monthly, which, however, did not survive two numbers. After this he gave up all direct political agitation and devoted himself exclusively to the study of political economy. Driven out of Brussels, he again went to Paris, and, expelled thence by order of Guizot, he went back to Brussels, where in 1847 he wrote his pamphlet, 'Misère de la Philosophie,' against the "bourgeois" Proudhon's just-published 'Philosophie de la Misère.' In the spring of 1848 Marx returned to Cologne and started the first red republican and communistic German daily, the *New Rhenish Gazette*. A few days before the outbreak of the Revolution of February he had published his communistic manifesto, with the motto: "Workingmen of all countries, unite!" Here, as well as afterwards in his paper, Marx unfolded the banner of Communism, laughed at the idea of a mere political revolution, and boldly proclaimed for the war of classes (*Klassenkampf*), *i.e.*, the war of the fourth class (proletarians) against the third class (bourgeois).

Germany, however, was not yet ripe for this doctrine, originally of French growth. Her manufactures being still in their infancy, and her middle classes having scarcely been emancipated from the supremacy of feudal noblemen, her citizens were not independent enough, and politically not far enough advanced, to be able to rule the country. The respect for the higher classes was too implicit to allow them to claim more than a moderate share in the government. The workingmen in general had no professional pride, and, having for centuries suffered under all kinds of official and private oppressions, were happy to make a modest living. Marx, therefore, with very few exceptions, did not win over to his side the rank and file which he wanted for the carrying out of his plans, and, frightening the well-to-do Liberals, drove them into the arms of the Conservatives. Much as he glorified the Paris barricade battles of June, 1848, audaciously as he attacked the reactionary system at home, eloquently as he appealed to passion and prejudice, he did and could not create the social revolution, but only paved the way for the counter-revolution. When in the spring of 1849 the revolutionary movements in all parts of Germany were subdued, and when the state of siege was declared in Cologne, the Prussian Government, of course, eagerly suppressed the *New Rhenish Gazette*. The last number was printed in red ink, and the poet Freiligrath, one of its editors, headed it with a wild revolutionary chant, in which he compared the Prussian officials with the Kalmucks, a savage tribe of Eastern Russia.

Marx went to London, while his friends dispersed to other parts of Europe or to the United States, and organized a staff of a handful of followers who formed the nucleus of the new communistic international party. Slowly but surely secret associations sprang up in all parts of the world and communicated with each other by way of London. Marx now became the chief saint of the communistic church, the expounder of its orthodox creed, and was worshipped by the pious like a second pope. Leaving the intriguing among the refugees, the agitation among the workingmen, to the saints of the lower order, to ex-lieutenants, apothecaries, merchant-clerks, ex-foresters, penny-a-liners, or music-teachers, the prophet himself meanwhile corresponded for years with the New York *Tribune*, which owes him a series of excellent articles on European politics, occasionally wrote political pamphlets, such as 'The 18th Brumaire of Louis Bonaparte' (published 1852 in New York), a masterly exposition of the character, aims, and probable (afterwards real) end of that adventurer, and laid down the principles of his system in his great work on 'Capital,' which has been and still is the arsenal of all communistic doctrines, from Lassalle down to the smaller fry, the Liebknechts, Bebels, and Mosts.

The gist of the first volume of Marx's work, two-thirds of which consists of extracts from English parliamentary enquiries and official records on the condition of the English working-classes, may be given in a few sentences. As all goods have a twofold value, we distinguish between the profit which they have for society by being used (the value in use) and the importance they acquire by their exchange for other goods (the value in exchange); but all goods, however they may differ from each other, have one common quality, the amount of which forms the standard of their value of exchange. This common quality is the human labor necessary for the production of goods. Thus the value of goods is determined solely by the amount of labor necessary for this production. Consequently, it belongs exclusively to the workingman, and the capitalist has no right to pocket that value. Capital has thus far been created by either robbing and cheating the laborer or by other mean practices, such as speculations and confiscations. Accumulated capital, which pays only scanty wages covering the mere necessaries of life to the hired producer, is the thief that steals other men's labor. Capital has expropriated labor, but it is time that the expropriators should be expropriated for the benefit of the working masses. The system of division of labor has even more enriched the capitalist, has made the producer more dependent on him, and has effected higher values. Each new machine compels the workingman to give up more and more of his individual ability to the capitalist. The high development of the present manufacturing and producing process, based on the ruin of handiwork and of the small producer, transforms the latter more and more into a tool with no will of his own. The enormous power of accumulated capital cannot be done away with, the world cannot return to a patriarchal state of things; but, nevertheless, the misery of the working-classes can no longer continue. Marx proposes as a remedy that all means and tools of production, ground and soil as well as raw materials, should be handed over to society at large, that all trades and professions should be carried on by it for the benefit of all—or, in other words, that private property be abolished.

The platform of the German democrats, which I will give in full hereafter, draws the consequences of Marx's system. Here I will only say that, in my opinion, he is wrong in calling all labor the sole source of the value of a thing, while in fact it is only that labor which satisfies the human wants, and I will add that in order to perform such useful labor capital in some shape or other is required.

To return, however, to the events in Germany. The victory of the armed reaction had crushed Socialism in its germ, or at least made it disappear from the public view. In consequence of the Crimean War a new era of industrial and commercial prosperity began. It developed the rich resources of Germany, as it did those of other countries, and enabled enterprising individuals or stock companies to complete the German railroad system, to establish new steamship lines or other means of communication, to erect new manufactories, and to invest money profitably—in short, to give a sudden impetus to all kinds of commercial and industrial enterprises. From this new movement a larger working-class originated, yearly growing in numbers and importance, and manufacturing centres sprang up which controlled the social and communistic elements of the country. Thus the plant, which until now had been foreign to the German soil, about the year 1860 became of domestic growth.

The panic of 1857 was not strong enough to stop entirely the commercial prosperity. The fall of the reactionary cabinet of Manteuffel and his ilk, the accession of the Prince Regent in Prussia, and the political resurrection in Germany united the middle classes against the oppressive schemes of the new Prussian ministers. Then, in consequence

of the increase of the royal army without previously asking the consent of the Chambers, the years of conflict between people and government broke out and lasted till 1866. Bismarck, the principal Secretary of State since 1862, tried to set aside the constitutional safeguards and to impose taxes without the sanction of the House of Representatives, who thereupon amalgamated into one compact majority the party of progress. After the battle of Königgrätz Bismarck asked and obtained indemnity for his illegal proceedings; but prior to that event he did his utmost to defeat his political adversaries, and even availed himself of the assistance of the social and communistic elements of the country, just organized under the leadership of Ferdinand Lassalle, and at present called the Social Democrats.

Correspondence.

THE MORALITY OF THE BEACONSFIELD MINISTRY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Chancellor of the Exchequer, Sir Stafford Northcote, according to the telegram, has denied the existence of any secret engagement besides the Salisbury-Shuvaloff memorandum and the secret convention with Turkey, though he admits that there have been "confidential communications." We shall see hereafter what and with whom the confidential communications were; whether they amount in effect to a "confidential" agreement; and if they do, whether the agreement is with France, and has reference to a future division of spoil in the direction of Egypt and Syria. The Suez-Canal shares were not purchased merely for the purpose of holding stock in a French company.

Sir Stafford Northcote was the minister who induced the House of Commons quietly to disperse for the Easter vacation by assuring them that nothing had occurred to enhance the gravity of the situation, he knowing when he spoke that orders had been sent to India to despatch troops to the Mediterranean. At the opening of Parliament the Prime Minister declared that there was no dissension in the Cabinet, though two of his colleagues were then at the brink of resignation. The ground assigned to England and Europe for ordering up the fleet to Constantinople was the protection of British life and property; but now, in attacking Lord Carnarvon, Lord Beaconsfield drops the mask and avows that the fleet was ordered up to check the advance of Russia.

Lord Derby states positively that in March last the Cabinet resolved, in defiance of public law, treaties, its own declaration of neutrality, and its professions to Turkey, to seize, by a secret expedition, Cyprus and a point on the Turkish mainland. Lord Salisbury, on behalf of the Cabinet, passionately denies the statement. On one side or the other there must be downright falsehood, and I venture to say there are not ten men in England who do not in their hearts believe that Lord Derby speaks the truth.

England has gained Cyprus, not a very valuable booty if it has no harbor, but her statesmen have lost, by intrigue, deception, and violence, the reputation for open dealing, truthfulness, and probity which the meanest of them once enjoyed.

Yours, faithfully, Goldwin Smith.

Toronto, August 4, 1878.

[Our correspondent has overlooked Lord Salisbury's statement, in reply to Earl Grey's question "whether there was *any* truth" in the version of the secret memorandum first published in the *Globe*, "that it was *wholly* unauthenticated and not deserving the confidence of their Lordships' House"—the fact being that it was substantially correct; also the official instructions to Lord Odo Russell to oppose the cession of Batum to Russia, after Lord Salisbury had secretly agreed with Count Shuvaloff not to resist it.—Ed. Nation.]

SCHOOL TEACHER AND SCHOOL-HUNTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A letter from "School-Hunter" in your issue of July 25 inclines me to look at the matter he speaks of from a teacher's point of view. I know some girls who "hate sewing," and to whom "nothing is so unpleasant as the inside of a house"; but it is not a corollary that they "love books"; on the contrary, they are the least cultivated, least feminine, and worst-mannered girls of the set to which they belong. However, this does not prove anything; it is only an aside. What I wish to suggest is, that if the Hunter wants a school so different from the one which ninety-nine in a hundred of his countrymen prefer, he must find half a dozen parents who have his own ideas, and let them club together and support a school of the kind he describes. As you can hardly expect any one teacher, with the information and good sense necessary to his position, to be also a scientific professor, drawing-master, gymnastic performer, and singing-teacher, he must have not less than two assistants, besides masters in French and German, if any of the parents should be so foolish as to require modern languages. Each of these persons must be supported; the principal may have a family dependent upon him; the laboratory and gymnasium are both expensive additions to a school, no matter how simple their arrangements may be; so that, on the whole, it is not too much to expect that each pupil shall contribute four or five hundred dollars a year towards the support of a day-school alone. I speak only of city schools. In a country boarding-school the price would be somewhat less in proportion, but probably at least double what it is now at the very best, because there would be so few among whom to divide expenses. Now, what I want to call attention to is this, that if the model teacher "School-Hunter" is looking for should open a school and promise exactly what your correspondent demands (and fulfil it, too), he would simply starve. Having been for many years engaged in teaching, I know from experience that any effort to do things out of the regular course means commercial failure. A teacher must do what the ninety-nine hundredths demand, leaving the odd one per cent. to make special arrangements for themselves. In most cases the pressure is not for simplicity of instruction, but for increased study. Parents whose children are learning six lessons daily, and reciting them well, come to me and complain that the pupils are too idle at home and need more study to keep them out of mischief; then one or two lessons are added to the list. What I would suggest is that "School-Hunter" should have a private teacher who can work under his direction; in that way he will get just what he wants. Or let him take the risk himself. Let him hire a room, if he has not one in his own house that will answer the purpose, provide gymnastic apparatus and laboratory, engage the necessary teachers at fixed salaries, and then get as many parents as he can to divide the expense with him. Who knows how much good he might do by thus laying the foundation of a more rational system of education?

Yours, School Teacher.

August 2, 1878.

WHY JEFFERSON DAVIS WAS LIBERATED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I would beg to refer to your decision a point in dispute between some of the American residents in this place, and of interest as an historical fact.

Will you kindly state the *reason* that induced the United States Government to liberate Jefferson Davis instead of hanging him, as seemed to be his just due? A. T. Marvin.

Manila, Philippine Islands, May 28, 1878.

[We believe the reasons were (1) the dislike of the people of the North to the idea of putting a man to death for a political offence; (2) the perception that Davis was not a solitary criminal, but a representative man, to whom punishment would have given the honors of martyrdom; (3) a recognition of the impossibility of finding an unpacked jury of the State and district in which his offence was committed, as required by the Constitution, to convict him. Our correspondent can arrange these in any order he pleases. Davis's case was finally dropped through a division of opinion between the judges of the United States Circuit Court on a motion to quash the indictment, on the ground that the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution, in prescribing the disfranchisement of all persons who having held office under the United States had committed treason against it, did away with all other punishment or pursuit. Chief-Justice Chase sustained this objection, but the district judge, Underwood, who got his office for his loyalty and knew no law whatever, dissented. The case ought then to have gone up to the Supreme Court, but it never did. Everybody was tired of it. Mr. Davis was liberated on bail, and now perorates at agricultural fairs like other broken-down politicians.—Ed. Nation.]

L'ART AND *LA GAZETTE DES BEAUX-ARTS.*

M. le Rédacteur de "The Nation":

Monsieur et Éminent Confrère: Nous vous sommes très-reconnaissants de la bienveillance que vous témoignez à notre publication, et nous vous prions d'en agréer nos vifs remerciments.

Permettez-nous de faire appel à votre extrême courtoisie pour en solliciter une rectification. Dans votre numéro du 27 juin, page 419, 2ème colonne, nous sommes accusés d'avoir fait un emprunt à *la Gazette des Beaux-Arts*, et d'avoir commis "a plagiary." Il n'en est rien, ainsi que vous allez en juger: la planche de Monsieur Jules Jacquemart d'après le portrait de l'Infante Isabelle par Simon de Vos n'a jamais appartenu à *la Gazette des Beaux-Arts*. Le propriétaire de cette planche, qui est le *principal* fondateur de *l'Art*, a simplement permis d'en faire un tirage pour *la Gazette* lorsque la planche de M. Jacquemart a été terminée. Jamais on n'a pu se procurer d'épreuves de cette planche dans les bureaux de *la Gazette;* c'est la *Librairie de l'Art* qui *seule* a le droit de vendre ces épreuves.

Recevez d'avance tous nos remerciments, Monsieur, et agréez, je vous prie, l'expression de tous mes sentiments de confraternité.

Le Secrétaire de la Rédaction, Paul Leroi.

Paris, 3 Chaussée d'Antin, 23 juillet, 1878.

Notes.

HENRY HOLT & CO. will shortly issue 'Plays for Private Acting,' translated from the French and Italian by members of the Bellevue Dramatic Club of Newport.——Part 3 of Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians' (New York: Macmillan & Co.) concludes the article on Boieldieu, and includes, among other celebrated composers and performers, Bülow, Cherubini, and Chopin. To Chopin only one and a half pages are assigned, but the article cannot be said to be lacking in appreciation. There is an article on the Chickering piano, and on the music-publishing firm of Breitkopf & Härtel, now in its 160th year; and the *Brabançonne* of the Belgian and the *Ça ira* and *Carmagnole* of the French Revolution have here their words and music given.——The Commissioner of Education's report for 1876, which has lately appeared, is mostly taken up with current statistics of the school system in each State, preceded by an historical sketch of the foundation. The Commissioner's report proper is as usual a curious jumble, but repays glancing at. In it will be found a table of the sums expended at the South by the trustees of the Peabody Fund during the nine years 1868–76, in all $895,050; nearly one-fifth of this has gone to Virginia; and to Virginia, West Virginia, and Tennessee more than a half. Texas has received, and we suppose merited, the least ($7,800). The educational benefactions of the year amounted to $4,691,845, including $700,000 of the Lick bequest and $400,000 bestowed on the Vanderbilt University.——The Journeymen Plumbers' Benevolent Society of New York, which, notwithstanding popular prejudice against the craft, does really contain many exceptionally intelligent mechanics, invites contributions of books and periodicals as the nucleus of a library and workingmen's reading-room. They may be addressed to Mr. Charles F. Wingate, editor, P. O. box 3037, New York City.——The general association of German publishers has invited Dr. Friedrich Kapp to write a history of the German book-trade, from the invention of the art of printing to the present day. It will be a labor of many years, but he has accepted the task and begun the collection of his material. From such a work it is natural to expect a great deal of new light on the political, social, and intellectual development of Germany.——We learn from the *Athenæum* that the Folk-Lore Society has decided to print a Lansdowne MS. in the British Museum by Aubrey the antiquary, to be edited by Mr. Thiselton Dyer. The first issue of the *Folk-Lore Record* will contain a paper by Mr. Ralston on Folk Tales, a collection of West Sussex Folk Lore by Mrs. Latham, and a selection of notes from the collection of Mr. Thoms and other sources. ——Dr. H. Von Holst is on his way to this country, contrary to his expectation when penning the preface to his last volume on the 'Constitutional History of the United States.' We hope his stay here may prove of advantage to the great work which he has partly consummated.

—We have received a pamphlet copy of a lecture on the "Mexican Calendar-Stone," delivered in this city last April by Prof. Ph. Valentini ('Vortrag über den Mexicanischen Kalenderstein,' etc.), to which is prefixed a heliotype of the stone itself. The German professor is apparently mistaken in his assumption that he is the first after Gama in his interpretation of the calendar-stone and in determining it to be a mere "stone of sacrifice" or "stone of the sun." As early as November, 1875, Señor Don Alfredo Chavero (of the Liceo Hidalgo of Mexico) published a paper on the subject, entitled 'Calendario Azteca,' in which he established the same identical points. It is even singular and striking to what an extent the *cuaderno* of the learned Mexican scholar agrees, if not verbatim, at least substantially with Mr. Valentini's essay. The facts in regard to the history of the stone up to date, gathered in part from Durán's very rare 'Historia de las Yndias de Nueva-España é Islas de Tierra-Firme" and Tezozomoc's 'Crónica Mexicana" (which latter Prof. Valentini quotes in a very faulty manner), are exactly the same in both essays, with the exception that Señor Chavero is more explicit in every respect. Their interpretations of the ornaments on the stone differ, but Mr. Valentini's investigation of the concentric rings, or rather the mode of that very investigation, is again the same as that of Chavero. Besides, the interpretations are the most immaterial parts of both papers. The fact, however, that the so-called "Montezuma's watch" is no gnomon, and therefore no evidence of high development of astronomical science among the ancient Mexicans, but simply a slaughter-block of huge dimensions, is of sufficient importance to warrant an effort to establish the authorship of the discovery. The credit of it certainly belongs to Señor Chavero, not only in point of time but also of fulness of details.

—In the last three numbers of the London *Academy* Mr. Moy Thomas has commented with great fulness on the Copyright Report, and with as much sense as fulness. His third article is devoted to showing why international copyright would not, as is so often asserted by our publishers, compel the American public to put up with costly English editions or none at all—the three-volume novel at a guinea and a half, instead of the present cheap reprint in one volume, for example. His explanation is that the prices of popular books in England are determined, at least for the first edition, by the circulating libraries, which are counted upon to absorb a certain number of copies, say two thousand. If the work thus introduced and passed from hand to hand meets with favor, a library or popular edition is sure to follow, bearing a price exactly calculated for the purchaser. If it falls flat, the publishers have covered themselves against loss by the high price of their trial-balloon:

"The circulating-library period of a book's existence in England is, in brief, a period of probation. The libraries are practically a perpetual Great Exhibition of literary wares, wherein while many productions fail to excite admiration, and many are quit with the cold comfort of 'honorable mention,' some few issue forth with the stamp of a well-won reputation."

But Mr. Thomas points out that the classes of books not adapted to circulation and probation in this manner are issued in a style and at a price which have the purchaser directly in view, and he argues that an English publisher manufacturing for the American market would adapt himself to the habit of the people just as he does at home. This seems to us perfectly sound, nor is it an error of any very great consequence that he declares the circulating-library system unknown among us. On the scale of Mudie's this is true enough; but we venture to say that every considerable town and every quarter of a great city has its circulating library which does serve the purpose of making an inexpensive acquaintance with current literature before purchasing, or when purchasing is out of the question. Moreover, public libraries abound with us as they do not in England, and of the new books in most request they regularly supply themselves with sufficient duplicates, while our New York Mercantile Library is, in transmitting and collecting, a real Mudie's to the population living within a radius of twenty miles of the city. Add to these the book-clubs which flourish alongside of the middle and lower-class circulating libraries and of the amplest public libraries, and it will be seen that Americans both know how to economize and to test new books before deciding to buy them.

—The quarrelsome nature of the European house sparrow seems to have had a contagious effect upon his human neighbors in this country, for the controversy over the noisy and gregarious little bird has long since passed from conversation into the public prints. Among its most determined opponents is Dr. Elliott Coues, who, if he had the gift of a Leech, would doubtless be plying the comic papers with caricatures of an imported nuisance beside which the hand-organ appears a benefaction. Dr. Coues returns to the subject in the August number of the *American Naturalist*. Not being able to ignore the fact that the combatants are not strictly divided by the line which separates laymen and scientists, he begins by showing that appearances are deceitful, and divides the friends of the sparrow into five classes, to wit (1): "children, old women, and

fogies"; (2) those who were instrumental in bringing him over; (3) "quasi-ornithologists who have been misled into hasty expressions of opinion to which they feel bound to stick"; (4) the claqueurs of No. 3; (5) "a very few intelligent and scientific persons, but not practical nor professional ornithologists," who see that the bird does some good, and think he will be as useful here as in Europe. This is a very mistaken inference, says Dr. Coues, since in Europe the sparrows are part and parcel of the natural fauna, and, not being petted or specially protected, have adjusted their increase in accordance with the checks which there abound. Here, on the other hand, they have no special work to perform, and if that work were the destruction of insects it would be against the graminivorous propensities of their tribe. In fact, he alleges, they have not kept the worms from our trees; they harass and drive off more insectivorous native birds; they plunder the kitchen-garden, the orchard, and the grain-field; they make life wretched for invalids, and homes filthy for servants; and, being enormously prolific and practically without natural enemies or checks of any kind, they threaten to repeat for us the history of the white-weed and the Norway rat. Dr. Coues suggests a scientific examination of the crops of the sparrow at the height of the insect season, to decide what they feed on; and recommends letting them shift for themselves hereafter, without being fed or sheltered, and abolishing the legal penalties for killing them.

—It seems a pity that the sparrows cannot be usefully employed in overcoming a domestic pest described in the same number of the *Naturalist*, and which is now spreading consternation among the housekeepers of New England as it has already done in New Jersey and New York. We refer to the carpet-beetle, *Anthrenus scrophulariæ*, also known, from the hairy exterior of its larva, as the "buffalo moth." This disagreeable insect has an insatiable fondness for wool, and its destructiveness is far in excess of that of the ordinary moth which we suppress with camphor, while its indifference to most insect powders is disheartening to behold. Mr. J. A. Lintner, of the New York State Museum of Natural History, gives a full account of the genesis of the anthrenus, with figures, that will be helpful to those afflicted with it. He errs in supposing that it was not identified before October, 1876; Dr. Hagen had recognized it four years previous to that date. Mr. Lintner concludes his article by quoting part of a long list of injurious insects introduced here from Europe, as given in one of Professor Riley's reports; even the house-fly is among them. "Should our late exportation of the Colorado beetle prove as injurious in Europe as in this country, which there is much reason to doubt, we shall still be very far from having made a commensurate return." Abroad, the carpet-beetle is said to infest dried meats and similar substances.

—M. Gustave Fagniez, one of the editors of the *Revue Historique*, has collected some articles originally printed in the *Bibliothèque de l'École des Chartes*, and published them in a volume, with some alterations and additions, under the title, 'Études sur l'Industrie et la Classe industrielle à Paris au xiii. et au xiv. siècles'; it forms the thirty-third *fascicule* of a valuable series of essays published under the authority of the Minister of Public Instruction, and containing such important original works as Longnon's 'Étude sur les Pagi de la Gaul' and Bréal's translation of the Eugubine Tables, as well as translations of works of Mommsen, Sohm, and Max Müller. The volume before us contains four hundred and twenty-six pages, and consists of two books—the first upon the organization of industry in general, the second (in seven chapters) upon certain special industries, as butchery, building, textile industries, etc. This is a welcome addition to the German works of Brentano, Wilda, Stieda, Schanz, etc., upon this subject; and, like these, it contains abundant illustrative documents in an appendix. The *corps de métier*, as the industrial corporations were called—corresponding to the German *Zunfts* and the English craft-guilds—were, like the German and English associations, composed of all members of the industry, journeymen and apprentices, as well as masters; there was no conflict of interests recognized between laborer and employer. They appear, however, to have differed essentially from the *Zunfts* and craft-guilds in two points. First, they were never (at least in Paris) invested with any extensive political power, as was the case in Germany, and to some extent in England. Secondly, the social and religious character, which was so prominent in the guild, was quite subordinate, or rather was assumed by a secondary association, the *confrérie* or brotherhood, corresponding in the main with the corporation, but under a separate organization, like the *Bruderschaft* by the side of the *Gesellenverband* in the German trades. The obscure question as to the precise relation of the journeymen to the corporation does not, so far as we can see, receive much light from this essay. In general the impression made by the facts here presented is that the French corporation was more strictly industrial than either that of Germany or of England. It should be added that they confirm the conclusion now generally accepted as to the prosperous condition of the mediæval artisans.

—Special points in German mediæval history have been well discussed in the following monographs: Dr. Friedrich Ebrard's *Festschrift* upon the four-hundredth anniversary of the University of Tübingen treats of an interesting point in the history of Southern Germany five hundred years ago—'Der erste Annäherungsversuch König Wenzels an dem Schwäbisch-rheinischen Städtebund, 1384–1385.' Wenceslaus began his reign (1378) with his father's (Charles IV.) policy of hostility to the cities, but within a very few years was brought into alliance with the confederacies of cities. The present paper finds proof in new documents for a theory of Weizsäcker (controverted by Lindner), that the cause of this change of policy was the scheme of deposing the emperor, which was already talked of early in 1384, although it was not carried out until 1400. Belonging to the same period is 'Beiträge zur Geschichte der husitischen Bewegung,' by J. Loserth; the first instalment is the 'Codex Epistolaris' of John of Jenzenstein, Archbishop of Prague during the early part of the reign of Wenceslaus. This was a prelate of the genuine ecclesiastical type, an ascetic in his person, an uncompromising champion of the powers and rights of the church, but arrogant and quarrelsome; it was with his sympathy and encouragement that John of Nepomuk was drawn into the quarrel with the emperor which led to his well-known martyrdom in 1393. The letters of this archbishop are therefore, in truth, a contribution to the history of the Hussite movement; so far as those here given, however, extend (1374–88), they do not show any rupture with the emperor. Dr. Gottlieb Krause's inaugural dissertation at Göttingen, 'Beziehungen zwischen Habsburg und Burgund bis zum Ausgang der Trierer Zusammenkunft im Jahre 1473,' describes very clearly and in an interesting manner the series of negotiations which led to the famous conference, when the perplexed emperor "folded his tents like the Arabs and silently stole away," as described so graphically by Mr. Kirk. In the main Dr. Krause's account agrees with that of the American historian, although the events are narrated in more detail, and rather more emphasis is placed upon Charles's plan not merely to be elected king of the Romans but to supersede Frederic himself as emperor.

—Belonging to the same series of events is a monograph of 309 pages, by Dr. Adolph Bachmann, 'Böhmen und seine Nachbarländer unter Georg von Podiebrad, 1458–61.' This is the continuation of a previous essay by the same writer (see *Nation*, No. 606), and narrates the events of the first three years of George's reign, which were occupied with efforts—quite similar to those of Charles the Bold—to make himself king of the Romans, at first with the consent of the Emperor, then without his consent, by the aid of the princes, and, lastly, even through the Pope himself (Pius II.) This last was a fatal step for him, and revealed distinctly the vulnerable point in his position, for he had begun life as a Hussite, and was the king of a Hussite nation, and there was certainly some insincerity either in his submission to the papacy now or in his later controversies with it. His present scheme was frustrated by the determined opposition of his nation, and from this time he appears as the consistent and heroic champion of his nation and its religion, and—as is shown by Dr. Krause—a supporter of Charles the Bold in the project which he had now given up for himself.

RECENT POETRY.

THOSE who have been sighing for science to manifest itself in poetry will find some indications of its idealizing influence in 'Studies in Verse' (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.), whose author, Mr. Charles Quiet, indulges a fellow-feeling for fish, flesh, and fowl possible only to an enlightened materialist. Naturally he hates church-bells, by which he has frequently been changed into "a creature vile and low," and prefers not to listen to their call, but rather to linger with fond and original fancies about the green graves to whose grasses and strawberries he looks for his immortality. In this mood of reverence for natural processes he addresses some "Strawberries growing upon Graves":

> "Shall I refuse thy largess, little vine,
> Because thy hungry roots feed on my dead,
> Sucking from bloodless lips the blood-like wine
> That dyes thy berries red?
>
> "Nay, all the happy, living things I see
> Are of the substance of dead things that were;
> The heart that loved me once sends up to me
> Remembrancers of her.

"Feed me to-day; grudge not my dainty fare.
I am no beggar asking alms of thee;
One moment I enjoy thy berries rare;
Thou shalt feast long on me."

This sentimental cannibalism may be science, but it is poetry of revolting description. A like coarseness pervades the book. Bees that are "noisy little mid-air steamers," brooks that "flirt with lovelorn willows" and "spatter booby trees," lovers that "swap kisses"—there is but one word for it, it is irredeemably vulgar. We recommend the author to return to

"Saunders, the dusty-mouthed, that lives on pleas,
And chip-dry Chitty, . . . lightsome fairies,"

as he calls them, and wish him a success which he has not achieved in his service of Apollo.

It is with anticipations of pleasure, which are not disappointed, that we turn to Mrs. Alice Wellington Rollins's 'Ring of Amethyst' (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons), which we owe to a year of love and marriage of which it is mainly the record. Naturally, it recalls the Sonnets from the Portuguese, from one of which it takes its name, and in its versification and tone the influence of "H. H." is perceptible. It has a strength of its own, however, and reveals graceful womanly feeling, genuine and modest, whose expression betrays a usually careful workmanship. We are glad to read it as we are glad to have a quiet, idyllic picture on our walls. When we have said this, we have said all. There is in it no new thought, no strikingly original treatment, nothing to tempt one to return to it when it is once read. Much above mediocrity, it nevertheless shows how low our mediocrity is. There are numbers of women whose feeling under similar circumstances is as refined and as well worth expression, but is rightly suffered to remain untold, for it would not add any charm of sentiment or fancy to the lives of those likely to form its audience, nor enrich their experience. This sonnet is a fair sample of the merit and defects of the volume, and we are not certain that it might not as well have remained unwritten:

"That Love should find a way through iron bars
And close-drawn bolts—this does not seem so strange;
More strange I count it that with wider range,
With naught to mark its course beneath the stars,
Love finds its sure, swift way. That day when we
First parted, Love, how dangerously near
The chance we never met again! though clear
As the broad daylight, unrestrained and free
As breeze from heaven, naught between us lay
But the wide, shining, trackless fields of air
That gave no sign; the lonely vastness, where
Love saw no clue to guide it or to stay
Its course;—well might the lover in despair
Yield up his search; and yet Love found a way!"

Under a new name and in a new dress we find some verses in 'Pipes of Corn' (Boston: W. B. Clarke) which we have met with before. The poems, old and new, are unaffected, if they are also simple in a quite different sense. We wish Professor Shairp, who has lately been clamoring against Matthew Arnold, and bidding youthful poets give a loose rein to their ambition, could meet with this illustration of the "spontaneity" which his advice encourages. The author does not "count upon his blessed gift" too much; his verses are

"not meant with that to vie
Which into being gifted thought may nurse,
Or culture s power,"

as he confesses. If this be the case, if he has not senses and a mind more open than those of other men to the impressions and suggestions of nature, if his perceptions are not keener and his expression of them is not more direct and lucid than his neighbors may claim, for ourselves we must discourage spontaneity, and say that he will honor poetry more by his silence than by his speech. Let him attend to the simplest requirements of form, and not rhyme "stores" with "drawers," and we recommend him to obtain such mastery of counting with his five fingers as not to insert into a sonnet such a line as this:

"Of all thy tribe which ministers to man and beast."

He is not always felicitous in expressing what ideas he has; thus of Custer's men,

"Of all the band
Not one to stand,
Not one would fly,"

where the first two lines express the very opposite of what is meant; and what can be the sense of this,

"Conduct her to the ivory throne
That tops my chair of state,"

and much that is like it in the book?

Most poets pray that the sins of their youth may not be remembered against them, but here is an author who has gathered together in all their scarlet blaze his undergraduate verses at Yale and printed them with others of riper years ('Odds and Ends: Verses Humorous, Occasional, and Miscellaneous,' by Henry A. Beers. Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co.) There is in them such racy humor, graceful sentiment, and general cleverness as any ordinarily intelligent "Tutor in Eng. Lit. and Rhetorick" (p. 63) is expected to possess; but one looks in vain for finished work, refined taste, or instructive thought.

Two of Mr. Beers's poems, nevertheless, have the fortune to be inserted in Mr. Rossiter Johnson's 'Play-Day Poems' (New York: Henry Holt & Co.) This collection contains the names of Lowell, Holmes, Hood, Praed, Saxe, Harte, Calverley, Gilbert, and many others, and is useful for those who cannot have the collected works of these writers. The bibliography at the end of the volume is almost worthless; the names of the publishers of the books are not given, and frequently the place of publication is omitted as well.

One poem of Mr. Longfellow's last volume ('Kéramos, and Other Poems,' Houghton, Osgood & Co.) outweighs all these others. This volume gives no occasion for new remark; the poet receives no longer praise, but thanks. Yet we wonder if it was only a pleasing sentiment which led him to close the original portion of the collection with this sonnet:

"Once upon Iceland's solitary strand
A poet wandered with his book and pen,
Seeking some final word, some sweet Amen,
Wherewith to close the volume in his hand.
The billows rolled and plunged upon the sand,
The circling seagulls swept beyond his ken,
And from the parting cloudrack now and then
Flashed the red sunset over sea and land.
Then by the billows at his feet was tossed
A broken oar; and carved thereon he read,
'Oft was I weary when I toiled at thee';
And like a man who findeth what was lost
He wrote the words, then lifted up his head
And flung his useless pen into the sea."

CURING POVERTY.*

THE main modern improvements in the arts of healing have come from a closer study of the causes as well as of the symptoms of disease, and in directing treatment to the causes instead of to the symptoms. By many of those who seek to treat the graver and more complicated ailments of society the corresponding distinction is not in practice very clearly perceived. Except with real thinkers social pathology and therapeutics are, for the most part, little else than a discussion of symptoms. The two publications before us agree in this circumstance: they are discussions of that grave and ancient symptom of ill-being—poverty. More than this, indeed, was not to be expected in the report of the Boston Poor Commissioners. These three gentlemen, Messrs. George S. Hale, Alvah A. Burrage, and Augustus Parker, were appointed by the Mayor of Boston, in 1876, "to consider and report upon the treatment of the poor who apply to the city for relief," and their observations, as they warn us, are not to be taken as an essay upon pauperism; but they are a concise and useful account of what is doing in Boston in the way of public charity, and of its recipients. The city's expenditure upon its own poor for the ten years from 1867 to 1876, both included, was $6,826,606, exclusive of a further sum of $1,951,122 paid by it toward the charities of the State. The first-mentioned amount was distributed (without co-operation) by four independent boards, namely: 1. The Overseers of the Poor. 2. The Directors of the Public Institutions. 3. The Trustees of the City Council. 4. The Board of Aldermen. The ratio to the whole population of persons receiving the public aid increased during those ten years from .072 to .102; the ratio "of those aided by outdoor relief from .054 to .083, or over 50 per cent." One board alone, that of the overseers, aided nearly 21,000 persons between May, 1876, and May, 1877. There has been a large increase from year to year in the number of persons assisted. The figures indicate, too, the existence of a permanent pauper class receiving aid year by year. The number assisted for three years by the overseers was 7,332; for four years, 3,906; for five years, 1,764. Their average assistance, in the case of 39,342 persons, was for 3.15 years. "Tramps," the overseers add, "have become a very trying class, and strong measures should be taken to protect society from them." The authors of this report quote, with clear approbation, an account of the new "cellular plan" as devised for the accommodation of tramps by the guardians of Kensington. The following is a part of it:

"Each tramp will, after taking the inevitable bath, be introduced

*'Dispauperization: A Popular Treatise on Poor-Law Evils and their Remedies. By J. R. Pretyman, M.A. Second edition, revised and enlarged.' London: Longmans. 1878. 12mo.

'Report of Commission on the Treatment of the Poor.' Boston: Rockwell & Churchill. 1878. 8vo.

to a separate sleeping-cell, warmed, lighted, and provided with every necessary, but with accommodation for one person only. Adjoining each male's cell is a work-cell, into which he is admitted in the morning to find a given quantity of granite stones, and a hammer for the cracking thereof."

With this tonic regimen may be contrasted a detail in the management of the Boston Directors for Public Institutions, "by whom," the commissioners tell us, "we find that a regular ration of tobacco, of about three ounces per week, is ordinarily allowed to paupers who use it. . . . We doubt the wisdom of this allowance." This interesting report concludes by recommending, among other measures of less importance, that all public relief, except that given by the city hospitals, should be administered by a single bureau; that out-door relief of whatever kind should be refused in the great majority of cases; that pay in work should be required, whenever it is possible, for relief; and that careful classification and record should be made of all who receive public aid. In a brief appendix some useful statistics are given, with a list of questions put by the Commissioners, and of answers given to them by the Overseers of the Poor.

Turning to Mr. Pretyman's book, we find it not very accurately named. 'The Abolishment of the English Poor Law' would be a better title for it than 'Dispauperization,' which is a quite different thing. The essay is, for the most part, an expansion of the text furnished by Sydney Smith in 1819, when he said: "There are two points which we consider as now admitted by all men of sense—first, that the Poor Laws must be abolished; second, that they must be very gradually abolished." The Poor-Law Amendment Act of 1834 "seemed to promise the ultimate abandonment of the system, but of late years retrogression has been made through the perversion of the amended law." The object of Mr. Pretyman's book is to point out its evils, and to advocate its abolition:

"If a traveller," he says, "were to report the discovery of an island in the Pacific where it was expressly ordained by law that, let any man or woman be as idle, or as improvident, or as disorderly, or as vicious as he or she pleased to be, such person could claim public support, either the traveller's veracity would be called in question, or the inhabitants of the island would be set down as a people of perverted understanding. . . . Yet the only difference between the law of this supposed island and the law of an existent island [England] is that the Pacific law *expressly* ordains what the law of the existent island ordains by implication."

The Commissioners of 1832 called the Poor Law "a system which aims its allurements at all the weakest parts of our nature; which offers marriage to the young, security to the anxious, ease to the lazy, and impunity to the profligate." And Mr. Pretyman adds, succinctly: "The Poor Law of England is the Magna Charta of improvidence."

Quite undeniable, indeed, are the evils which flow from this Poor Law. Apart from the direct stimulus which it gives to pauperism, it removes "the great secondary deterrents from intemperance and immorality. It discourages thrift; the laborer sees that those who have been thrifty are in no better position at last than the idler." He grows up in an atmosphere of such improvidence as is scarcely to be found elsewhere in Europe. An employer told Mr. Pretyman that he paid his workmen £200 per week every Friday, and did not think that £5 of it could be found in their pockets on Saturday. Even the farm-laborer hesitates about emigrating to colonies where, as in New Zealand, "there is no workhouse." Extravagance, too, is powerfully stimulated by the Poor Law. Mr. Mundella says that "one-third of the food of the working classes is wasted," and Mr. Pretyman adds that very many of the poor in London "will eat no bread but such as is hot from the bakers' ovens. Horses are largely fed upon bread which has been thrown away by these classes." The extravagance of the better paid hand-workers is so great, and Mr. Pretyman gives so many instances of it, that one is almost in danger of forgetting the other and darker side of the case—the existence of large classes who are underpaid, or not paid at all. In the North there are many artisans who "do not drink their wages—they eat them." At an iron-works one of the directors pointed out men "who in four days of the week—and they would work no more—earned wages to the amount of £9 10s., but whose wives and children were in rags." This director said: "I had occasion to call the other day at one of these men's houses when he happened to be just going to dinner, and the man and his wife—there were no children—were about to sit down to a sucking-pig, which the man, of his own accord, told me had cost a guinea." On a 2d of October, "the day when pheasants are first brought to sale, a master manufacturer, sending out in the forenoon to buy some of this game for his own table, found that a body of artisans had been to the market at six o'clock in the morning and had bought up the whole supply!" Mr. Pretyman tells in connection with this the "well-known anecdote" of a party of miners who went to a hotel and ordered "the best port wine, such as gentlemen drink." The servant brought them by mistake two bottles of ketchup, which, however, the miners swallowed *æquo animo*, remarking only that it was "rather sharp."

Mr. Pretyman has made, in short, a brisk and intelligent attack upon the evils of the Poor Law. But whenever he touches the broader aspects of the subject that are intimated in the word "dispauperization" we feel the inadequacy of his discussion. His title begs the question. The abolition of the English Poor Law would be but one step, and that not the most important one of the steps that are necessary, toward the cure of English poverty. The questions of over-population and excessive competition would still remain, and they are not peculiar to England.

Memoirs of Georgiana, Lady Chatterton. With some passages from her diary. By Edward Heneage Dering. (London: Hurst & Blackett; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1878.)—This memoir, as Mr. Dering informs his readers, is rather a "memorial sketch" of his wife than a biography. He might almost have said a memorial tract, inasmuch as fully half the book is taken up with a very detailed account of Lady Chatterton's conversion to the Catholic Church. She was converted mainly through the exertions of her husband, of the Bishop of Birmingham, and of Father Newman, and we can easily conceive that the account of the process which seems to have cost the parties concerned so much thought, and the convert so much anxiety, may be full of interest to others in like situation, and that on this account the existence of this part of the book may have a religious justification. To the world at large it can hardly be said to appeal. The explanations by the worthy bishop of the doctrine of the Immaculate Conception, and of the advantages of a celibate clergy, are, to say the least, hard reading. The arguments they contain are seldom new, and, though elaborated with a great deal of ingenuity, they can hardly have been expected by the author to have more than a memorial interest. They contain two stories, however, each of which, for different reasons, deserves preservation. One is the reply of the Irish carman to his Protestant fare (cited by the Bishop of Birmingham in a letter on the Rosary) to the effect that "one 'Our Father' is worth ten 'Hail Marys' any day." The other is a story of a conversation in which Bishop Gibson pointed out to Edmund Burke that "if all the sects separated from the Catholic Church were assembled in jury to judge any one single Catholic, *on each point* there would be a majority to approve his faith. For where any Protestant sect raised a point, the majority, derived from the Eastern sects and from other Protestant sects, would be on the Catholic side; and where there is an error in an Eastern sect, the other Eastern and the higher Protestant sects would be on the Catholic side." This so affected Burke that he "sank his head between his hands and remained astounded. After a time he lifted up his face full of awe and exclaimed: 'An amazing truth! An astounding argument!'" He also declared that he would go and "tell it to Fox," and expressed the hope that he should see the bishop soon again. Whether he did tell Fox or not, or how much the latter was "astounded" by the argument, does not appear; for the bishop adds, "Soon after he died." Thus do the greatest men among the Protestants appear like little children in the face of Holy Church.

The first half of the book is made up mainly of extracts from Lady Chatterton's diary, all of which is very pleasant reading. We cannot profess any very great familiarity with her other writings (the number of her works, a list of which is given in the appendix, extends to twenty-seven, and embraces novels, translations, poetry, and religious works), but her style was admirably adapted from its simplicity and feminine grace for a diary. She had the acquaintance of all the most agreeable men of letters of her time, and gives several anecdotes, among others of Landor, Sidney Smith, Macaulay, and Rogers. Having, as a woman, met them on a plane in which enmity and rivalry were out of the question, and having evidently had the art of making people show themselves at their best, the impression she conveys is frequently, as in the case of Landor and Rogers, much more agreeable than that which they managed to produce on other people. She describes as follows her first meeting with Landor:

"I sat next Landor without knowing who he was, so that my impressions were unbiassed either by expectation or by the impression I had previously conceived of him from his writings. I have seldom seen the expression of a highly-cultivated mind and courteous genius so beautifully stamped on any countenance as on the Landor of those days. The unamiabilities which sometimes cause the wits of the day to wound the

feelings of those around seemed to be replaced in him by sentiments which touch, elevate, and flatter those who listened to him, and also tended to place in a good point of view the person or the subject on which he spoke."

So, too, of Rogers, she says:

"He is very differently agreeable with different people. With me he never makes a bitter observation on any one, but seems disposed to see their best qualities only, which seems to me the frame of mind most natural to him."

Rogers occasionally, however, in her hearing, could be "differently agreeable," as appears by her account of a breakfast, from which he explained Moore's absence by saying:

"Ah! then he has found something better. Moore is never happy unless he is dining with a duke, having refused to dine with an earl, and has got an opera ticket in his pocket which makes him wish he were dining with neither."

The reader will find many little anecdotes and "good things" scattered through the pages of Lady Chatterton's diary, which is on the whole such pleasant reading as almost to reconcile us to the religious correspondence with which it is incongruously and unnecessarily bound up.

Elements of the Laws. By Thomas L. Smith, late one of the judges of the Supreme Court of the State of Indiana. New and revised edition. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1878.)—The study of law in Indiana, if we may judge from this book, has advanced *pari passu* with the study of finance. This book is intended as a school-book, and purports to contain an outline "of the system of civil and criminal laws in force in the United States and in the several States." It is intended to "enable any one to acquire a competent knowledge of his legal rights and privileges in all the most important political and business relations of the citizens of the country"; and not only this, but of "the principle upon which they are founded," and, finally, "the means of asserting and maintaining them in civil and criminal cases."

The scope of the work, it will be seen, is comprehensive, as it embraces pretty much the whole body of substantive law as well as the law of evidence, pleading, practice, and process. To find all this in a small duodecimo volume of 384 pages raises many delightful anticipations. We regret to say that these are not altogether justified by the treatise. It appears to be rather an abridgment of Blackstone and Kent than an original work, though we are far from intimating that the resemblance is so close as even to suggest an infringement of copyright. As a general thing the principles of law given are stated as if the study of jurisprudence had undergone no change since Blackstone's time; and we can find no indication that the author has ever heard of Austin, or familiarized himself with his important criticisms of Blackstone's work. In his first chapter, on the Origin of Laws, we find it stated that "municipal law" signifies a "rule of action" "prescribed by the authority of a state to regulate the actions of the inhabitants in their intercourse with one another." In other words, municipal law does not affect persons not inhabitants of the state in which it prevails—a singularly mistaken idea to give a student. Again (chapter iii.), by what the author says about the binding force of precedents he conveys the impression that they derive their authority from what might be called the "custom of judges"—*i.e.*, their habit of deciding in a particular way; without going into the discussion raised by Austin as to the true position of custom in our system of jurisprudence, it is quite certain that the authority of a judicial decision comes from the fact of its being a statement of the law on an actual matter in issue by the highest sovereign authority. If it rested on mere custom, what lawyers call *obiter dicta—i.e*, statements of judges on points not in issue—if persisted in long enough it would become binding; but no lawyer would admit this to be the case. In chapter xv., treating of the foundation of property rights there is nothing to show that the author has ever heard of communism or village communities, or of the researches of such writers as Maine or Stubbs. In speaking of *descent* (p. 64) he treats it as a mode of acquiring property introduced after men had grown familiar with conveyances *inter vivos*, whereas in some of its forms it can be traced back as far as the idea of property itself, to a period earlier than the organization of the family as we know it. As Indiana jurists may be supposed, like Indiana economists, to look upon European learning with some suspicion, we may add that the author might have found out as much as this from the work of a native American writer, Mr. Lewis H. Morgan, on 'Ancient Society.'

Besides these indications of an absence of philosophical preparation for his work, the law as it is is by no means accurately stated by Judge Smith. On page 135 he gives us the old "three degrees" of negligence, slight, ordinary, and gross, blissfully ignorant, to all appearances, that the Supreme Court of the United States (to say nothing of other tribunals) has indicated a profound scepticism on the subject of any legal distinction between them. The measure of damages in the action for the conversion of personal property, he says, is the same as in the action of trespass (p. 217), and in discussing the subject of ejectment (p. 222) he resuscitates the lifeless corpses of John Doe and Richard Roe, and introduces these two litigious ghosts to the student engaged at their old work. This is positively sacrilegious. Surely they may be permitted, after their active and hard-fought lives, to enjoy a deserved repose in a legal paradise where peace is established even between oppressed nominal plaintiffs and truculent casual ejectors.

The Speaking Telephone, Talking Phonograph, and Other Novelties. By George B. Prescott. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878.)—In his brief preface the author of this volume informs his readers that he has been "much indebted," in preparing the Introduction further on, to the printed argument of an eminent patent lawyer of this city. The Introduction consists of barely six pages octavo, of which about four and a half, if properly acknowledged with inverted commas, would appear to constitute the indebtedness referred to. The small degree of originality thus indicated is a fair sample of the way in which the entire book has been made up. It is an unskilful compilation from a great variety of sources, and Mr. Prescott's individuality is to be found mainly in the arrangement of his materials with a view to disparaging the claims of Professor Bell as the inventor of the telephone, and exalting those of Mr. Elisha Gray. In addition to the subjects specified in the title there are chapters on quadruplex telegraphy, electric call-bells, and the electric light. The illustrations are many and excellent.

Gems of American Scenery, consisting of Stereoscopic Views among the White Mountains. With descriptive text. Illustrations by the Albertype process. (New York: Harroun & Bierstadt. 12mo. 1878.)—The title, as far as it goes, accurately describes this novel publication. An important addition, however, is that the front cover is ingeniously provided with a hinged flap containing stereoscopic lenses, so that each of the twenty-four views can be enjoyed without recourse to a regular instrument. We are not aware that the Albertype process has ever before been used for this purpose. The objection to it and to the kindred heliotype process is that the prints are too uneven, and at best lack something of the clearness and brilliancy of the silver print. We have, nevertheless, been agreeably disappointed to find how considerable an illusion even the poorest of the present series is capable of making, and one or two leave little to be desired. The gem is, as it ought to be, the view of Mt. Washington from the Glen (p. 71); this combines judicious "composition," an excellent negative, and exceptionally good printing. Other noticeably successful views are those of Glen Ellis Falls, the Flume, the Crawford Notch (quite spoiled by the railway), the Willey House, the Upper Falls of the Ammonoosuc, the Cathedral, and some of the minor cascades. The panoramic effects are less praiseworthy; but that about Plymouth, N. H., is fairly given. By a rigid selection of negatives and prints a second work of this kind ought to be considerably improved; and if the publishers will but furnish the inside of the back cover with a couple of tapes or elastic bands, the same lenses can be directed upon detached stereoscopic views, again saving the expense of an instrument.

Echoes from Mist-Land; or, the Nibelungen Lay, Revealed to Lovers of Romance and Chivalry, by Auber Forestier. (Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 1878. 12mo, pp. 218.)—This is the first American edition of the whole 'Nibelungen Lied,' and as such deserves to be warmly welcomed. It is not a translation strictly speaking, but rather a transposing or retelling in prose form. The division into thirty-nine adventures with their appropriate headings is preserved, and Auber Forestier tells the story with remarkable faithfulness, and in a manner highly dramatic. The value of the work is greatly enhanced by an elaborate introduction, which gives a pretty full account of the various Old Norse as well as of the Old High-German versions of the epic, and traces the growth and development of epic literature among the several branches of the Aryan race. This volume will help the reader to appreciate Karl Simrock's large German edition with Schnorr's illustrations, Wilhelm Jordan's "Nibelunge," Wagner's famous tetralogy, and William Morris's last poem, "Sigurd the Volsung and the Fall of the Niblungs."

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 15, 1878.

The Week.

GENERAL BUTLER has given his written reply to Kearney's questions about the power of the State over Chinese immigration, and it cannot be called altogether encouraging as regards that, because he says the Supreme Court has decided that no State can, under the United States Constitution, prevent the entrance of subjects of the Chinese Empire *as such*. He suggests, therefore, that the Chinese should be considered "a curse," and then, like the doctor who cured all diseases by throwing the patient into "fits," in the treatment of which he possessed extraordinary skill, he makes short work of them. He holds that a State has the power to rid itself of "a curse," and mentions four distinct "curses" over which it has already unquestioned control, viz.: famine, incendiarism, crime, and liquor-peddling. Under this rule, however, Massachusetts would have a right to get rid of both Butler and Kearney, for they are both curses and cursing curses to boot. It follows, according to Butler, that if the Chinese be a curse, the State to which they come is a "lazar-house," and every State has a right to refuse to be a "lazar-house." "No State," he says, "can, against its will, so long as it is independent and sovereign, be made the lazar-house of the world," and "nothing in the Constitution gives a branch of the Executive the right by treaty to make it the supreme law of the land that any State shall be the lazar-house of Asia." If Kearney is satisfied with this legal opinion he is simpler than we supposed him. If he deals with it as it deserves he will take a new rope, and after giving Butler thirty-nine lashes with it, and cursing him roundly, will hang him to a lamp-post as an old cheat and humbug and deceiver of the godlike workingmen.

The real objection to the Chinese is one which cannot be reached by any statute or constitution that can stand in this country. They are as moral and religious as Kearney himself, and more agreeable personally to the great majority of Americans. The Chinese are underbidding the Irish and other European immigrants in the labor market, and they could not do this if their standard of living was not lower and their habits more economical; but this is the very offence the Irish committed against the native Americans. The Irish mode of living has been very objectionable to Americans from the very beginning. No decent American—none of the kind of men who made the country what it is—likes or would like to have Kearney living near him, or competing in business with him. All such men consider him an odious and dirty ruffian, foul and immoral in his conduct and language, or, in other words, a "curse," but it has never entered into any one's head to get rid of him on that account by law. The real Chinese question is one which Kearney does not touch, and which it would be ridiculous for either him or Butler to raise, and that is, whether a certain standard of living and certain social ideals should be hereafter exacted from all foreigners seeking settlement in this country. There would be a great deal to be said in favor of such a test, and it would have a large body of supporters if it were practicable, but there is no test worth imposing which would not shut out a large proportion of the European immigrants. Any State in which Kearney enjoys liberty of speech is in a certain sense a "lazar-house." It is true the Europeans amalgamate with the Americans after a generation, and the Chinese probably would not; but then are we prepared to legislate that no race which is not likely to amalgamate completely with the bulk of the existing population shall be allowed to remain here? If so, how should we deal with the negroes?

The philosophy of the political campaign seems to be understood by General Ben. Harrison, of Indiana, who, instead of "making it hot under the old flag," has stated with uncommon clearness and candor the obligations of the Government with respect to its indebtedness of all descriptions, and has done his part toward lifting public sentiment into a purer atmosphere than the Republicans of his State have been accustomed to breathe. The philosophy of the situation is, that the Republicans have nothing to gain by attacking the public credit either by repealing the Resumption Act or otherwise, since the Democrats will always surpass them in such meanness, and the Greenback party proper will outdo both. General Harrison, who by the way is presumptively the candidate of his party for Senator Morton's seat (held *ad interim* by Voorhees), delivered a speech at Richmond, Indiana, last Friday, the greater part of which related to pending financial issues. He vindicated the resumption policy without grimaces or apologies, exposed the false pretence that the hard times have been caused by contraction of the currency (since the currency has not been contracted), and showed that if there had been any such contraction it would have been in pursuance of a resolution passed by Congress December 18, 1865, "cordially concurring" in such a measure then proposed by Secretary McCulloch, upon which resolution Mr. Voorhees voted in the affirmative. The effects of "fiat-money" upon the laboring classes were portrayed with signal ability, and the speech, as a whole, indicated Mr. Harrison's fitness for the best position in the public councils which the State of Indiana has to bestow.

It is another good symptom that in Pennsylvania also the Republican campaign has been opened with a speech devoted almost wholly to financial and economic issues. The speaker was Mr. Galusha A. Grow, and his remarks were so much in accordance with the *Tribune's* notion of what the party issues should be that it prints them in full and adopts them as its own sentiments. Like General Harrison, the veteran Pennsylvania politician denounces the irredeemable paper promise, but the honest dollar which he advocates is Blaine's "coin dollar," and not the dollar which is really and always worth one hundred cents. Mr. Grow does not mean to juggle, and in defining this coin dollar he correctly says it "represents a certain weight of metal" which "you can exchange in the commercial world anywhere for an equal weight of the *same* metal in the coin of any country." But just before he had said, very incorrectly, that "the coin dollar runs through the commercial world by its own inherent strength, and *bears upon its face* its real value." Mr. Grow attributes the present financial distress to the decline in railroad building and to over-production; the decline he explains by saying that railroad building "stopped from sheer exhaustion in that line of investment, hastened somewhat, perhaps, by a spirit of unfriendly legislation which spread over the country," but the cause of this spreading he leaves unexplained. Nor has he anything to say of the connection between the railroads of Pennsylvania and the present anomalous condition of politics in that State.

Last week the Louisiana Democrats adopted a platform as vicious and unprincipled in its financial policy as that of the Greenback-Laborers at Syracuse. When a party declares that the bonds of the United States should be paid with non-interest-bearing notes there is no lower pit for it to fall into. The best thing to hope for is that Dennis Kearney may go to New Orleans, organize the mob whom this platform was intended to conciliate, and compel the decent folks to organize against them. As the matter now stands, the fine gentlemen will vote the ticket and stay by the party, hoping that the platform will pass for buncombe outside their own State, and that no mischief will result in Congress. The real effect will be still further to demoralize the Democratic party in the North and West, and to put a new argument into the mouths of Republicans, who will contend, with some reason, that the reconstructed rebels are seeking to repudiate the public debt by way of revenge for the emancipation of the slaves. The Republican party

of Louisiana is virtually disbanded for this campaign, although efforts are making to save two or three members of Congress. A new party, composed mainly of the old Native American organization, is crystallizing and drawing heavily upon the colored population for recruits. Whether it is penetrated with honester ideas than the Democrats in reference to money and the public faith remains to be seen. It could not be worse.

The "new rebellion" in South Carolina, which has so alarmed Mr. Foster, and seemed to him to call for a Solid North, has ended ingloriously. The mountain distillers, apparently despairing of overthrowing the United States Government and establishing a confederacy on the basis of free whiskey, have offered to surrender and plead guilty on condition that their sentences be suspended during good behavior. The district-attorney recommends the acceptance of this offer, and the Commissioner of Internal Revenue does accept it, except as regards Redmond and others who fired on the revenue officers, so that this great cloud is now lifted from the future of the country. If Mr. Jefferson Davis could now be induced to hold his tongue, and Mr. Singleton, of Mississippi, would give up the doctrine of State Rights, Mr. Foster would, doubtless, as soon have the North liquid as "solid." We cannot deny, however, that as long as "rebellions" can be got up by any two men with a pair of copper kettles there will be room for anxiety.

At the time of Niles G. Parker's arrest, last October, the State of South Carolina issued also a requisition for Hiram H. Kimpton, formerly its financial agent under the Scott administration. Kimpton, however, prudently made off, and it was only last week that he was arrested in Westfield, Mass. He is now in jail at Springfield, under heavy bonds, awaiting the action of Governor Rice on the requisition, which is based on a complaint of conspiracy in March, 1872, with Senator Patterson (at that time president of the Blue Ridge Railroad Company), with Parker and others to bribe members of the South Carolina Legislature to vote for certain financial bills then pending, one of which related to the railroad just mentioned, one to Kimpton's agency in New York, and one to the bonds of the Senate. Ex-Governor Chamberlain has offered himself or has been retained as one of the counsel for the defence, and has every motive for preventing the surrender of Kimpton, inasmuch as the reports of the South Carolina fraud committee, as well as the confessions of Parker, have implicated him also in all the Ring's trafficking in the honor and credit of the State. The objection on which most reliance will be placed is probably that which availed in the Winslow extradition case—viz., that the authorities of South Carolina do not mean to punish him on the indictment, but wish to get hold of him for another purpose. Undoubtedly the State has more than one ground of proceeding against Kimpton, and even earlier than the one chosen—for example, his share in swindling it out of its stock in the Greenville and Columbia Railroad in 1870; but this does not concern Governor Rice if, as appears, the *prima-facie* evidence accompanying the complaint of bribery is sufficient. Kimpton is reported to dread going South again, and to consider himself persecuted by being singled out in this way; he affects a great horror of South Carolina prisons on account of their extreme squalor, and looks forward to a very brief existence in case he is shut up in them. The Boston *Advertiser* says he was never very intimate with Chamberlain, either in college or out of it, and denies that the latter induced him to come to South Carolina or secured his appointment as financial agent.

The Commission upon the removal of the Sioux Indians has determined to accede to their wishes and to grant them the White Clay country for their permanent home. General Sherman thought they should be kept near the Missouri River, and the Commissioners offered them fifteen hundred additional head of cattle if they would consent to this plan. The Indians, partly it seems under the influence of Union Pacific agents, refused to entertain the proposal and adhered to their original demand. The Government possesses no means of compelling submission except by stopping supplies—a course which might result in disastrous war owing to the fact that the Indians are well provisioned, that Sitting Bull is encamped invitingly within six days' march, and that the two tribes whose submission is desired number thirteen thousand and are held in check by only two hundred and fifty cavalry. The Indians, therefore, gained their point. If the end in view be not merely a temporary postponement of difficulties, but permanent settlement and an honest attempt at civilizing the Sioux, as ought to be the case, the conclusion is a wise one. The lands to which they go have large well-watered and well-wooded tracts, and are very suitable for agriculture and cattle-raising, while the Missouri River lands are by no means so desirable. It is quite in character with our Indian policy in the past that probably the Government's military weakness rather than its desire has won for the Indians this concession to their reasonable demands. It is likely that this is the last time that Red Cloud will appear in history.

Work on the Brooklyn Bridge was suspended at the beginning of the week owing to Comptroller Kelly's refusal to issue bonds to complete New York's share of the total cost of the enterprise. This share is one-third of $8,000,000, and there still remains to be paid out on account of it $1,666,666. Arguments for and against the legality of further outlay on the part of this city have been submitted to Corporation Counsel Whitney, and he has decided that it is the Comptroller's duty to issue the bonds and pay the money on the requisition of the Trustees. He does not allow that the Act of 1875, in fixing the amount of $8,000,000 as a maximum for the two cities, had reference to payments already made, but holds that it was purely prospective. Nor does he find that the terms of the act justify suspension of payments if it seems probable that the bridge will cost more than the maximum in view. The Trustees, he says, will certainly in that case lose all right to call for further contributions, but up to that point the city must go regardless of consequences, and with full knowledge that in the Trustees is vested the sole authority to decide on the best method of building the bridge in conformity with the requirements of the law as to size, height, and strength. The decision is fortified by other considerations which seem to approve its soundness. Mr. Kelly, however, refuses to be convinced, and insists upon the matter being carried into the courts. He uses the arguments just enumerated, and adds another, of such late date as to be puerile—namely, that it is Brooklyn which will derive most benefit from the bridge, as few New-Yorkers want to go to Brooklyn. His action is variously ascribed to loyalty to his trust, and to his desire to control for political purposes the appointment of the five to six hundred voters engaged upon the bridge. He cannot really suppose that this great work will be suffered to lapse, and he must know the poor economy of interrupting so delicate a construction on the eve of the inclement season. We do not overrate the importance of the bridge to New York when we say that it might easily become a dividing issue in our local elections.

A remarkable feature of the financial situation is the dearness of money in London and its cheapness here. The Bank of England during the week advanced its discount rate to 5 per cent., and loans secured by collateral were even higher. Here 1 per cent. was the common rate for loans secured by pledge of United States bonds, and 2 per cent. where the collateral was approved railroad stocks or bonds. Naturally enough, with this condition of affairs, American securities have been returned from London, and sterling bills have advanced from near the point at which it is profitable to import gold to near the point of profitable export. The extremely low rate here results in good part from Treasury influence, which, disregarding everything else, is directed to the encouragement of purchases of the United States 4 per cent. bonds. Specifically what has been done is to make the money market extremely easy by leaving with

or putting into the banks Treasury money. Since our last issue $10,000,000 more 4 per cent. bonds have been sold and an equal amount of 5.20s (6 per cents) have been called in for redemption. The Secretary is evidently determined to make hay while the sun shines, so far as refunding is concerned, knowing that in the autumn the legitimate demand for money will probably put a stop to the sales of 4 per cents. It is to be hoped that he will not press refunding so as to unsettle the markets, which must be in favorable condition when he begins specie payments.

The Silver Conference was opened in Paris on Saturday, M. Léon Say being elected President. As some of the members had not arrived it was adjourned to Friday, the 16th. It is to be hoped that the discussions will then be pushed on as rapidly as possible. They cannot last very long, because it is very unlikely that the members on either side have anything to say on the question with which the others are not thoroughly familiar. All our representatives can do is to offer to come to terms as to a ratio between the value in circulation of the two metals, but any ratio which is likely to be accepted by the Latins would be unsatisfactory to the Silver-men here. A prompt conclusion of the Conference would be useful in preparing the public mind here for some action on the part of Congress putting an end to the sorry comedy which our currency arrangements now present, and saving the Treasury from the drain of its gold when resumption begins. One of the most difficult features in the task of the American delegates will be to answer the question, which will doubtless be put to them early in the proceedings, what steps this Government has taken, or proposes to take, to prevent the practical adoption of a single silver standard by us as soon as silver coin becomes sufficiently plentiful.

The only advance made in the solution of the Eastern question in England consists in the announcement that the reforms in Asiatic Turkey, stipulated for in the convention, will be defined and regulated by treaty, which is now in process of negotiation and will be anxiously looked for as a revelation of the extent of the liabilities which England has incurred. The six millions sterling, which was voted last spring, and which the Chancellor of the Exchequer announced pleasantly would not be all spent, has gone long ago, and the occupation of Cyprus seems already likely to call for considerable outlay which cannot be charged on the revenues of the island. There is a great rush of traders to the place, and real estate has already risen enormously. The Continental press has been much amused by Lord Beaconsfield's speech, that of Paris in particular finding it full of jokes. The doctrine that the partition of Turkey has helped to consolidate and strengthen the Turkish Empire, which the Premier gravely laid down, has caused much mirth. It is worthy of note that the *Pall Mall Gazette* already propounds the suggestion that the Anglo-Turkish Convention will never be carried out, and was never meant to be carried out; that it was devised as a means of extricating the Ministers from the scrape in which the Treaty of San Stefano left them, and enabling them to "come home in triumph," though Russia refused to give way to the needful extent even when threatened with the "reserves" and the Indian troops. It has, therefore, now served its purpose, and the *Gazette* thinks "the grand new policy" will be allowed to fall to the ground.

The Austrian occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina has been contested at almost every step, but the gravity of the opposition can only be inferred from the very meagre despatches. The first rude check was at Sheptshe, on the Bosna, in its middle course, from which a reconnoitring party of hussars was repulsed, and afterwards in its retreat attacked with considerable loss at Maglai, through which it had already passed with impunity on the advance. The Thirteenth Austrian Army Corps occupied the latter place after an engagement on the 5th instant; and from thence to Sheptshe there was continuous fighting with the main division of the insurgent force, which was provided with cannon. The town, abandoned by the Mussulman population, was occupied on the 8th, and the advance the next day was upon the fortified pass of Vranduk, which, as well as Senitza, appears not to have been held, for General Philippovitch effected on the 13th, at Vitesh, a junction with the force under the Grand Duke of Wirtemberg, whose advance was parallel up the valley of the Sanna. The Twentieth Corps, however, whose objective was Svornik on the Servian frontier, by way of the valley of the Spressa, was engaged at Gratshanitza on the 4th, and on the 8th, 9th, and 10th was resisted as far as Tuzla, from which place it was obliged to fall back to Gratshanitza again. The Eighteenth Corps crossed the Dalmatian frontier, August 1, into Herzegovina, and occupied Mostar on the 5th. The concentration on Serayevo is therefore complete with the exception of the Svornik wing. The operations in the direction of Servia will bring the Austrian forces into close contact with those of the principality now occupied in watching them.

There appears no doubt that the resistance proceeds from the Mussulman inhabitants joined by deserters from the regular army, most of the regiments stationed in Bosnia being made up of Bosnians. The Porte denies stoutly having anything to do with it, which is probably true. Its late attempts to make terms with the Austrians before the latter crossed the frontier were, perhaps, due to the confusion of mind in which, according to the well-informed Vienna correspondent of the London *Times*, the decisions of the Congress left it. The pashas were apparently under the impression that the Congress had met, like that of Paris in 1856, to set Turkey on her legs again, do away with the results of the war, and leave the work of "reform" in Turkish hands—or, in other words, let it be carried on "within the party." They have accordingly been completely dazed by the partition, and have had some difficulty in believing that the distribution of territory was a reality. It is indeed reported that nobody has as yet dared to tell the Sultan what has happened.

The agitation in Italy about "Italia irredenta" continues, having received a fresh stimulus from the participation of the Garibaldi family. Menotti has presided at a large and excited meeting in Rome, and a telegram was received from his father advising the people of Trieste to rise and "take to the mountains." Austria has thus far taken no notice of the demonstrations, and probably will not do so, as the Italian Government is very energetic in keeping them within proper bounds. In the meantime no progress has been made towards an agreement between Turkey and Greece with regard to the territory to be ceded to the latter, and the Greeks show themselves indisposed to treat with the Turks directly, preferring to have recourse to arbitration, which would doubtless adopt the recommendation of the Congress pure and simple. That the Turks will have to swallow this last bitter pill before long there seems little question, as both the French and Italian ambassadors at Constantinople have intimated very significantly that war with Greece, even if successful, would do Turkey no good.

M. Reutern, the Russian Minister of Finance, who has been in office almost ever since the Crimean War, and to whose skill and energy the financial recovery of Russia and the conversion of a deficit into a surplus in the annual revenue within that period have been due, has resigned his office, ostensibly because his health is declining, but really, it is said, because the bureaucratic and war party have got the better of him. He threatened to resign if the Congress had not been held, and he has lately made a great effort to have the three steamers bought by voluntary subscriptions, to be used as cruisers, given back to commerce, and looked on their conversion into war vessels with the approbation of the Emperor as a personal defeat. His retirement, now that peace is assured, makes little impression, but it will be exceedingly difficult to fill his place, for financiers do not abound in Russia.

THE "SOLID NORTH" FOLLY.

THE confession of Mr. Foster, of Ohio, that he is disappointed in the results of "the President's policy," and agrees with the malcontent wing of the Republican party that we should return to the plan of opposing a "Solid North" to a "Solid South" for an indefinite period, is a sign of the times of which all those who looked to the Cincinnati Convention for "reform within the party," and who supported Mr. Hayes as the representative of that reform, should take note. Mr. Foster's defection, considering the position he has occupied towards the Administration, shows that the indifference or hostility to the pledges of the Cincinnati platform, which we had supposed was confined to the section of the party represented by Mr. Blaine, Mr. Conkling, and the Chandlers, is spreading; and that there is some danger that by the time the next Convention meets there will be but few to remember that the Republican party undertook, in 1876, to reform the civil service and the currency, and to pacify the South. We must ask those who will think that we are giving too broad a construction to Mr. Foster's language to consider well what is meant by the proposal that we should devoté ourselves to the perpetuation of the political division created by slavery, by arraying the North as a body against the South as a body. To carry out any such policy successfully would necessarily involve the laying aside of all business except the collection of reasons for disliking and distrusting the South, and for refusing to co-operate with Southern men on any question not immediately connected with what are called "the results of the war." Our newspapers would have to gather all the stories they could hear of showing the insecurity of negro life and property in that region, and all the evidence, however slight or trifling, of the hostility of the Southern people to Federal authority, or of their reluctance to pay Federal dues. Every article or speech appearing in a Southern paper, indicating dislike of negro voting, or restiveness under the public debt, or of a desire to obtain payment for the emancipated slaves, would have to be quoted by our Republican press, and commented on in a way that would be likely to magnify its significance and "fire the Northern heart," and at the same time exasperate the Southern orators and editors, so as to draw from them more material of the same sort. Everything would have to be done, too, that could be done by tongue or pen to prevent any revival of confidence in the leading members of Southern society, the Congressmen, judges, lawyers, ministers; their apologies for or explanations of local disorders would have to be denounced as hypocritical or evasive, and their manifestations of interest in questions of general concern, or their attempts to co-operate with Northern reformers, would have to be repelled as insidious attempts to throw the Northern public off its guard.

We do not mean to say that the best Republicans, such men as Mr. Foster himself, for instance, would engage in this work—though the maxim, "*Qui veut la fin, veut les moyens*," might fairly enough be applied to them—for probably most of them when talking about the "Solid North" and "Solid South" attach no definite and well-considered meaning to their own words; but in practice this is the way in which the business of keeping a Solid North arrayed against a Solid South would have to be carried on by the rank and file of "workers," the managers, stump-speakers, and editors. The South would have to be painted as black as possible in order to keep the North irritated and anxious, and make the Southern press and politicians supply the needful material for campaign speeches and documents. Nor would there be much likelihood that this material would not be forthcoming in sufficient quantity. When we see the facts which have led Mr. Foster to call for the encouragement of sectional animosity, the resistance of mountain distillers to paying the whiskey tax, a foolish speech by Jeff. Davis, and the enunciation of speculative opinions by a Southern Congressman on State Rights, we may well conclude that if this was all that was needed to justify the existence of the Republican party it might last for ever. To keep this flame of hostility to the South fully fanned, however, denunciations and exaggerated or misconstrued descriptions of Southern politics and society would not be sufficient. Northern questions, or national questions not connected with the Southern question—such, for instance, as those which are included under the general head of reform—would have to be neglected or belittled in the manner foreshadowed by the Republican leaders during the last Presidential canvass, when they absolutely ignored the platform, and devoted themselves exclusively to denunciations of the South. The reform of the civil service, of the currency, and of our system of taxation, and every other fiscal, administrative, or judicial problem, would have to be set down either as possessing comparatively small importance, or as one of the non-essentials of the party creed in order to secure union in the task of defending the Government and Treasury against the designs of "the ex-rebels." As the designs would be constantly renewed in the Northern press, the defence would be everlasting, and the reforms be indefinitely postponed or relegated to the category of things possible only in a better world. How rapidly this category could be filled even with what we now regard as our most precious blessings is well illustrated in the growth and acceptance by large bodies of sensible Americans, within forty years, of the opinion that republican government cannot be conducted on business principles, or in any way except the mode adopted by the Turks after their entrance into Europe. When we see a doctrine of this kind laid down as a great political principle by so considerable a man as the present governor of Massachusetts, for instance, there is nothing extravagant in the prediction that forty years more of preoccupation with Southern problems would subject us to the conclusion that the trial of suits about property by trained judges was a needless and antiquated formality, and that such controversies could be best settled by town-meetings.

Let us observe, too, that thousands of those who supported Mr. Hayes most ardently, and most confidently promised "thorough, radical, and complete civil-service reform" in his name, have not only got over the shock of seeing the civil service used immediately on his accession to power to reward the set of bad characters at the South who were engaged in the electoral count, but point triumphantly to the fact that no participation in their frauds has been brought home to the President, as if this of itself proved the success of his Administration. Nor is this the only curious illustration of the readiness of public opinion, if not constantly restrained and enlightened, to accommodate itself to circumstances however mischievous and unwholesome. It is only two years since General Grant left the Presidency, after having given the country at least four years of unparalleled corruption and disregard of law. His faults as a civil ruler were so glaring that he had in 1876 neither a defender nor an apologist who dared to open his mouth. But at this moment "the guilty men" who figured most prominently in his régime have emerged from their hiding places and are actually clamoring for another term for him, and shrewd observers begin to say that, in spite of all our sorrowful experience of the past and our anxiety about the future, we run a good deal of risk of seeing him nominated in 1880 on the "hurrah" system; that is, offered as a candidate to the party of moral ideas with loud yells, after a blatherskite speech from some "Bob" Ingersoll, put up by the swarm of jobbers, defaulters, and wire-pullers who recall with maudlin tears the good old days when a rascal was never so safe in the public service as when he was "under fire"—that is, when the proofs of his villany were being arranged and published. What is more striking still than all this is that many men who profited nothing by the corruption of the Grant régime are reconciled to and indeed cheered by the prospect of his re-election, from feeling that he will in some manner protect us against the Communists; their ideas of the Constitution of their own country being apparently so muddled that they fancy that he will be able, they do not exactly know how, to dispense with legislation and defy Congress, and raise an army or police for the defence of property without regard to the law of the land. All this is the not unnatural result of the extravagant, and indeed absurd, expectations about Mr. Hayes raised by his friends in 1876. The reaction of the disappointment is like the buoyancy of the hopefulness—a little grotesque in its manifestations. But it is more than

ever necessary that the sober-minded and rational, by whose labors the Government is to be reformed—if reform be possible—should now neither give way to disappointment nor relax their exertions for a better result next time. Something has been gained by Mr. Hayes's Administration, and in the two remaining years of it we have no doubt its influence will furnish support to those who seek to prevent our being presented with a choice of evils in 1880. It will be a great misfortune (in the present state of the country an incalculable one) if in the next Presidential canvass prominent reformers have no better work to do than running about showing what a rascal the other candidate is—how much worse in many important particulars than their own man, even admitting the truth of some of the most serious charges against the latter.

MR. HEWITT'S COMMITTEE ON THE DEPRESSION IN BUSINESS.

THE Congressional Committee now holding sessions in the Post-office building to enquire into the causes and remedy of the existing business depression have commenced work by giving audience to the leaders of "the unemployed," of whom about two score have thus far been listened to. The witnesses are generally agreed that the depression grows out of the use of machinery in the arts and the payment of interest on money, but as to remedies there exists a diversity of opinion so remarkable that nobody could have conceived it as existing even in the ranks of socialistic agitators, spiritualist mediums, and world-harmonic seers. One philosopher thought that a universal eight-hour law, rigidly enforced, would lead to good times; another rested his case on the thesis that all stone-cutting should be done where the building is to be erected, and not at the quarry, while a third made a rather ingenious attack upon the system of contract work on Government buildings. In each of these suggestions there was something that could be understood, but they served merely by way of preface to the "Socialistic Labor Party," who were present in force and developed their plans at great length and with the utmost confusion. The first representative desired that the Government should take charge of all capital and all branches of business, putting all profits into a common fund and making good all losses out of the public treasury; but the next witness thought it would be sufficient if the Government should seize all the railroads and issue greenbacks to the dissenting stockholders; and a third proposed, by way of variation, that all land should be confiscated by the Government, and the present owners be paid an annuity while they lived—an arrangement which would doubtless be welcome to many bankrupt speculators in real estate. Nearly all the witnesses agreed that there could be no prosperity until interest on money was entirely abolished, but there were different opinions as to the mode of effecting this happy result. One speaker thought that an income-tax might be imposed sufficiently heavy to check this "gangrene of accumulated capital"; another favored the plan of issuing so many greenbacks that nobody would pay any interest for the use of them. Other remedies suggested were vast public works, the prohibition of Chinese labor, the abolition of Congress and the executive and judiciary, so that "the people" might enact, interpret, and execute the laws; the repeal of all customs duties, the prohibition of exports of raw materials and of imports of manufactures; the extension of the suffrage to women, the colonization of idlers, including the army and navy, upon the public lands, and the discontinuance of chaplains in legislative bodies.

Since the resolution under which this enquiry was commenced bears the marks of demagogic origin, and implies in its preamble that the business depression is due to legislative causes, and may be removed by acts of Congress, it is desirable, and perhaps necessary, to take the testimony of those who make the most outcry and at whose instance, presumably, the investigation was ordered. It is not to be supposed that a man of Mr. Hewitt's intelligence expects to obtain light from the Schwabs, Bartholomews, and Myra Halls who have given their evidence to the committee's stenographer; but it will perhaps be useful to have within reach some authentic record of their aims and plans, so that when General Butler, Senator Voorhees, and Mr. Hendrick B. Wright assume to speak for "the unemployed," reference may be had to the views of leaders who are nearer to them than any member of Congress. Crackbrained and destructive as their plans are shown to be, there is good ground for believing that they fairly represent the element whose interests and aspirations Butler, Ewing, Wright, and Voorhees actually subserve. They are not the industrious poor, the depositors in savings-banks, or even the majority of those who are out of work through no fault of their own. They are the disaffected mass of dwellers in cities, whom no temptation of wages could draw to the labor of the wheat-field or the lumber-camp. Their doctrine is that they have as much right to live in New York, or some other large town where there are good breweries and plenty of amusements, as anybody. The world, according to their notion, owes them not merely a living, but a particular style of living. If they were transported to the public lands, and provided at the public expense with farm implements, seed, and domestic animals, they would stay no longer than they could convert the movables into cash. The want of society, of excitement, of companions to confer with on the unequal distribution of wealth would be insupportable to them. Nine-tenths of them would be back in the cities or out on the road within a few months. The only man who can be trusted to make his permanent home on the public lands is the one who goes there of his own accord and digs and hews his own fortune for himself.

One of the most useful enquiries that the committee could make would be to ascertain the actual numbers of "the unemployed" in a few of the most afflicted localities. It would not be difficult to arrive at the percentage of adults out of work and out of money in such cities as Pittsburgh, Fall River, Scranton, and other places where manufacturing or mining industries have suffered severely and notoriously. Very wild statements are made of the numbers of such cases, but no authority is or can be cited to support them. If a considerable fraction of these surmises were true there would presently be a famine in the United States second only to that raging in Northern China. Most of our large towns have charitable organizations and relief societies, private and public, whose business it is to know who and where the unemployed are and what kind of work they can do, and to register all such information from day to day and from year to year. No investigation will be complete or satisfactory without a searching enquiry into the extent of the evil complained of as well as of the causes and remedy. There are people out of employment in good times as well as in bad times. In periods of the highest prosperity merchants in all the cities are in receipt of applications for work of some sort. Editors of newspapers are unable to recall the time when they had not more reporters and proof-readers on their books than they could find steady employment for. "Lack of employment" is therefore as much in need of definition as any other phrase in common use, and the committee will fail of their undertaking entirely if they do not collect data for drawing a line somewhere, however roughly, between those who are willing to work anywhere and at anything which will secure them an honest living and those who prefer tramping or genteel beggary to hard labor.

A colloquy between Mr. Thompson, of Pennsylvania (the mover of the investigation), and one of the socialistic-labor witnesses touched very nearly the kernel of the difficulty. The witness desired an arrangement of human affairs in which a widow with eight children should not be obliged to work at all. Mr. Thompson enquired whether that would not be offering a premium for large families. The book of Malthus being opened by the gentleman from Pennsylvania, it will be in order for Schwab and Kearney to go into his district and denounce him as a godless tyrant and oppressor who believes in placing restrictions upon the increase of the species and denies to the poor man the right to have children. Nothing would give Mr. Thompson so much trouble to explain as this inadvertence to the class whom his resolution was intended to flatter. Nevertheless the question pressing upon the committee

and upon the whole world, at all times, is nothing else than the problem of supporting an unlimited—potentially unlimited—number of people upon a limited amount of produce. Great Britain and Germany solve this problem by emigration, France by non-increase, India and China by famine, and the United States hitherto by the westward flow of population. In remoter ages the same problem was solved by war. The swollen numbers of contiguous tribes pressed against each other till they came to blows, when the stronger put the weaker to the sword or drove them into the wilderness or the sea. Legislation is confessedly unequal to the task of putting checks upon the increase of population, but if the land-laws of a country are bad the evil may be mitigated and the crisis postponed by altering them. There can be no land cheaper than that which is obtained for nothing. The United States has offered its public lands through the Homestead Act for the cost of surveying (which is next to nothing), during the past fifteen years. More than this it cannot do without assuming burdens too great for any government and duties which it would be powerless to perform.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—II.

THE COUP D'ŒIL.

PARIS, July 30, 1878.

IS it possible to get any clear notion of this great fair by means of any or of all the plans and pictures which the illustrated journals furnish? Probably not. There are many peculiarities which require more detailed representations than they will be apt to give you. There are some even of the most characteristic features of the show—of those features wherein this International differs essentially from all others—which it would seem are hard to see clearly from a distance; for visitors arrive here in a state of impatient curiosity about some of them, and find the facts very different from their previous imaginings. These "Façades" about which so much has been said and written, and the "Rue des Nations," the Trocadéro Palace also, and its relations with the Exhibition, seem to be puzzles; and, therefore, perhaps some account of the general arrangements and outside of things may be interesting. Your readers are doubtless all familiar with the Philadelphia Exhibition of 1876. This one of Paris might almost be described by contrasting it with that. The Paris show has much less ground at its disposal—less than half as much, but has much more space roofed over—not twice as much, but very near. It follows that Paris has very little open park-ground, while Philadelphia was remarkable in having so much—such noble great trees, such walks, such ample space and air! The Paris Exhibition is rather strong in external architecture and decorative effect: indeed, the exteriors of some of the buildings are surprisingly good, and this result is enhanced by the highly ornamental treatment of the somewhat restricted garden-space. It must, no doubt, be granted that in these points Philadelphia was exceedingly weak. The architecture was lamentably uninteresting, unimpressive, and in no way a help to the landscape, while the ornamental gardening was not so employed as to help the effect of the buildings. In fact, there was nothing at Philadelphia except one or two of the buildings put up by different States and nations—for instance, New Jersey and Japan—which it was worth one's while to look at; while at Paris there is much, very much, that is worth study, and the great Trocadéro Palace, which has been heartily abused, is, in spite of all, a new ornament to the most ornamental of cities, and one which is fortunately permanent. At Philadelphia all was scattered and accidental with the exception of the placing of the three principal buildings close together and in a sort of symmetry, and even this exception is more apparent than real, as they were put in one corner of the grounds, while all the rest was undistributed, irregular, in the "natural style." At Paris all is as accurately centred and as artificial as the gardens at Versailles. This, indeed, was necessary in a space so small in comparison with the buildings, and even Count Rumford or the designers of Prospect Park in Brooklyn would have been driven to it; but it goes far to make the contrast complete. And for further points of dissimilarity, at Philadelphia the machinery was so distributed in its vast hall that it constituted a magnificent and impressive spectacle even to those who knew and cared nothing for mechanical appliances *per se;* while here it is scattered, it hides away in the outermost ranges of sheds, a quarter of a mile apart, in long-drawn, narrow, crowded buildings, fatiguing to visit, not imposing, not likely to attract anybody but the mechanician in search of the object of his study. And, finally, as a natural complement to the last sentence, it must be written that in all the various departments of fine art Paris is to Philadelphia as all to nothing. Of all which, and especially of fine art, in detail hereafter. But you may rest assured that this contrasting of one Exhibition with the other (which reads a little as if it were written beforehand and "on general principles," as the obvious and natural distinction between Yankee-land, with its works and ways, and France) is the effect actually produced upon the mind of every thoughtful visitor of a week's standing—one who has had barely time to visit once each and every part of the huge emporium, and not time to study any department closely.

The Seine flows by the renowned Champ de Mars, which witnessed those oaths soon to be broken and those newly-excited hopes soon to be forgotten in bloodshed and tyranny, of the beginning of that Revolution which only now, after nearly ninety years, seems to be completing itself. On the other side of the river, and exactly opposite this great plain, is the steep hill of the Trocadéro. It was in the Champ de Mars that the Exhibition of 1867 was held; but the situation is on the wrong side of the Seine, on the Rive Gauche, where, to be sure, is the Invalides with its famous dome and the tomb of the first Napoleon, and which is not quite so subordinate as the "Surrey Side" of the Thames at London, but still a little out of the way. It was resolved to avoid that little objection this time, and to unite the Champ de Mars to the Rive Droite by including the Trocadéro hill in the general plan. Now a very few figures: The open plain named above, and used for military exercises, extends back from the river toward the south-east about a thousand metres or five furlongs, or five-eighths of a mile; and this leaves only a street between this field and the front of the old military school, now and for many years the chief barrack of Paris. The width is not quite half the length. All this space of about one hundred and ten acres is enclosed for the Exhibition, and about two-thirds of it is covered by the main building itself, which is set back from the river as far as practicable. This building covers about seventy acres, nearly all roofed over, and there must be ten acres of accessory sheds—"annexes," as the word is always—while all the buildings at Philadelphia together, Main, Machinery, Agricultural and Horticultural Halls, Memorial building and annex, Government and Women's Pavilions, did not reach a total of fifty acres.

The Pont de Jéna, a bridge previously existing, has been raised and widened by the simple process of building upon it a structure like a roof with overhanging eaves; it is all planked over, as none but foot passengers and those in rolling chairs are to pass it. On the right bank of the river the hill rises steeply, and is crowned by the Palace of the Trocadéro, a vast and permanent structure in stone, having a lofty central mass, and curved wings stretching just a quarter of a mile from north-east to southwest. All the space between the inner front of this building and that of the main structure on the Champ de Mars is open park or rather garden, dotted with small pavilions and ornamental structures of various sorts, restaurants, cafés, and "tasting offices," and, except for these, kept in high condition as an ornamental garden. It is nearly half a mile long and half as wide, but is cut in two by the Seine, which occupies a good deal of space with its quays and the railway cutting beside it. From the covered gallery of the Trocadéro Palace is the most interesting prospect imaginable. At the spectator's feet the cascades and fountains of the hillside, with lawns in the highest condition and flower-beds at their gayest, all kept up by the rivalry of the different gardeners who have sowed the lawns and planted the flower-beds, and who watch over them continually. Then the river, and beyond it a still larger garden-ground, and then the great building, which, far from being the ugly gasometer of 1867, has lines of roof which fall into perspective in quite a seemly way, with the square domes that break them. The principal front, too, is well distributed, and is by far the most effective piece of work in iron and glass, at least on a large scale, since Sir Joseph Paxton's great greenhouse was put up in Hyde Park. The size of all this is somehow made to tell. It really looks as far to the most distant dome as it really is, fourteen hundred metres, or seven-eighths of a mile. Beyond this farthest dome is the building of the École Militaire, so called, and to the left of this unrolls itself a panorama of Paris, distant enough and extensive enough to show splendid changes of light and shadow, during the April-like days which now towards the end of July have succeeded to great and continuous heat. First, on the left is the lofty cupola of the Invalides, of which the upper part, being richly gilded while the lower part is in grey stone, has just the look of one edifice rising behind and beyond another. The spires of Sainte-Clotilde, the towers of Notre-Dame and the slender *flèche* of the Sainte-Chapelle grouped closely together, and further to the left the roofs of the Louvre, are, perhaps, the most striking fea-

tures of a scene famous enough and familiar enough as viewed from many different points, but perhaps never more beautiful than from this one. A huge etching by Maxime Lalanne exists, which ought to give this prospect except the Exposition buildings; it is not hard to find, and I recommend it to your readers ; two or three copies were for sale in New York last spring. The guide-book claims for this prospect the column of the Place Vendôme and the Arc de l'Étoile, but they can hardly be said to come within its sweep; it is extensive enough and varied enough without them. And perhaps the most beautiful feature in it is the Seine with its many bridges, seen from this point as foreshortened into a broad lake. One prominent object, however, Mr. Lalanne's etching will not be found to show—a huge white dome, which rises where once was the square central cupola of the Tuileries, and where the triumphal arch of the Carrousel would now but for this rotundity be seen beyond the ruined walls of the palace of Philibert Delorme. This object is the great *ballon captif*, in which two or three parties of aeronauts at twenty francs a head make each day short voyages towards the firmament, and which does very well for a dome all day, taking the eye more quickly with its size and its pale color than any object in that part of Paris, until at four o'clock it becomes a huge pale moon for fifteen minutes, and is more prominent still. The sight-seer goes up in it for four hundred metres, which is twice as high as the highest building that ever stood on this earth ; and he goes up in the easiest of all easy elevators or lifts ; but still the idea of a balloon tied by a string is not exciting to the imagination. And what a satire it is on the architecture of colossal magnitudes and grand effects that this swollen bag of gas should outdo its most magnificent productions—at a little distance !

The beauty of the gardens and lawns is too much hidden from the Trocadéro Palace by the constant succession of red roofs of annexes, pavilions, and private constructions of all sorts. The lawns and flower-beds nearest the palace, with the fine series of cascades and fountains which form the central feature, are all one sees of the gardens. How well this matter of water-works is understood in France, and how little it is known elsewhere ! These *eaux* do not equal those of Versailles, nor even approach them in magnitude and variety—but how effective they are, and how pleasant to the ear is the constant roar of the waters ! The fountains in the Place de la Concorde are a delightful terminus for one's evening walk, if only for their ceaseless rush. There are two in Munich, away up in the Ludwigstrasse, not much to look at, but having an abundant flow of water, and for seven months in the year they are about as agreeable as anything in that little capital. Here at the Trocadéro, from out the very mass of the building where a basin brims over, filled from unseen sources, there pours a broad cascade about forty feet down to a lake below. Behind this sheet of water one can walk to enjoy the view, as seen through what was, perhaps, meant to be a film of falling spray, but which is rather, as Messrs. Gautier and Desprez put it in their clever guide-book, "a rain of pearls constantly renewed, than the uniform curtain people had been led to expect : for our part, we like it better ; it is more novel and more rich." The stream then pours down a series of *gradins* or steps, or whatever they ought to be called in the very limited English vocabulary of architectural terms, with little spray-like fountains to flank the main cascade, and finally takes another plunge into a large basin of regular form, which contains two bouquet-shaped fountains of splendid abundance of water, and a tall, slender shoot of white foam between them. At the angles of this basin are four immense gilded statues of novel subject enough ; they are *beasts*, wild and domestic : an elephant by M. Frémiet, and a rhinoceros by M. A. Jacquemart, facing toward the Trocadéro Palace ; a horse by M Rouillard, and a bull by M. Cain, facing the Seine and the Champ de Mars. Each faces out from the basin, and is standing on a rock, so disposed that the creature seems mounting some acclivity, with action and excitement. The bull is very effective—a splendid creature, like Rob Roy on his native heath. It is a pleasure to be able to like it, for one does get to abhor M. Cain's tortured monsters. M. Jacquemart's huge beast is also a real success. Better figures for such an ornamental purpose as this it would be hard to devise ; they quite take the attention from the symbolical figures above them, though colossal also and also gilded, the six quarters of the world, of which more hereafter. It must be said, however, of all these basins and cascades that they are set too deep in the ground ; that one does not see enough of the water, but too much of the stone copings from almost every point. It seems to be admitted here that the slope ought to be steeper ; from the point looking up hill there is not relief enough to the series of *gradins*.

Turning to the left from the great basin, the visitor finds himself at the brink of a whole series of little fish-ponds, forming a very irregular lake, or rather river, for each is higher than its neighbor, and the water pours slowly from one to another. These form the fresh-water aquarium. Through a dark archway one dives into the bowels of the earth, and there, beneath the greensward and the flower-beds, takes the fish-ponds in flank. The ingenious constructor has taken advantage of old quarries, such as often annoy the architect about to build in the neighborhood of Paris, to establish his picturesque habitation for fish, which, themselves in full light, are viewed by the spectator from shadowy, tunnel-like vaults. In some places they rather seem under water, so completely does the watery and fishy world surround and enclose them and their visitor.

There are two or three buildings scattered about the Trocadéro Park which are worth notice, but can only be mentioned now as having a not unpleasing effect upon the passer-by as he walks towards the bridge which crosses the Seine : the Pont de Jéna, leading to what is sometimes called the Parc de Jéna, the space between the river and the main Exhibition building. And now, as we take the bridge, it is necessary to call to the reader's attention the main division of the whole Exhibition into left and right, French and foreign. All the half towards Paris, the north-east half—that on our left as we leave the Trocadéro behind and face the main structure—is French, belonging to France and Algeria and the colonies alone. The right-hand, or south-west, half is that of all the world besides. This division is absolute in the main building, except for the fine-art galleries in the middle ; it is absolute for the grounds about it, where all the annexes and sheds on the left are as French as the neighboring parts of the main galleries. It is absolute in the Trocadéro Palace behind us, where the bewildering loan collection illustrates French art of all ages on the one hand, and the arts not French on the other. It is absolute in the grand Vestibule d'Honneur which we now approach. On the left there rises a graceful-enough pavilion or temple of classical architecture, and devoted to the two famous national art-industries, the porcelain-works of Sèvres and the tapestry manufactures of the Gobelins and of Beauvais. On the right is the Indian Pavilion, called on the plans the Pavilion of the Prince of Wales, though really he has had nothing to do with it, except as president of the British Commission, and it is filled with the exhibits of many different princes, private persons, and commercial firms, anything truly East Indian being welcomed, even though foreign (yet *French*) owners may send it. The Prince of Wales's collection is all about it in cases, but not, I think, within.

Directly in front is a French clock, filling the central cupola, its revolving pendulum hanging from the cupola, seventy-five feet above. This only seems a little to encroach upon the strangers' division. Beyond it, on the axis of the Palace, is the doorway leading into the fine-art galleries, on each side of which is a street, not wide, covered with gravel, and open to the sky.

R. S.

SOCIALISM IN GERMANY.

II.

Hamburg, July, 1878.

THE tool which Bismarck had found in furthering his plans against the Liberal majority in 1862 and 1864 was Ferdinand Lassalle (born in Breslau 1825 and died at Geneva 1864). It was he who first but vainly tried to drive the wedge into the closed ranks of the Prussian opposition. He was a man of genius, an earnest scholar, a fluent writer, a ready speaker, a profound thinker, and a fast-living dandy. When quite young he assisted the Countess Hatzfeld in her notorious divorce suit against her husband, triumphed over all difficulties thrown in her way, lived for a time on the Rhine, in Paris, and Switzerland, where he belonged to the radical democracy, and then went to Berlin, where he devoted himself to scientific studies. Humboldt praised him for his critical and political pamphlets. Boeckh declared his exposition of the philosophy of the old Greek Heracleitus to be a masterly and most ingenious philosophical and philological treatise. His juridical essay, 'System der erworbener Rechte,' is still considered a standard work, although its author had only studied law after he had left the university, and had never practised it. In this essay Lassalle discussed the question of the influence which the passage of new laws exercises on existing laws, and arrived at the conclusion that a law has effect only so long as a legal rule or institution has not been prohibited by a new law. This doctrine is full of revolutionary consequences. But Lassalle wanted more than mere literary renown. There are few men whose character is such a strange mixture of the most contradictory qualities. Vanity and ambition were the

demons of his soul. Day and night he was tortured by the morbid desire of making himself known to the world and playing a leading part in moulding its destinies. The same scholar who in his study entered into the nicest questions of Greek philosophy and Roman law, who wrote brilliant essays and elegant verses, fell in love with school-girls, boasted to them about his importance in literature and politics, described himself as irresistible for every female heart, or flirted with old coquettes. A true man, impressed with a consciousness of the duties he owed to science and to his country, would never in a jealous fit have fought a duel with a semi-civilized Wallachian, thereby finding an untimely end, and all for a woman like Madame Rackowitza, at present an insignificant actress at second-class theatres in Germany and the United States. A Jew by birth, and, although rich and independent, often snubbed on that account, Lassalle strove to prove to the old aristocracy of birth and learning that he was their equal, if not their superior. He wanted to become one of the political leaders of Germany. The diffidence, however, with which his advances were received made him hate the society with which his whole being was interwoven. To revenge himself he now did his utmost to infuse hatred and rebellion into the working-classes, and, perceiving his chance in the more promising rôle of a social agitator, he draped himself in the mantle of the poor people's tribune. It must be admitted that he was a master in organizing the hostile feelings of the workingmen into a systematic warfare against their employers and the well-to-do classes. By uniting and forming them into associations Lassalle was the first to give the workingmen the conviction of their strength, thus inspiring them with overbearing confidence. The more he lived as a sybarite himself, the more aristocratic his wants and leanings became, the more he pleaded the cause of the poor and the oppressed. He speculated on the worst passions in man—on envy and jealousy, on laziness and lust—while the only practical measures he proposed were the advocacy of universal suffrage and the creation of so-called productive associations, of which the capital was to be provided for by the Government in the shape of paper money bearing interest. Although these measures were of no value for the pressing needs, Lassalle's appeals to prejudice and passion, his red-hot harangues to the workingmen of all parts of Germany, his defences in courts, and his personal influence, as well as the foundation of the "General German Workingman's Association," spread the seeds of discontent and the spirit of rebellion among thousands and hundreds of thousands of this class. In a country of long political experience it would have been impossible to gain such a far-reaching political influence, and even in Prussia Lassalle would not have acquired that importance if at that time she had not been engaged in a bitter contest for the first principles of constitutional life.

It was in vain that the Liberal party warned against such reckless proceedings, which they compared to the sorcerer's apprentice who conjured the demons without being able to banish them again. "Don't touch," said Schulze-Delitzsch, "that dark boundary line in our nature which separates the beastly instincts from its human feelings; keep off your frivolous hands, and do not unshackle the beast which will devour you!" Lassalle, however, never tired of threatening the iron clash of his battalions of workingmen, ready for blowing up the decrepit old world into atoms; Bismarck even gave him the means for starting his productive associations, which, however, proved a failure. In 1864 the Prussian Prime Minister received and introduced to the king the so-called and self-constituted workingman's deputations from Silesia, which asked to participate in fixing the wages of workingmen, and brought some severe charges against Liberal manufacturers which afterwards were found to be false. Lothar Bucher, formerly a political refugee of 1848, then Bismarck's confidential councillor, and lately one of the secretaries of the Berlin Congress, in 1865 applied to Marx and Engels, in London, for articles to the Prussian official gazette (the *Staatsanzeiger*), in which they were asked freely to develop their views on financial matters. At that time, in Berlin and in the large cities, Liberal meetings were broken up by the Socialists; and the police, which in all other cases is omnipresent in Prussia, stood by without interfering, and allowed the Socialists the most outrageous acts of lawlessness and violence. The Minister of the Interior, as he sneeringly remarked, observed a strict neutrality towards the Liberals and the Socialists, and when interrogated in the Chamber answered that he allowed the Social movement to go on for a time in order to make the world appreciate what it amounted to.

After Lassalle's death, and by his wish, Bernard Becker was appointed his successor in the presidency of the General Workingman's Association. This man, however, was utterly insignificant and worthless, and soon afterwards resigned. Thereupon T. B. von Schweitzer appeared on the stage. An offspring of an old aristocratic Frankfort family, he was originally a lawyer. Sentenced for a crime committed against public morality, he went to Berlin, where, in 1865, he published the *Sozialdemocrat*, which remained the official organ of his party for ten years. It daily preached the doctrine that the middle classes conspired for the misery of the workingmen, that the latter must rely on the Conservative parties, and that Bismarck was the only man who was willing to do at least something for them. His own party publicly denounced Schweitzer as a "paid scoundrelly agent" of the Prussian Government—a charge which has never been contradicted or refuted by his coeditors and friends, although often called upon to do so.

In creating the North German Confederation Bismarck at once introduced universal, secret, and direct suffrage for the elections to the Reichstag. While formerly the poorer classes were practically nearly excluded from participation in politics, the new law conferred on each male citizen of twenty-five years an almost unrestricted vote. The Social leaders at once perceived the high importance of this measure, and with their usual energy made use of it as a most effectual means for securing their influence. Thus far the Socialists had been an organized rabble; but from the moment of the introduction of universal suffrage they became a political party. This new law is less restrictive than that of any other country. While you, for instance, require one year's residence in the State before a citizen can poll his vote, the German voter by his sole actual residence in a certain district is entitled to a vote. In a large city he may even remove from one ward to another, and can vote there provided he has effected this change an hour before the official voting-lists are made up. Thus it often happens that a few days prior to an election crowds of workingmen move from one quarter, where their party is sure of success, to another quarter where their numbers decide the election in their favor. The challenging of voters is unknown to the German law. The age of the deputy is fixed at twenty-five years, and wherever he may reside, if he be a citizen, he can be elected by any constituency in any part of Germany.

Under the new constitution, however, in 1867, at first only three and in the course of the session two more Socialists (Schweitzer among them) were elected as deputies to the first North German Parliament. This was owing to a split in the party; besides, the times were not favorable. Great political questions occupied the foreground of the public interest, business was prostrated, the markets were dull, and a general distrust prevailed among the manufacturing classes of all Europe. Schweitzer, in order to keep his adherents together, and to strengthen their feelings as an oppressed class, nevertheless availed himself of the law just passed which abolished all legal restraints upon workingmen's peaceful coalitions, and recklessly organized strikes for the purpose of enforcing better conditions for the workingmen, but at that time, for the above reasons, totally failed and only awakened suspicion. It was chiefly because of these strikes that within a few years the standard of German workmanship fell below that of other nations, for among other evil consequences they had the bad effect that while they lasted they fatally injured the character of the workingmen, leading them to drunkenness and coarseness, and making them neglect their labor, so that when they were again employed they were not as faithful workers as before. Although the strikes at a later period of prosperity, when every kind of work was in demand, were successful, they did much more harm than good.

The enthusiasm which was kindled by the French war in 1870 of course roused the patriotism of the whole nation excepting the German Socialists, whose deputies in 1870 abstained from voting when the Government asked for the necessary war funds, and who, in 1871, openly celebrated the Paris communards as martyrs slain by the party of order. Thus only one Socialist (Bebel) found his way into the Reichstag of 1871. In January, 1874, however, when the new elections took place, the panic of 1873 had already taken hold of the people and dampened their feelings. On that occasion not less than 350,000 votes were polled for the Socialists, who thus obtained nine deputies, six of whom were elected in Saxony, two in Holstein, and one in Elberfeld Barmen. Bebel and Liebknecht now became the real leaders of the German Social-Democracy. The former, a native of Cologne and a turner at Leipzig, was originally an adversary of Lassalle, but had been converted into a fervent Socialist by Liebknecht, who while a young student became a political refugee in 1848, and in London was a disciple of Marx. Schweitzer having retired in 1872, and having become a successful dramatist, Bebel and Liebknecht in May, 1875, succeeded in uniting the hitherto two hostile wings, the Lassalle and the Marx school, into one great and undivided Social-Democratic party. While the Lassalle wing was originally not interna-

tional, but rather German and national, and asked for the subvention of Government, the communistic wing of Marx was international and treated the whole of society (workingmen excepted) as one great reactionary mass, with which in his eyes there is not the least community of interest. As it often happens with such amalgamations, here also the more moderate shades were eliminated by the radical tendencies, so that in the new party communism and internationalism prevailed. The *Vorwärts* (Forward) at Leipzig was made the official organ of the new party, and at the same time in Gotha a platform was laid down to which I will recur more fully hereafter.

The united Social-Democrats now thoroughly organized for the new Reichstag of 1877. This time they elected twelve deputies, for whom 485,000 votes were given—*i.e.*, nearly forty per cent. more than in 1874. Besides this victory they showed their strength by running 175 candidates in the 397 electoral districts of the German Empire ; but it is worth while mentioning that in all Southern Germany, where manufactures are less developed than in the north, they didn't carry a single election. Seven of the above twelve seats belong to the kingdom of Saxony, with its large manufacturing population, two to the city of Berlin, one to Holstein, one to Rhenish Prussia, where the city of Solingen was won with the assistance of the Roman Catholics, and one to Reuss, a principality of 47,000 inhabitants in all.

The secret of this success lies in the good organization and agitation of the Social-Democrats. They make it their chief object to prepare beforehand and to send all their men to the polls, while the average of the other electors seldom amounts to more than fifty per cent. In the six districts of the city of Berlin alone in 1876 they held 307 meetings for electioneering purposes, 144 for drilling the managers, and distributed 1,347,154 pamphlets. At the same time the party employs a standing and well-paid staff for the purpose of exciting the masses and winning new members. According to a statement made at the Gotha yearly meeting of 1876, it had fifty-four fully-paid agents and eight permanent agitators, each of whom received 135 marks (about $32) monthly, besides 2 to 3 marks travelling expenses. Fourteen other agitators were paid an additional contribution of 25 to 75 marks per month; 150 marks are monthly paid to each of the two secretaries, 105 to the cashier, and 45 to each of the two assessors; to Liebknecht and Hasenclever, as editors of the *Vorwärts*, 2,340 marks yearly, and, besides, 9 marks per day as members of the Reichstag. Immediately before the last election twenty-four agitators received full pay. From August, 1876, till May, 1877, the general treasurer of the party paid out a round sum of 50,000 marks ; at the same time the permanent agitation funds expended 12,856 marks, the central administration spent 6,133 marks, and the local committees at Altona and Berlin respectively 30,000 and 15,548 marks for their successful campaign of 1877.

If in that election the number of Social-Democratic deputies had kept pace with the increase of their votes over that of 1874, thirty-two Social-Democrats instead of twelve must have become members of the Reichstag. But as the party is spread all over Germany their vote was too much split up, and seventy-seven per cent. of it was lost, so that only twenty-three per cent. decided the election of their candidates. The other parties being more concentrated in their respective districts have a great advantage over them, and thus only lost thirty-three per cent. of their votes. In 1877, in all 5,535,000 (out of a population of 42,000,000) were polled, of which 3,600,000 votes elected the 397 successful candidates.

The Social-Democratic deputies take little active part in the proceedings of the Reichstag. On the whole, they consider their membership as a convenient means of proclaiming their ideas from the tribune of the highest legislative German assembly. Here they are safe and free from any censure ; here they cannot be made responsible by the district attorney, however revolutionary their language may be. The members of the Reichstag drawing no salary, and having during its sessions only a free pass on all the German railroads, the Social-Democratic deputies make the most of this privilege in travelling all over the country, in lecturing, in holding mass-meetings, and in working generally for the interest of their party. Thus there are seldom more than two or three of their number in the Reichstag, and it has often happened that even important bills which had been introduced by them were discussed and voted on in their absence. Some of these deputies even consider the participation in parliamentary debates as treason to their party, and as too great a condescension to the other, in their eyes, reactionary parties, as such participation would lead their followers to the belief that "Bismarck's Reichstag" could solve the problem. The more tolerant view, however, was finally successful. The few speeches of Social-Democrats the Reichstag had to bear were mechanical recitals of Marx and Lassalle's sayings, learned by heart by all the communistic disciples, but very seldom were social or political questions practically handled. Bebel thus far is their only decent speaker who has been able to command the attention of the house. To give you the latest instance of the self-conceit and impudence of these men, a certain John Most, a bookbinder by profession, and a Saxon member of the Reichstag, in a public meeting of workingmen held last year at Berlin attacked Theodor Mommsen, the celebrated Roman historian, for having falsified Roman history in the interest of the ruling classes. The day after that meeting the Social-Democratic papers said that Most had convicted Mommsen of utter ignorance as well as bad faith, and had ruined his reputation as a scholar for ever.

While I am writing these lines the campaign for the new Reichstag is raging all over the country. As you already know, Bismarck dissolved its predecessor because it would not vote the bill for the prosecution of Social aims and tendencies which he had brought in, in consequence of Hödel's attempt on the Emperor's life. Two hundred and fifty-one deputies against fifty-seven refused to pass a law which, in its loose indefiniteness, could be interpreted at pleasure, and which, besides, was deemed unacceptable, as it made unnecessary exceptions where the common law, when vigorously applied, would have sufficed. The Government will ask new powers from the next Reichstag, in order to suppress Socialism. Whether they will be granted is a question of the future. At present all minds are occupied with the chances of the Socialists in the coming elections. I do not think that, as some believe, the Socialists will be crushed, but at the same time I do not think that they will conquer new seats. On the contrary, they will perhaps lose a few, but reappear at the polls in their old strength. The middle classes will probably vote in greater numbers than before. If only twenty to thirty per cent. more than at previous elections would do their political duty this time not a single Socialist could be elected ; but they are too much divided among themselves, and too much stress is laid by the Liberal and Conservative parties on trifling differences of opinion. On the other hand, the Social-Democrats know that they fight for their existence, and thus far they have not yet been deprived of their means of warfare.

Correspondence.

"SCHOOL-HUNTER" AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : I have found a good deal of instruction in the numerous communications you have kindly sent me, replying to my letter to the *Nation* in No. 682. Many of these were from teachers or heads of schools, and of these far the greater part approve of my demand, but confess that either, 1st, they have not the means necessary to establish such a girls' school as I roughly described ; or, 2d, and oftener, that the public would not sustain such a school. I suspect this last plea is correct The American public wants to rush its daughters through school, get as many "accomplishments" as it can in a few years, and then turn them out into "society" ; and, as American girls are charming no matter how ignorant they may be, and as until they marry and bear children they are undoubtedly pretty, and much more than pretty, the present system answers the purpose of parents. But girls brought up with little or no regard to their physical health fade very rapidly after marriage, become the prey of "women's diseases" and doctors, and too often live out lives of debility and untimely decay. Men have learned that sound health is the *only* important stock in trade for them, and that with life and good health a man may achieve almost anything he wishes. But good, robust, lasting health is even more important for women than for men, because a woman's life, in any station, is harder than a man's, more wearing on the constitution, more difficult to regulate in accordance with the laws of health. I think, therefore, that girls ought to leave school with a better foundation of health than boys even ; and why should they not ? They are more easily controlled ; they are not prone to the smoking, drinking, and other vices which undermine the health of a large part of our young men. It is possible to bring up girls simply and regularly, and by persistent training during the school years to give them the health and fix them in the healthful habits which would last them during their after lives.

Some of those whose replies you have sent me think I want girls to be

ignorant and stupid. Well, no; but I don't want them to be so ill-trained as to fancy they know what they don't know. If a school shows a boy or girl what he or she does *not* know, that is a very great good accomplished. At twenty, I repeat, nobody can know much. If at twenty any of my girls have a strong love of knowledge, or even of any one tolerably limited branch of knowledge, I shall not care how little they know. American girls lack bodies. My object was to discover a school where this defect will be in a measure remedied. I am not afraid about their brains; with sound bodies their brains will do.

I have received several letters which seem to demand somewhat more than this general and public reply. I hope these friendly correspondents will kindly excuse me if I remain to them simply your obliged and instructed SCHOOL-HUNTER.

Notes.

R. WORTHINGTON will shortly publish 'Pleasant Ways in Science,' by Richard N. Proctor. — Mr. T. Y. Crowell, of this city, has published Shakspere's works in one volume for a very moderate price. He has, as he says, "adopted the text of Messrs. Clark & Wright," or, in other words, he has made a page-for-page fac-simile of their "Globe Edition," originally published in England by Macmillan & Co., and in 1866 in this country, by arrangement, by Roberts Bros. We should not suppose Mr. Crowell's enterprise would be agreeable to either of these houses, in spite of his having added a concordance of familiar quotations and an index to the *dramatis personæ*. — Geo. Routledge & Sons announce for publication at an early day Memorials of 'Baroness Bunsen,' by Augustus J. C. Hare, author of 'Walks in Rome,' etc. — We have received from Henry Holt & Co. an index to Mrs. Brassey's 'Around the World in the Yacht *Sunbeam*'; any one can obtain a copy without charge by applying to the publishers. It is very full, and readily pasted into the book. — The Twenty-sixth Annual Report of the Boston Public Library shows a remarkably creditable record in regard to loss of books. Out of 11,723 volumes issued, but one has been lost; various branches with an aggregate circulation of 275,654 have lost none, while South Boston has lost but one out of 140,677. The library, since the resignation of Mr. Justin Winsor, has been under the care of Dr. Samuel A. Green. The report calls attention to the decay of bindings owing to bad ventilation, which is also the case at the Harvard College and the Boston Athenæum libraries. A new building is necessary for this and many other reasons, and it is recommended by the examining committee that the Massachusetts Legislature be petitioned to give "an entire square of the Back Bay Lands, now belonging to the State, to the city of Boston, where a new building for the Public Library can be erected which shall not only be convenient, commodious, quiet, and well ventilated, but isolated and absolutely fire-proof." The catalogue work has been unusually important; the Ticknor catalogue is approaching completion, and the printing of the Barton catalogue, embracing the Shaksperian portion, is in hand and will be steadily continued. The Library's Bulletin 46 continues the Check-list for American Local History from Philadelphia to Plymouth, and has a timely bibliographical section on Trees and Forests, and another on the Eastern Question. — The first annual report of the U. S. Entomological Commission on the Rocky Mountain Locust has just been issued from the Government Printing-office. It is a monument of industry and scientific achievement, and fills, with the appendices, nearly 800 pages. Maps, plates, and cuts complete the information contained in the text, which is of the most practical character. Not only should the Western farmer (west and southwest of the meridian of St. Paul, 93°) be grateful for this equipment against future ravages, but we are laying the Canadians under some obligations. Looking at the range of the locusts north of the line, and remembering how our "hot waves" and "cold waves" come from Manitoba, one finds a new argument in favor of annexation.

—Mr. Parkman's article in the last *North American* receives an instructive commentary this week in the publication of Dr. Dale's 'Impressions of America,' and Mr. Emerson's lecture, delivered in the Old South Church, March 30, 1878, on the 'Fortune of the Republic.' The former is probably familiar to our readers, since it is the collection of widely circulated magazine articles; the latter has had only a limited audience. Both are the expression of men whose scholarship and thoughtfulness will obtain a hearing as readily as the *North American* critic, and from neither would one learn to despair of the republic. In Mr. Emerson's lecture there are hard blows, criticisms upon American life and manners almost savage in their cold plainness of speech, and yet there is a hopefulness and charity illumining the whole with a kindly light. One must be an idealist, it is true, to follow with sympathy such lines as these: "Pennsylvania coal-mines, and New York shipping, and free labor, though not idealists, gravitate in the ideal direction"; but the American as well as the philosopher is clearly speaking in the whole lecture, and his countrymen can be only grateful to the most thoughtful of American authors that, at the close of a life which has witnessed so much of ill report in American politics and society, he sees "the felicity without example that has rested on the Union thus far," and finds "new confidence for the future." Laying aside this characteristic book to take up Dr. Dale's three essays, one finds the material foundation of the poet's conclusions. It is true that Dr. Dale, going westward only to Chicago and southward only to Richmond saw only the best side of our civilization; but inside these points one sees from these observations of a foreigner that, in comparison with other countries, America has met with creditable success in securing the ends of government—the comfort and intelligence of the people—even if its method by universal suffrage is as radically and viciously wrong as the historian of the Canadas represents it.

—In the July *Blackwood's* are some etymological derivations that will afford a grim pleasure to any amateur in philology whose eyes are not yet accustomed to the half-lights that obscure quite as much as they illumine the origin of words. One would hardly look to the Gaelic, with its uncouth accumulation of letters, for the source of what we had always supposed our native American word "boss," but so it is—*bos* in Gaelic meaning "the hand" or "directing power." The adjective "bloody," now become vulgar, but in use in the letters of Swift and Gray, has no "sanguinary origin," but is from *bloide*, meaning "a bit, a piece," and "seems to have been not much stronger than 'somewhat.'" "My eye," which is still heard among children, is traced to *mo-dhoigh*, an exclamation of delight. "Tory" from *toir*, "to give," and Whig from *tuig*, "to know," are interesting. Two suggestions upon Shaksperian words are more worthy of attention:

"Thou want'st a rough *pash*,"

in "Winter's Tale," is traced to *bathais* (of which *pash* is almost an exact pronunciation), "the forehead." The word *ronyon*, in "Macbeth," is derived from *ròinneach*, "hairy," an etymology which gives a fit sense at all events. There is other interesting matter in this article to which we refer those of our readers who are not inclined to take learning always *au sérieux*. The same class will find in the August *Cornhill* an article on "The First Edinburgh Reviewers," which will relieve them from any unpleasant recollection of having found the collected essays of these critics tedious reading. Jeffrey is summed up thus: "He is a brilliant, versatile, and at bottom liberal and kindly man of the world; but he never gets fairly beyond the border line which inevitably separates lively talent from original power." This criticism is very just; it is only strange that Jeffrey should still stand in the minds of so many intelligent men as the type of a good critic. The whole article is marked in a rare degree by close, accurate, and discriminating thought.

—Two years ago (see the *Nation*, No. 562) we reviewed briefly the 'History of Landholding in England,' by Mr. Joseph Fisher, of Waterford. He has just issued a companion volume, somewhat larger (135 pages), upon the 'History of Landholding in Ireland.' This has the merits and faults of its predecessor—a valuable collection of facts and documents, and considerable insight, joined with a want of clearness in arrangement and statement, and a defective knowledge of the results of scholarship in this field. Altogether it is a more valuable treatise than the other, inasmuch as Mr. Fisher is here upon his native soil, so that the early portion, which was poorest in the English volume, is on the whole good here. He understands Tanistry and the Irish sept better than the institutions of the Anglo-Saxons. Even here, however, his treatment—except for abundance of excerpts—is less satisfactory than that of Sir Henry Maine. As in the other volume, he is by far best in the late period, and especially the section upon "The Stuart or Confiscation Period" is well worth study. It is not always, however, clearly intelligible, and the reader would do well to compare Mr. Seebohm's instructive paper in the *Fortnightly* for 1869. Very oddly, on page 14 he has given the English definition for gavelkind, although the Irish institution is clearly described on the same page in a citation from Sir John Davis.

—The *Revue Politique* publishes a long and interesting address of M. Marc Monnier, who has just been made rector of the Academy of Geneva

on "Rousseau Abroad." He traces his influence on many authors, with anecdotes and extracts, and sums up the line of his intellectual progeny thus: Kant, Herder, Basedow, Jacoby, Goethe, Schiller, Filangieri, Foscolo, Byron, and even Dickens and Thackeray, who are of the same family; and among Frenchmen, Bernardin de Saint-Pierre, Châteaubriand, Lamennais, and the authors of 'Obermann' and 'Lélia.' Truly, Thackeray is in somewhat singular company. It is a pity M. Monnier had not space to point out the particular vein of thought which Thackeray derived from Rousseau.

—"In the present International Exhibition," writes a correspondent from Paris, "the book trade makes about the same display as it made in Philadelphia two years ago. Here, as there, the English exhibit is little or nothing: two illustrated periodicals advertise themselves abundantly; there is the new 'Cyclopædia Britannica,' and in addition to this nothing but a few Bibles and tracts. The German Empire is absent. France and the United States have, as it were, changed places. The French trade is, as a matter of course, present in full force, while the American display is confined to the few hastily collected books placed under the charge of M. Terquem, who acts now for the American publishers in France, as he did two years ago for the French publishers in America. The Parisian publishers have presented their works to great advantage; from the tall and liberal bookcases of the MM. Hachette and the MM. Mame to the smaller cases of their humbler rivals, all are set forth with skill and taste. Perhaps the best impression is given by the modest but choice collections of M. Jouaust and of M. Lemerre. Both these houses devote themselves to a kind of work almost unknown in America, but becoming more and more common and popular in France. The Contemporary Poets of M. Lemerre and the 'Petits Chefs-d'œuvre' of M. Jouaust are a delight to the eye and the hand of a book-lover. The volumes are small and light, the paper is fine and firm, the type is clear and of an antique style, the initials, headings, and *culs-de-lampe* are fanciful and in good taste; the illustrations, when there are any, are etchings—a form of artistic endeavor exactly fitted for the adorning of books as graceful in all their parts as these. No American publisher, I fear, would find his account in the issuing of books like these or like the 'Nouvelle Bibliothèque Classique' of M. Jouaust; not that American taste and skill and the resources of American typography are not equal to their production, but because the sale would be small and the expense enormous. In time we may come to have a class taking delight in books as books—a class large enough to give fair support to any publisher who shall seek to reprint the minor masterpieces of literature with the luxury of type and paper befitting their merit. In the ordinary book of the trade, the staple article of commerce, American publishers hold their own, and it will be a surprise and a disappointment to those who have examined the American books here if one of the greater rewards of the Exhibition is not distributed either to the collective exhibit of the American book trade or to one of the more important houses contributing to it. The jury spent three days over the books and seemed to be greatly pleased. The American member of the jury is Mr. Stevens; the English is Mr. Leighton. The catalogue of the American exhibit, printed by the Riverside Press, is a fine specimen of American work. It contains three explanatory articles by Mr. R. R. Bowker on 'Books and the Book Trade in America,' on 'Trade Bibliography,' and on 'The Library System.' These articles are faced by their translation into French—a translation not always absolutely exact, but sufficiently so to introduce foreigners, and especially Frenchmen, to the manners and customs of American readers. The information on the library system is likely to be of service; it is a subject in which the French take an interest, and articles on the subject have already appeared in the *Bibliographie de la France*, the French *Publishers' Weekly*. Following Mr. Bowker's articles are sixty pages of catalogue, in which are represented more than twenty American publishers, including all of the largest and most important houses. Owing to the restricted space allotted to the collective book exhibit the cases are of necessity tall and crowded, but facilities are afforded for examining the books, and the American has no reason to be ashamed of them. Noticeable, by the way, in the French exhibit are the half-a-dozen almost simultaneous editions of 'Manon Lescaut,' from which it might be inferred that of all the minor French classics this sole surviving relic of the Abbé Prévost is the most popular; but the inference would be altogether erroneous."

—The fourth series of the 'Théâtre de Campagne' and the third series of the somewhat rival 'Saynètes et Monologues' have appeared almost simultaneously. The comparison is altogether to the advantage of the earlier work, which, although it no longer bears the name of M. Legouvé as its editor, continues to be conducted with skill, while the field of 'Saynètes et Monologues' seems to be rapidly exhausting itself. The monologue at best just escapes monotony, and in the volume before us it is not at its best; with the exception of the bright bit of versification, "Les Tentations d'Antoine" of M. Jacques Normand, they rarely rise above the level of a recitation more or less amusing, and between a recitation, however good, and a monologue (which, we take it, must be a genuine play with but one part) the gulf is vast. Nor are the *saynètes* of sufficient merit to redeem the series. Neither M. Labiche nor M. Verconsin is seen to advantage, and perhaps the liveliest little scene in the volume is the rather extravagant but undeniably comic "Dame de Niort" of "Quatrelles." In the 'Théâtre de Campagne' MM. Labiche and Verconsin make a better appearance, but by far the best of the eight comedies in the volume is "Volte-Face," by M. Emile Guiard, a nephew of M. Emile Augier, to whom the play is dedicated. Here is an instance for Mr. Galton: M. Augier himself is the grandson of Pigault-Lebrun; one of his nephews, M. Paul Deroulède, a great-grandson of Pigault-Lebrun, is the author of many patriotic lyrics and also of the poetic drama, "L'Hetman," represented a year or two ago at the Odéon; and now M. Emile Guiard, another grandson of the novelist of the First Empire, comes forward as a dramatist and gives proof of the possession of a share, at least, of the vivid and vigorous versification of his uncle. "Volte-Face" is not fresh in subject, but it is lightly handled and brightly written, and may be recommended to all American amateur actors who are equal to French verse. It has recently, it may be noted, been acted with success at the Comédie-Française. Next in interest in this volume to M. Guiard's verse is the prose of M. André Theuriet, who is beginning to be known to the American public by the translations of his novels in the "Collection of Foreign Authors" of the Messrs. Appleton. His "Vieille Maison," in the second series of the 'Théâtre de Campagne,' resembles a little his "Fraises" in this. There is a homely country air about both of them, and in the latter a sort of poetic suggestion, not often to be found in plays of one act, which only too frequently reflect but the glitter and the glare of society. It may be as well to remark that, with the possible exception of M. Albert Millaud's "Collier d'Or," there is no play here which may not be read aloud in American families without fear; a remark which might have been made also of the three other volumes of the series, and which therefore bears strongly against the current opinion as to the immorality of the French drama of to-day.

—Students of the Italian Renaissance will be glad to learn that a third edition of Burckhardt's invaluable work has been prepared, the first volume of which recently appeared with the title, 'Die Cultur der Renaissance in Italien' (Leipzig 1877). The author, who is still living, committed the preparation of the new edition to Ludwig Geiger, a profound scholar, whose excellent life of Petrarch was noticed in the *Nation*, No. 501. The editor has left the text practically as the author wrote it, making a few additions where required by newly-discovered material. The notes, however, have been almost entirely rewritten, and their value and volume greatly increased. This increase in extent has led the editor to place them at the end of each division of the work, of which there are three in the first volume. This, of course, renders reference to the notes very inconvenient, and important citations are apt to be overlooked. A few changes have been made in the form of the book; it has been divided into two volumes and the long divisions are separated into chapters, all of which is an improvement over the older editions. It is hardly necessary to say a word in praise of a work so well known as Burckhardt's. No one has ever penetrated more deeply into the spirit of the period he describes, or gained such a subtle appreciation of its problematical characters. The second volume, which, we are glad to say, will be accompanied by an index, is to appear shortly. It is curious that so important a work, the first edition of which appeared as long ago as 1860, should not have been translated into Italian until 1876, when a version by Prof. Valbusa, in two volumes, was published by Sansoni at Florence.

—In connection with the foregoing we may mention an interesting and valuable study by Professor Adolfo Bartoli on the forerunners of the Renaissance ('I Precursori del Rinascimento.' Florence. 1877). The writer shows that the so-called Renaissance of Charlemagne was not worthy the name, and proceeds to trace from an earlier date the spirit of enlightenment that gave birth to the true Renaissance of the fifteenth century. He discovers this spirit in many of the chroniclers, and shows the gradual return of thought to the models of classic times from the works of such scholars as Walter of Châtillon and Vincent of Beauvais.

The most important manifestation of the new spirit, however, the author sees in the Latin songs of the vagabond scholars, the *Goliardi*, who spared no one in their bitter rhymes, and sang of love and wine in a most modern vein. After the *Goliardi* comes the poem of Renart, and the long line of satirists who used the new languages to such effect. Professor Bartoli then returns to Italy and points out how that country differed from the rest of Europe in being non-feudal and pagan. The great cycles of Alexander and Arthur took no root in Italy. To quote the author's words, "No interest was felt in Renart, little in Charlemagne, none in the Pope, except to hurl at him the words of Arnaldo." In the various departments of mediæval literature which were most pleasing to the other Romance nations Italy has but little to show, and that little is imitation; and, finally, the Italians were the last to abandon the use of Latin. This essay is full of vigor and freshness, and forms part of the general introduction to the author's 'Storia della Litteratura Italiana,' now in press, the appearance of which is eagerly looked for.

PROFESSOR ELLA'S MUSICAL SKETCHES.*

SOME people not only keep diaries in which they record all the important and unimportant events of their lives, but also scrap-books into which they paste all the long and short articles which in the course of many years they have contributed to the newspapers. Professor Ella appears to have been one of these persons. His musical diary covers a period of fifty-six years; and as during a great part of this time he was one of the most prominent of London musicians, and came in frequent contact with Mendelssohn, Meyerbeer, Berlioz, Auber, Gounod, and many other prominent masters, it is evident that it must contain many interesting reminiscences and anecdotes. The present Sketches consist partly of selections from this diary, and partly of extracts from the printed records of the Musical Union—a society for performing classical chamber music, founded by Professor Ella in 1845. They do not lay claim to the rank of critical and æsthetic essays, like those of Schumann, which Mrs. Ritter has recently translated, but they simply form a volume of musical gossip which, though containing little that is positively instructive to an educated musician, may yet be recommended as entertaining summer reading. In a musical library such a book will take the place of the "item" column in a newspaper. Reflection does not seem to be the author's strong point. His style becomes crude and labored when he attempts to appear wise and erudite, as in some of the essays in the first part, which might have been omitted to the advantage of the author no less than the reader. Fortunately the rest of the book consists chiefly of gossip which is thoroughly interesting, as it introduces many curious facts not generally known. For instance, in a paper on itinerant musicians we are told that in Vienna these banes of society are suppressed altogether, while at Milan the police have orders to remove all organ-grinders whose instruments are not perfectly in tune. This may account for the fact that all hand-organs heard in this country are so horribly out of tune. Evidently all the banished Milanese straightway emigrate to this country, where all are free and equal and all nuisances are tolerated.

Another one of the sketches illustrates how rigorously at the Paris Conservatoire concerts the praiseworthy rule is observed of excluding late-comers till the end of the overture. The Professor arrived late one evening, and, after vainly endeavoring to persuade or bribe Madame to let him enter, he was at last consoled when she pointed to a venerable-looking gentleman seated in the corridor, and added: "Vous voyez, M. Auber n'entre pas; il est trop tard." Of the celebrated orchestra at this institution Professor Ella observes: "Thrice have I visited all the best concerts in Germany; and, after twenty-seven years' experience in the best bands of London, I am bound to award the palm to the Conservatoire orchestra." In regard to London orchestras he elsewhere says: "I have still to repeat the melancholy fact that there is not a single complete orchestra in England composed entirely of English musicians, while in all those countries where a national academy is supported for gratuitous education of musicians—in France, Belgium, Germany, Austria, and Italy—there is no lack f talent to furnish any number of complete orchestras with native musicians." Of course London has all the foreign musicians she cares for, and more too. The city is crowded with adventurers of all sorts, who are attracted by the high prices paid for tuition. Professional musicians may be interested in the following comparative list of the prices charged by eminent music-teachers in various European cities. In London, where Rubinstein has refused two guineas an hour, one guinea is a common fee; in Paris, 18 shillings; Brussels, 8½ shillings; Vienna, 6 shillings; Stuttgart and Milan, 4 shillings. These terms may have undergone some modification since this table was collated. That Rubinstein should have refused two guineas an hour will not surprise any one who knows that in a tour throughout England, Scotland, and Ireland last year the great pianist realized in three months $60,000. "No such amount was ever obtained by vocalist or actor in England in the same space of time." Certainly Rubinstein, so far, can have scarcely made the tenth part of that sum by the sale of his compositions. We recently remarked that composers are the worst-paid producers in the world; in this book we have come across two cases which may seem exceptions to this rule. Offenbach is said to have realized in one year upwards of $40,000 by the rights of authorship and the sale of his works; and the proceeds from the sale of Balfe's ballad, "The Light of Other Days," amounted to more than $30,000. But these exceptions are only apparent, as neither of these composers ranks higher than third-rate.

Professor Ella does not often express a positive opinion or an adverse criticism. There are some nuisances in the musical world, however, against which he takes a firm stand. Prominent among these is the encore nuisance. Encores unduly prolong an entertainment; they make unreasonable demands on an artist, and show the tyranny of the majority, or sometimes a decided minority, of the audience over the rest, who would prefer to pass on to something else. Few artists have the courage of the famous double-bass player, Dragonetti, who refused to respond to an encore until the manager had promised to pay him ten guineas extra. Unfortunately, instead of an imposition, an encore has come to be regarded as a compliment to a performer, and those soloists who are not called upon to do double duty are actually disappointed, and either find fault with the audience or comment on the acoustic defects of the hall, which prevented them from using the "encore piece," which they invariably bring along and rehearse as carefully as the piece on the programme. At private and semi-private entertainments there are always certain cliques who take care that their favorite shall not suffer any such disappointment. We recently attended a matinée at a leading American conservatory where almost every one of the fifteen or twenty pieces on the programme was encored. Each performer had a special circle of friends, who would not cease applauding until their willing victim had made his or her reappearance; and after a few had been thus recalled it would of course have been considered disgraceful by the other family circles in the house if their special protégé had not also been recalled. The result was that the entertainment was prolonged to four hours, the last one of which was a perfect torture to those who had the courage to keep their seats till the end. But, like the barbarous method of applauding in vogue by clapping hands and kicking the floor, we suppose the encore nuisance will flourish until audiences are composed entirely of artists—perhaps a week or so before the millennium.

We have found few things in the 'Sketches' not in perfect taste or with which we could not thoroughly agree. We were surprised, however, to find the author quoting, and to all appearance endorsing, Schlegel's silly remarks on the opera, of which the following is a specimen:

"The costume of the opera ought to be dazzling and overladen with ornaments; and hence many things that have been censured as unnatural, such as exhibiting heroes warbling and trilling in the excess of despondency, are perfectly justifiable. . . . Neither is it any disadvantage to us that the opera is conveyed in a language which is not generally understood," etc.

There is also a statement on page 146 which we must question. Prof. Ella says he can never admit that the German language is a whit better for music than the English. It would be difficult to find many vocalists who would agree with this statement, provided they are equally familiar with the two languages; and every song-composer knows how very difficult it is to find an English poem musical enough in structure to serve as a basis for a song. For conversational purposes English is perhaps a more elegant language than German; but the German language, perhaps on account of its more natural system of accentuation, is better adapted for metrical and rhythmical treatment. There is in the lyrics of Heine and Goethe a natural flow and elegance which one seldom finds in English verse; and even the minor German poets in this respect surpass their English *confrères*, who in the other qualities required of a poet are decidedly their superiors. In one of his admirable chapters on poetry Schopenhauer relates how, as a boy, for a long time he took great delight in poetry, merely on account of its

* 'Musical Sketches Abroad and at Home. By Professor Ella.' New York: E. Schuberth & Co. 1878. Pp. 440.

Wohlklang, before he discovered that these charming metrical sounds and rhymes were also invariably intended to convey ideas and sentiments. We doubt if this is a common experience among Englishmen.

Gaddings with a Primitive People. Being a series of Sketches of Tyrolese Life and Customs. By W. A. Baillie Grohman. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1878.)—Whoever is a lover of the picturesque in life or nature, especially whoever delights in seeing human nature revealing itself under simple conditions, will find this a book after his own heart. Mr. Grohman has lived for many years among the Tyrolese, and writes of them with the enthusiasm of one who loves and rejoices in their primitive customs. He wears the Tyrolese garb, and has so assimilated himself to their mode of life that he gains easy and cordial admission to their circles. He has hunted the chamois and the blackcock in their most retired glens and on their loneliest peaks, and he brings back pictures of hunter-life that are rarely equalled in interest. He is also a hunter of curiosities—Venetian glass, rare carvings in oak, chiselled mural decorations of the Renaissance, and embroidered altar-cloths, which are still found stored away in village church-lofts—and he has many amusing anecdotes of his adventures and finesse in this search. It is, however, when he describes, with admirable simplicity and directness, the sad and pleasant incidents of daily peasant-life that he is at his best and is most entertaining. One is struck in reading these pages with the extreme simplicity of the lines on which, after all, human life runs. Daring adventure, rivalry, simple grief and faith, love and the pleasures of domestic life, are the web which these peasants weave, and their life is mainly a happy one, despite their ignorance and the poverty which grinds them with remorseless severity. Every moment and event is attended by religious feeling—superstition if you will, but something which makes life more precious to them. One recalls Aubrey de Vere's "Building of the Cottage" in reading the chapter on "Priesthood and Superstition":

> "Mix the mortar o'er and o'er,
> Holy music singing;
> Holy water o'er it pour,
> Flowers and tresses flinging.
> Bless we now the earthen floor;
> May good angels love it!
> Bless we now the new-raised door,
> And that cell above it!"

This spirit pervades their life among this primitive people; yet it would be wrong to suppose that there is not much of a very coarse sort among them. The "scooping-out of an eye" seems to be a practice heightened in skill by long hereditary use, though it is but fair to say that the author compares it in his preface with wife-beating in England. The custom of *Fingerhackeln*—where two persons join the middle fingers of their right hands and wrench as a trial of strength until frequently one is maimed for life—and the use of knives, now uncommon, in their love rivalries, are characteristics of savage life. Their mirth, too, is a sort of horse-play, as one might suppose. Perhaps the sketch of the mountain belle is the most attractive. She lives alone in the summer months high up in the glens, caring for her herd, and only her lover now and then breaks her solitude. Mr. Grohman is very tender and manly in his treatment of this theme, and finds in the difficulties of marriage and the character of the lovers a sufficient defence for them. The relations of the youth seem very loose in his narrative, and are so in fact: but nothing else could be expected from the mode of life they follow. The marriage rites afford great amusement. The dances—in one of which the maiden supports her stalwart six-foot lover on her shoulders while he beats the ceiling with his feet—the eating, the rifle-match, and particularly the pranks of the bride's former lovers, give the author opportunity for some of his most vivid sketches.

One could continue to detail the pleasant features of the book to great length. It is enough to say that all who read will take pleasure in the adventurous daring of the poachers, in the devotion and trials of the village doctor, priest, and schoolmaster, and their foibles as well, in the description of the Paradise Play (for the miracle-play still lingers in these solitudes) and of the peasant watering-place, a sketch full of humor. To those who sometimes tire of our gloved civilization, such a book is as good as a ramble in the country. Its only defect is that it is a union of two separate sketches, and the joiner's work is not skilfully done. The one reference to America is amusing. Mr. Grohman had obtained possession of a dozen wooden figures of the Apostles, which he was at loss what to do with until an American expressed a desire to possess them. The village carpenter who boxed them up took the liberty of cutting off noses, backs, foreheads, and feet, in order to make them fit the cases, and in this shape they were shipped to America as old wood-work of no value. Mr. Grohman soon after received a note from the New York custom-house that they were "art-statuary, and as such come under schedule seventy-seven." At present, he tells us, "they are at rest, half-a-dozen in a brand-new Roman Catholic chapel, and six adorning our friend's house in the same state."

The Dawn of History: an Introduction to Prehistoric Study. Edited by C. F. Keary, M.A., of the British Museum. (London: Mozley & Smith. 1878. 12mo, pp. 231.)—Mr. Keary's excellent little book undertakes to sum up and present in a combined and systematized view the principal results of study in the several branches of prehistoric enquiry. Of these there are at least five which have received independent treatment—archæology, language, institutions, religion, and social life. Scientific explorers in these several fields, such as Max Müller, Sir Henry Maine, and Mr. Tylor, hardly trench at all upon each other's fields. It is, therefore, no easy task to take the materials they furnish and construct out of them a truthful and harmonious view of the early ages of mankind. This work has been performed by Mr. Keary and the Misses Keary, on the whole with very good judgment and in an attractive style. The book may be heartily recommended as probably the most satisfactory summary of the subject that there is.

Of course a book of this sort begins to be obsolete as soon as it is written, and it would seem a pity that the authors had not the opportunity to make use of Mr. Morgan's work, which, whether its theories are accepted or not, must be regarded as indispensable to all students in this field. Even his earlier studies, in the Smithsonian Contributions, do not appear to have been consulted. This, however, is perhaps a part of the plan; the note on page 221 states that the researches of "McLellan (*sic*) and others" have been designedly passed over, partly as being yet too uncertain in their results, partly as being unsuited to the general reader. Certainly much of this matter is unsuited to the general reader, and, on the other hand, the controversy between Mr. McLennan and Mr. Morgan is as yet *sub judice;* nevertheless, there is an abundance of unquestioned facts brought forward by both these writers which would properly have found a place in chapter vi. ("Early Social Life"). Indeed, with a mass and multiplicity of materials which must have been a serious embarrassment, we find that the most serious gap is exactly there where Mr. Morgan is most instructive—in the points of contact and connection between barbarous and civilized life. The scope of the book is very properly confined, in general, to those branches of the human race which have attained to civilization, with such illustrations from other nations, especially in the opening chapters, as appeared desirable. Here, however, there is an occasional lack of clearness and determinateness; for instance, the village community is represented as distinctively Aryan (p. 101), although M. de Laveleye has pointed out its prevalence among the Javanese.

The best chapters are those upon religion, and the best passage—one of remarkable insight and descriptive power—is the account of the Egyptian religion in chapter viii., by Miss A. Keary. Even in these chapters, however, there is a certain incompleteness. The point of view is that of element-worship, made familiar to us by Max Müller and Mr. Cox, and we do not remember any better presentation of this theory. The personal and local element in the development of myths is not neglected, although it perhaps receives hardly so much attention as it deserves. But ancestor-worship, described with such fulness by Mr. Tylor, and which may almost be said to be the key to M. Coulanges's theory, is hardly noticed at all. Now, this was an element of the very first importance in the religious life of the Greeks and Romans, and it is hard to bring it under the theory of an elementary religion.

The "Notes and Authorities" at the end of the book, although brief, are valuable, especially as showing the spirit in which the studies have been made. In several cases of controversy one theory has been deliberately accepted and presented in the text; but the notes show that this is not a blind or inconsiderate act. Such are the theory that the Aryans introduced into Europe the age of bronze, Curtius's Ionian theory, and the Italic character of the Etruscans.

More doubtful is the view that the god of the sky was the primeval chief divinity of the Aryans (p. 132), which can only be an inference in the case of any but the Greeks and Romans. Neither does the present state of scholarship warrant our calling the early Romans a "mere band of robbers" (p. 207); the very essence of the view of the Roman community introduced by Niebuhr is that the early Romans were not a *colluvies gentium* but an organism, and this is precisely the view for a book like this. The universality of the patriarchal family among the Aryan

nations is also assumed (p. 86)—a view which has been effectually disposed of by Mr. Morgan and Mr. Ernest Young. The "house community," by the way, a very different thing from the "village community," is not mentioned.

There are occasional slips of expression, as *allegorical* for *metaphorical* (p. 112) and *category* for *catalogue* (p. 144); so "passing from the hunter state to that of the pastoral" (p. 32). These, however, are slight blemishes.

The Atlantic Islands as Resorts of Health and Pleasure. By S. G. W. Benjamin, author of 'Contemporary Art in Europe,' etc. Illustrated. (New York: Harper & Brothers. 1878.)—During the past few years Mr. Benjamin has made summer visits to thirteen of the islands, or island-groups, that may be found between latitudes 25° and 51° upon a map of the Northern Atlantic. Counting southward, they were, upon the west, Newfoundland, the Magdalen Islands, Prince Edward Island, Cape Breton Island, the Isles of Shoals, the Bermudas, and New Providence; upon the east, the Isle of Wight, the Channel Islands, Belleisle-en-Mer, the Azores, Madeira, and Teneriffe. Among this sufficiently-varied assortment of islands Mr. Benjamin finds Madeira and Teneriffe, whether for the purpose of health or pleasure, to be, on the whole, the most attractive places of resort. They are "trade-wind islands"; and in the equability and charm of their climate they yield to no others. In Teneriffe one can choose a temperature according to elevation, by climbing the sides of the mountain—*Thener ifé*, "the white mountain," as the aboriginal Guanches called it, giving its present name to the island. The valley of Orotava, says Mr. Benjamin, "combines more climatic advantages than any other island spot in the Atlantic; the variations of temperature being excessively slight [the range is from 58° to 80° Fahr. near the sea-level], the influence of the mainland imperceptible, and the air dry without the parched aridity of the desert." In the town of Santa Cruz, on the same island, the night-watchmen sing out, every half-hour, "'Ave Maria purisima!' Then they give the hour, and end with 'Sereno' (all serene)." Hence they are commonly nicknamed *serenos*, for it rains so seldom that they forget to change their formula on occasion; "sometimes when it is actually storming they still, from force of habit, shout 'Sereno!'" The scenery, as well as the climate, of Teneriffe is hardly surpassed; according to Humboldt's well-known remark, the view of Orotava valley from the Piton was the finest that he had ever seen. And the historic interest of the island, Mr. Benjamin might have added, is as old as that of the lost histories of Juba, king of Mauritania, or, rather, as old as the time of Pliny, who preserved part of that earliest record of the island. Of the aboriginal Guanches little is left, save their mummies. "Until quite recently," says Mr. Benjamin, "Guanches of purely aboriginal blood were still to be found at Chasna," but the last strain of their blood is now mingling indistinguishably with that of their Spanish conquerors. What, after all, is sadder than "the survival of the fittest"?

Madeira rivals Teneriffe, according to our author, in attractiveness. There one finds a similar climate, scenery less sublime but with perhaps even greater charm, and more of the comforts that an invalid requires; the boarding-houses and the medical attendance are better than in Teneriffe. In the Azores, again, one may pass a summer comfortably, but the winter climate is raw and damp. The Bahamas are rainy, hot, and expensive as compared with the more fortunate islands already mentioned, yet they will serve better for a winter sanitarium than Florida, or, indeed, than any other part of our Atlantic coast, throughout which, from Maine to Key West, the yearly range of temperature at any given spot is comparatively great. The humidity of Bermuda is excessive, and the climate is boisterous and variable. Mr. Benjamin expresses, and justly, a preference for island climates before any Atlantic coast climate, and among the island climates he prefers those that he calls "transatlantic"—those of the groups that lie on the farther side of the water; the nearer to our coast the more trying the climate, is substantially his conclusion.

Mr. Benjamin is in no sense a scientific observer, yet he has made an intelligent and helpful comparison between the various merits and demerits of the different places that he has visited; and persons who may be choosing for health's sake will, we presume, be glad rather than sorry to know that their guide is himself a practical invalid, and not one of your advisers who write from the mere effrontery and wantonness of too good health. He is, on the contrary, an *experimenté*, and descants upon winds, temperatures, and humidity with a certain personal interest and sympathy. It was a mistake to call this a guide-book; in three hundred pages one cannot cover the ground that is here touched upon; the fulness of detail which makes a serviceable guide-book is absent. The larger part of the book, indeed, is personal narrative; the most useful part of it, though it is very careless in style, is the appendix, in which statistics and route directions are given. It is well illustrated, but the maps are small and poor, and there is no chart of the North Atlantic, a clear *desideratum*, and one which should be satisfied in case of another edition. A copy of Bowditch's chart (prefixed to the 'Navigator') would show all of the groups here described, and add not a little to the reader's convenience. The chief part of this book has already appeared in the form of magazine articles. Altogether it will be serviceable in spite of its faults, for it will help the tourist to choose among many islands according to his wants; and it will lead some of them to agree with the author's quaint remark in the appendix: "I am convinced that the love for islands, and especially for small islands, is rational and improving."

A Critical Account of the Philosophy of Kant, with an Historical Introduction. By Edward Caird, M.A., Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University of Glasgow. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1877.)—At last we have a competent English criticism of the 'Critical Philosophy.' Apart from Haywood's and Meiklejohn's translations, for a long time Cousin's little book was the only representation of Kant accessible to English students, and this was a misrepresentation such as only the great Eclectic could be capable of. To the milk of the easy passages abundant water was added, while the difficult ones were carried over pure and simple to the text. Kuno Fischer's commentary, translated by Mahaffy, was open to the opposite objection, that in attempting fully to rewrite Kant it often left the reader doubtful whether he was reading Kant's philosophy or Fischer's. An attempt was therefore made in Prof. Mahaffy's own single volume of rescript, published in connection with his valuable translation of the 'Prolegomena,' to distinguish sections of criticism from those of interpretation by starring the former. In this respect, if not in acuteness of insight, the work was an advance on Fischer's. But both books must have convinced their readers of the radical error involved in their plan. Faithful translation, leaving to the student all the doubts of the original, is precious. Critical examination, if conducted by an able man, is precious. Mixing the two bewilders, and destroys all chance of accurate learning.

Four years ago Mr. W. H. S. Monck, of Dublin, attacked the Kantian stronghold on a different line, by the issue of a capital little 'Introduction to the Critical Philosophy,' a book less known in America than it deserves, whose main fault was the unusual one of brevity. In 170 pages Mr. Monck contrived to give a conception of the outline of Kantianism clearer and more accurate than could possibly be had through one, and probably even through two, readings of the 'Critique' itself. To accomplish this was a feat, and more than this Mr. Monck was modest enough not to attempt.

In 'A Critical Account of the Philosophy of Kant' Prof. Caird, of Glasgow, the eminent successor of Hutcheson, Adam Smith, and Dr. Reid, has aimed at something more scholarly and elaborate than any of his predecessors. He seeks to show the gradual approach to the transcendental point of view made by Kant's mind from the time it was trained in Wolffianism, as it grew through the fifty-seven years preceding the publication of the first edition of the 'Critique,' and then in the 'Critique' itself, as it learned to discard more and more the presuppositions with which that work set out. That these presuppositions were never altogether discarded, that many continued to the last to involve Kant in hopelessly opposed modes of thought, Prof. Caird takes no pains to conceal. Indeed, it is a distinctive feature of his book that his mastery of the subject is such as to enable him to show how much truer Kant might have been to Kant than he actually was. Kant's inconsistencies are indicated not as grounds of reproach but of instruction. He is shown to be often asking questions to which no true answer is given, but on the way to which, half unconsciously to himself, answers are suggested to questions of far more pregnant import. What ordinarily, therefore, appear to the student mere blind difficulties are by this sympathetic evolutionary method exhibited as interesting survivals of rudimentary pre-critical members. The great work is seen to be not a completion of human thought, but rather a discovery, starting human thinking from a new central point. Out of its very imperfections philosophical nutriment is drawn. Mr. Green said well, in his 'Examination of Hume,' that "we best do reverence the genius of philosophers, we most truly appropriate their spirit, in so exploring the difficulties to which their enquiry led as to find in them the suggestion of a theory which may help us to walk

firmly where they stumbled and fell"; and it is in no dissimilar spirit, and from a closely similar philosophical standpoint, that Prof. Caird has examined Kant.

The book is admirably arranged. A long introduction shows how the way for Kant was prepared. Part I. deals with his writings of the pre-critical period, and Part II. with the 'Critique' itself, the ethical and æsthetical works being reserved for a subsequent volume. In discussing the 'Critique,' Kant's argument on any topic—the Æsthetic, the Categories, the Deduction—is first clearly stated, as if from Kant's own point of view, and then a chapter is appended criticising his positions. In these expository chapters there is imaginative skill of a very high order. Kant's case is presented with all the plausibility, with all the ambiguities even, which it had in his own mind, and yet with a grace of style, an easy power of submitting the uncouth technicalities of the original to pleasant English, likely to make anybody despair who has tried by himself to re-think Kant. The same plan of sharply distinguishing exposition and criticism is adhered to throughout. Side-notes accompany the text, and a margin broad enough to entice written comment. An index is added—not so full, however, as would be desirable. Among the more misleading errors of the press may be mentioned *practical* for *pre-critical*, p. 130, l. 2; *space* for *sense*, p. 359, l. 15; *casual* for *causal*, p. 405, l. 16; *all* for *self*, p. 424, l. 33; *Herbertian* for *Herbartian*, p. 479, note.

The Troubadours: A History of Provençal Life and Literature in the Middle Ages. By Francis Hueffer. (London: Chatto & Windus. 1878. 8vo, pp. xviii. 367.)—The difficulty of producing a work at once popular and scholarly has been most successfully overcome by Mr. Hueffer, whom we have at last to thank for a thoroughly satisfactory general survey of Provençal literature. The only original English works on the subject, Rutherford's 'The Troubadours, their Loves and Lyrics,' and Miss Preston's 'Troubadours and Trouvères,' have been reviewed in our columns and their shortcomings made known to our readers. Their defects were due to the ignorance of their writers in regard to a very difficult subject. Mr. Hueffer is, on the contrary, admirably equipped for his work; a pupil of Dr. Mahn, he has himself edited the poems of one of the most interesting of the Troubadours, Guillem de Cabestanh (Berlin, 1869), and is perfectly familiar with the history and literature of Provence during the Middle Ages. He disclaims any intention of writing a scientific or exhaustive treatise on the subject, and declares his purpose to be rather to attract learners than to teach more or less proficient students. This object has been very skilfully carried out, and the author's remarkable command of English has enabled him to intersperse his work with admirable metrical translations at once easy and faithful. The work is divided into three parts—general, biographical, and technical. The first part, after a brief notice of the origin of the language, gives a rapid survey of the various classes and forms of the literature, the early popular epics, the artistic epic, and other narrative and didactic poems. One of the most interesting chapters is that containing an account of the romance of Flamenca, a charming mediæval love-story. After disposing of the Courts of Love, Hueffer dwells a moment on the social position of the Troubadours and Joglars, and then passes on to the poetical forms, the *pastorella*, *alba*, *ballada*, *sestina*, *tenso*, *sirventes*, and *canzo*. The second part consists of select biographies of some of the typical Troubadours, Guillem de Cabestanh representing the tender, romantic element, Peire Vidal the restless extravagance, and Bertran de Born the sturdy, warlike spirit of the day. The satirical side of the literature is represented by the Monk of Montaudon, and the anti-papal, reformatory tendency by Guillem Figueira and Peire Cardenal. Hueffer devotes considerable space to the latter movement, which ended so disastrously for the literature and the country, and has left (besides great numbers of individual poems) an epic on the war against the Albigenses and numerous heretical didactic compositions. This part of the work ends with an account of the ladies of Provence and lady Troubadours, whose representative is Beatrice, Countess of Die.

The third part is devoted to the *technique* of Provençal poetry, and is introduced by a learned disquisition on the origin of rhyme which we commend to the careful consideration of those who still hold that we owe rhyme to the Saracens or to the mediæval hymn-writers. The most intricate subject is that of the stanza, which Hueffer treats, as is generally done nowadays, after the principles enunciated by Dante in his 'De vulgari eloquio.' The final chapter contains interlinear versions of two poems (Guillem de Cabestanh's *canzo* 'Li douz cossire' and Marcabrun's idyl 'A la fontana'), addressed, as the author says, "to those easy-going amateur philologists who believe themselves able to master a language by simply plunging into its literature without any previous study of grammar or dictionary."

It is a pity that the author did not give a somewhat fuller historical sketch of Provence; and a chapter on the influence of the Provençal on the other Romance literatures would not have been out of place. The book is beautifully printed, and the proofs have been carefully read; we notice, however, a few mistakes in proper names: Jauffre for Jaufre, p. ix.; Auclier for Anelier, p. 28; Peinautier for Penautier, p. 176; and Giaufre for Jaufre, p. 318.

Hammersmith: His Harvard Days. Chronicled by Mark Sibley Severance. (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1878.)—Much has changed since the days which 'Hammersmith' chronicles, but there is a true echo of Harvard in the book. The openheartedness, the folly and honor of youth left to its own courses, the devotion to the sports and the studies, the charm of the gay throng of class-day, the walks and rides—in these there is not much change, and they are portrayed with a truthfulness and catholicity of taste which raise the book far above the boyishness of 'Fair Harvard' and the vulgarity of 'Student Life at Harvard.' Necessarily it is more of a diary than a novel; but a graceful love tale, interwoven with the more distinctively college life, gives the requisite unity to the story. It is marred by what is apparently a studied imitation of Thackeray, both in the characters and even in the trick of phrase. The uncle from China is altogether in Thackeray's manner; the Fotheringay of 'Pendennis' reappears in Hammersmith's freshmanhood (but that is not unlike the Harvard of to-day), while a mind given to analogies would discern in Bob Ruddiman and Miss Malachite the shadows of Foker and Blanche Amory. But with all this there is also a native excellence, and at the close the enlistment of the young men for the war stirs all the loyal blood in one's veins. The book is one to be enjoyed not only by the budding freshman and recent graduate, but by those who never stepped inside the Yard (we notice that Mr. Severance calls it the "campus," which, now at any rate, exists only at Yale).

A History of Latin Literature. By Leonhard Schmitz, LL.D., Classical Examiner in the University of London. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 16mo, pp. 262.)—The veteran Dr. Schmitz has provided the classical teacher with a useful addition to his apparatus in a history of Latin literature which is all that could be desired for purposes of handy reference. A history of the literature of the Roman people as a chapter in the history of the human mind it does not profess to be; neither would this be what the schoolboy needs. The development of the Roman mind, and the various classes of writing as expressions of this development; the influence of foreign philosophy, religion, and literature, of changes in government and social relations; all those things in which the vitality of any literature consists—these are, to be sure, touched upon, but not elaborated with any fulness. The book is devoted in the main to an account of the several writers, grouped on the simplest possible plan—by periods and sub-periods, prose and verse. Thus reference, with the assistance of the index, is exceedingly easy, and the list of authors treated appears to be absolutely complete. All that is known of even the most insignificant is given with sufficient fulness, while Cicero, for instance, receives twenty pages. This completeness is only possible by a very compact treatment, such as none but a thorough and life-long familiarity could put in any person's power. Encyclopædic learning, clear and correct judgment, and familiarity with the practical wants of schools, are illustrated at every point.

This survey of Latin literature is brought down to the sixth century, the last author treated being Isidore of Seville. This will be found a useful feature. Another excellent feature is the reference to editions; but this is not so satisfactorily done, nor, indeed, is it easy to detect any principle governing the selection of editions. One would say that in each case it would be desirable to refer to the best text (or critical edition) and the best edition of notes. Now of Plautus we have mentioned only the two editions of the text of Ritschl and Fleckeisen; of Livy, only Drakenborch and Weissenborn, both with notes—neither Alschefski's nor Madvig's critical edition is mentioned; of Cicero's orations, only Long, Ramsay's 'Pro Cluentio,' and Zumpt's 'De Lege Agraria' and 'Pro Murena.' It seems all a matter of hap-hazard.

On the Source of Muscular Power. By Austin Flint, jr., M.D. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 12mo, pp. 103.)—This little volume is a re-

vised and corrected edition of an article (published in the *Journal of Anatomy and Physiology* for October, 1877) in which the author presents his views on the relation of muscular exercise to the decomposition of albuminoid material in the body. The experimental data which form the basis of the discussion are chiefly observations on the pedestrian Weston, made by the author in 1870 and by Dr. Pavy in 1876, though the classical experiment of Fick and Wislicenus, and the observations of Lehmann and of Parkes, are all considered in the course of the argument. The author concludes that all muscular work is attended with the destruction of muscular substance of which the nitrogen excreted is a measure, and that "nitrogenized food is indirectly a source of power, as by its assimilation by the muscular tissue it repairs the waste and develops the capacity for work." It is, of course, impossible in these columns to enter into a technical criticism of a work of this sort, but it may be well to point out the necessity of caution in drawing physiological conclusions from observations in which the observers have so little control over the conditions of the problem as in these experiments on Weston. The main object of the pedestrian was, of course, the accomplishment of his feat of endurance, and, though he permitted the physiologists to weigh and examine his food and to analyze his excreta, he naturally reserved to himself full liberty of deciding upon the hours of work, rest, and meals, as well as upon the quantity and quality of his food. The physiological problem was thus rendered unnecessarily complicated and the sources of error increased. Moreover, on the fourth day of the walk described by Dr. Flint, "Weston broke down completely. He could not see the track, and was taken staggering to his room, having reached, apparently, the limit of his endurance." It is evident that this condition of exhaustion was essentially pathological, and that the chemical changes accompanying it may well have differed not only in degree but in kind from those associated with normal physiological muscular exertion.

Ueber natürliche Ventilation, etc. [On Natural Ventilation and the Porosity of Building Materials.] By C. Lang. (Stuttgart: Meyer & Zeller; New York: B. Westermann & Co. Pp. 119.)—This little volume bears the characteristic stamp of that school of German science which has produced it. Its topic is reviewed thoroughly and clearly, though the author has been tempted occasionally to digress while refuting objections raised against theories proposed by him in a former paper. Natural ventilation is a term first used, we believe, by Von Pettenkofer for the permeation of the walls, ceiling, and floor of an enclosed space by air. Mr. Lang has made his well-arranged book especially valuable by the publication of new and precise methods of determination, and of tables which give the porousness and permeability of our usual building materials—points which seldom receive due consideration.

*** *Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
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Boston *Herald* and its History	(Boston)	
Bynner (E. L.), Tritons: a Tale	(Lockwood, Brooks & Co.)	1 25
Gibbons (Rev. J.), The Faith of Our Fathers	(John Murphy & Co.)	1 00
Cushing (W.), Index to the *North American Review*, 1815-1877	(Cambridge)	
Dale (Rev. R. W.), Impressions of America, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.)	25
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Emerson (R. W.), Fortune of the Republic	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	50
Gladstone (W. E.), Literature Primer: Homer	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Kirkman (M. M.), Baggage-Car Traffic	(*Railroad Gazette*)	
Longfellow (H. W.), Poems of Places: Asia, 3 vols	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	3 00
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Botany. By ———.
Chemistry. By ———.
English Language. By Thomas R. Lounsbury, Professor in Yale College.
English Literature. By ———.
French Literature. By Ferdinand Bôcher, Professor in Harvard University.
Geology. By ———.
German Literature. By ———.
Health. By ———.
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Music. By ———.
Physical Geography. By Clarence King, U. S. Geologist in charge of survey of the 40th Parallel.
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Continued from page iv.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 22, 1878.

The Week.

THE yellow fever obtained a foothold in New Orleans, in the southern part of the city, about the middle of July, being brought there from St. Thomas, and it is now an epidemic in that city, where out of over eleven hundred cases nearly three hundred have been fatal. The rigid quarantine maintained by the neighboring towns and cities has limited its ravages, several which were attacked in 1873 having thus far escaped; but in Port Eads, Vicksburg, and Memphis, where numerous cases have appeared, there seems no likelihood of its being soon checked, while the town of Grenada is literally given over to desolation. There the fever is said to have originated in the opening of a foul sewer, immediately after which it appeared and has ever since raged with unwonted violence. Out of two hundred patients not one has shown signs of recovery, and more than eighty have already died; only seventy-five white persons remain in the town, and these are almost certainly doomed, while at last accounts the fever had attacked the blacks, and some of the nurses had been prostrated. A more wretched sight of desolation, delirium, and sudden death has not been seen for many years in this country. Relief funds begin to pour in from Wilmington, New York, Boston, and other cities. The Government is giving aid at Memphis, which has been partially depopulated. The defenceless condition of the city and the great opportunity for plunder have made military guards and an increased police force necessary, the negroes being enlisted for the first time in this service. As usual, the prices of provisions and ice have been raised, and the rents for suburban houses increased many fold, while among the grotesque incidents is the derangement of the plans of stump-speakers for the pending canvass, with its possible influence on the fortunes of candidates at the polls. There seems to be no occasion for alarm in other cities, North or South, although isolated cases are reported in Mobile, Cincinnati, and along the river borders, and one case in this city and another in Brooklyn. Quarantine regulations are rigidly enforced, and caution has in some cases overcome charity and been unnecessarily merciless in refusing refuge.

The Kearney movement seems to be subsiding. An attempt to get up a reception for him in Indiana proved an entire failure, and some of his late associates in California have been writing letters to the East denouncing him as a conceited, ignorant, and dishonest person. He had, however, been deposed by a portion of his followers in California before he started, for "Cæsarism, corruption, and insanity." A more worthless ruffian is probably not to be found among the laboring population East or West, but no disrepute or insignificance into which he may now fall will deprive him of the glory of having, with no weapons but a few oaths and epithets, forced nearly the whole press of the commercial States to treat him as a serious political antagonist, to expend numerous and elaborate editorial articles on him, and to put a handle to his name. He has probably underrated the intelligence and self-respect of the constituency to which he appeals at the East, but he has not underrated them greatly. If he had been a little more coherent, and tacked his blasphemy and vituperation on to a plan or theory of some kind, he would not have failed so soon.

During the Fenian movement against Canada after the late war it was widely believed in "Fenian circles" that belligerent rights were stored in great quantities in the State Department at Washington, and that any organization calling itself a government or republic was entitled to a bundle of them for use in military operations. Some of the workingmen in Massachusetts are likely to be befogged in somewhat the same way by the Butler-Kearney advice to "pool their issues." Kearney was asked during his speech in Brighton the other day what "the issues" were, and was very much flustered and annoyed by the question, refused to answer it, and berated the person who put it. Very few of his Irish followers know that they have "issues" or where to find them, and still less how to "pool" them, and will probably suffer a good deal of worry between now and the election from not knowing what course to adopt. It would, therefore, be a kind and thoughtful thing for the State authorities to open an office at which any poor man could have his issues pooled for a small fee, say five cents apiece.

The Tennessee Democrats have adopted a platform which indicates pretty clearly the tendency of the party all over the country. In the usual "arraignment" of the Republicans they revile them for the conversion of greenbacks into bonds; for demonetizing silver; for establishing the national banks; for fixing a period of resumption; for levying high duties on tobacco and alcoholic drinks; for administering the Government in the interest of the rich and against the poor. They then pass on to "demand" the repeal of the national pledge that the Government bonds shall be paid in coin; the repeal of the Resumption Act; the substitution of greenbacks for national-bank notes, and the raising of all future Government loans by the issue of non-interest-bearing paper money; the coinage of silver in unlimited quantities, and the payment in it of all Government obligations. It will be seen from all this that the Republican party cannot possibly compete with the Democrats in appeals to Communistic and Repudiationist feeling. In these the Democrats are evidently prepared to go as far as may be necessary, and further than the Republicans can possibly go. So that what we need a "Solid North" for is not to put down State-right theories, or illicit distilleries, so much as to save the national credit, and protect private property from spoliation under the forms of law. Our greatest danger lies in the optimism which leads people to believe that the Communistic craze will pass away like other crazes, and "all come out right in the end," in the usual American fashion. The fact is that Communistic attacks on social order, once begun, have as yet been nowhere put down without bloodshed, and that the control of Congress over the currency is, and will continue to be as long as it exists, an incentive of the strongest kind to Communistic organizations to struggle for the possession of the national legislature; that the distress among the working classes is enormously exaggerated and by no means accounts for the prevailing agitation, and that it would be the height of folly to suppose that we are near the end of it.

A chapter from the forthcoming Report of the Bureau of the Statistics of Labor in Massachusetts has been published, and contains the first official and approximately accurate statement of the number of the unemployed in that State. The two hundred thousand who we were told could find nothing to do dwindles in this report to something less than thirty thousand out of work, and this includes women as well as men. Moreover, these statistics were taken in June, when many mills and shoe-factories were idle. At present the number actually unemployed must be much less than here given, as all industries, and particularly the shoe-trade, have revived. The great grievance of the socialist reformers, therefore, impossibility of obtaining work, which has most won them sympathy and support, disappears, for when one deducts from the unemployed those who will never do work, either from indolence or because a roving or criminal life is more attractive, the surplus is not alarmingly great—not so large, indeed, as that which is almost monthly forced from Europe upon the Western prairies. It would be a political blessing if other States would follow this example and find out just how many of their inhabitants are really oppressed by scarcity of employ-

ment. Such reports would do much to diminish the sentimental sympathy with supposed hardship which is the source of a good deal of the popularity of visionary and demagogic schemes for the improvement of laboring men.

For a short period after Mr. Hayes's inauguration Governor Rice, of Massachusetts, either affected a certain approval of civil-service reform or confined himself to mild doubts of its practicability; but he has been gradually, like so many other prominent Republicans, gaining courage under the influence of the President's shortcomings, and has finally come out boldly, like Blaine, Conkling, and all the rest of them, with the declaration that "the attempt to make our civil service a permanent bureaucracy is one of the humbugs of the period," and that "if you scratch a civil-service agitator you will find a monarchist." In the next breath he declared himself warmly in favor of General Grant's re-election as a protection against "disorder, insubordination, and possible evil," or, in short, as a "saviour of society." In other words, the Governor is not even a constitutional monarchist. He is at heart a Cæsarist, and likes a civil service in which the Cæsar can give free play to his personal caprices, reward his favorites and punish his enemies. The Governor's opinions on these subjects, however, are mainly important for the light they throw back on the motives and designs of some of the manufacturers of the Cincinnati platform. Reading it now with their glosses and comments on it, it is impossible to avoid the conclusion that they meant it to be an instrument of fraud and deception, or, in other words, meant to catch the votes of the reformers with it and then disregard it totally. When an honest man listens to one of them now talking about its principal planks and recommending General Grant as a pretty good man for the Presidency after all, one cannot help feeling that the men who borrow one hundred dollars from the countryman till they can cash a draft, and then slip out through the door on the other corner, are somewhat harshly treated by the police.

The New York *Times* has thought it worth while to point out the last and grossest blunder of Gail Hamilton's letters to the *Tribune*, in which she maintains that places in the English civil service are still practically filled by patronage or "influence," having apparently no knowledge of the changes made in 1869, and having been imposed upon by some unnamed tide-waiter in Liverpool. She began the letters, however, by a blunder as gross and more discreditable. When Mr. Mundella, at that time member of Parliament for Sheffield, was here in the fall of 1870 he said publicly that he was unable to procure the appointment of anybody to the smallest office under his Government, and the statement was naturally quoted a good deal by civil-service reformers. But when Gail Hamilton began to demolish the reformers, she calmly exposed Mr. Mundella, by alleging in substance that he had been guilty of equivocation, inasmuch as the reason why he could get no appointments for his friends was the same as the reason why Fernando Wood could get no offices from General Grant—viz., that he was in opposition. The fact was that Mr. Mundella was a perfectly truthful and straightforward man and a prominent Liberal, and therefore a strong supporter of Mr. Gladstone's Ministry, which was then in power, and his assertion was strictly correct.

Gail Hamilton's design is to show, first, that there does not exist, and never has existed, in any age or country, any politician more delicate, high-minded, or clean-handed than Mr. James G. Blaine; secondly, that all stories of the existence of persons called reformers in other nations and at other periods, and of the occurrence at any time of changes in the nature of improvements in the administrative machinery of any civilized governments, are either fabulous or are founded on a mistaken interpretation of the texts. The letters would be very amusing reading if they were not the composition of a woman, but this makes the vituperative part of them thin and vinegary and repulsive. The wonder is not that a woman is found to supply them, for there is probably hardly a village in New England in which a young woman could not be found who would be delighted to display her "culture" in this way, but that a paper like the *Tribune* should be willing to give them a considerable portion of its space after years of honorable opposition to machine politics—opposition in which its "Founder" actually perished in 1872. If from his present exalted position he looks through these letters and reads the Conkling apologetics, we fear he must often expose himself to reproof through the violence of his language.

There appears to be some consistence in the rumors of the approaching forced resignation of Commissioner Spear of the Patent Office, and it is stated that Gen. H. E. Paine, ex-member of Congress from Wisconsin, has been tendered the place and will probably accept it. In regard to the reasons for removing Mr. Spear we know nothing. We only know that the office was never better managed than during his incumbency, and that improper political influences never had a more inflexible opponent. Still, if not under an Administration solemnly pledged to civil-service reform, at least in Secretary Schurz's department removal should be presumed to be for cause; but to anticipate this explanation would be simplicity itself when we see Mr. Spear's successor taken not from the lower ranks of the Office itself, but from those of politicians out of employ and needing to be "provided for." Assuredly there are in the Office men qualified by character and experience to perform the duties of commissioner as ably and with as much loyalty to the public as Mr. Spear has performed them. In no other branch of the Government is it more imperative that appointment to the higher grades of service should be by promotion, or that it should be kept absolutely free from the suspicion of having been dictated by political considerations. It is not necessary to enquire into General Paine's character or capacity; he simply cannot bring to his new duties the preparation demanded of him, and his acceptance will be the signal for the revival of hope in the breasts of place-hunters, and of intrigues to secure a pliant commissioner through channels which we had hoped were finally closed by this Administration, whenever the pecuniary interests at stake are large enough to make the attempt worth while.

It is to be hoped that the telegraphic summary of Mr. Groesbeck's opening speech before the Paris Monetary Conference is incorrect. He is represented as "laying much stress on the popularity always enjoyed by silver in America," although the history of American coinage, as well as of the present attempt of the Government to get it into circulation, shows that the American people never has used it, or called for it, or liked it, except as small change. He is also said to have spoken of "the inadvertent manner in which the law of 1873 was passed," but if he was so reckless as this there is probably no foreign member of the Congress so ill-informed as to be deceived by him. It is to be hoped, too, that he did not try to "vindicate Congress from any suspicion of a selfish motive in restoring silver to its former status," because the foreign delegates must know that no speech was made in Congress last winter in favor of the Silver Bill—we say this advisedly—in which the selfish argument was not put in the foreground. In fact, nothing was more dwelt on by the supporters of the measure than the fact that its passage would enable American debtors to get the better of all creditors public and private, and open a great market for the product of the American mines. If his remarks are truly reported, they only show that the fear was well founded which so many entertained, that the American politicians sent to the Convention would take up its time with stump-speeches intended for effect at home instead of engaging in scientific discussion. It is but just to them, however, to wait for the mail before passing judgment on their utterances.

Meanwhile, a kind of silver panic has broken out in some parts of the South and West. When the remonetizing act was passed by Congress certain enterprising characters commenced the importation of trade dollars from California, which they bought at their

bullion value and sold to traders, manufacturers, and others having many small payments to make, on such terms that a good profit could be realized to both the importer and the jobber provided the latter could pass them off to his customers or his hands at par. This was at the time when people in some parts of Ohio were perishing for want of 412½ grains of silver in their dollars, and they naturally welcomed the Providence which brought them 420 grains for the same amount of property and labor. At the South the neighboring reservoir of Mexico was tapped by the same class of speculators, and Mexican dollars were sprinkled all over the land of Dixie, and even found their way as far north as Chicago. Eventually these rills of silver collected together in certain low-lying spots, such as retail grocery-stores, blacksmith-shops, and workingmen's wallets, and it was gradually found that the banks would not take them on deposit either for savings or otherwise, that the wholesale merchants would not touch them, and that the original importers would only buy them back at about 95 cents each. So many letters were written to the Treasury Department by the deceived votaries of silver that the Director of the Mint was constrained to issue a circular on the subject showing that the trade dollar is not an American coin, although manufactured in our mints; that it has no legal tender properties anywhere, not even in China, where it belongs; that nobody is obliged to take it, and that those who do take it for one hundred cents will surely lose five or ten cents by the operation. The popularity of silver has not on the whole been heightened by the experience.

The advance of the Bank of England rate of discount to 5 per cent. has produced a sharp effect upon the foreign exchanges. The rate for sterling sight bills at once advanced to 4.89½, and $500,000 gold was shipped by the next steamer. The rise in sterling was the more easily effected from the fact that the yellow fever had checked the drawing of cotton bills, and grain speculations had prevented the exportation of breadstuffs; higher rates, however, quickly brought out an increased supply of bills, and quotations fell below the figure at which specie could be profitably shipped. This condition of the exchanges naturally strengthened the gold premium, the quotation for which rose ⅛ to ¼. The low current rate of interest quickens the demand for United States bonds. The subscriptions for the 4 per cents continue at the rate of nearly $1,000,000 per day; and the consequent anticipation of the calling-in of the 5-20's causes large sales of the latter, with a corresponding demand for other issues. The Secretary of the Treasury has issued a further call for $5,000,000 of the 5-20's of 1865. In the stock market there has been a partial recovery from the late extreme fall in the issues of the Northwestern companies, and the present indications favor the prospect of a stronger market, especially as the crop reports begin to show that the damage to spring wheat in portions of Iowa, Wisconsin, and Minnesota is less serious than it was at first supposed to be. Silver in London has ranged at 52¼d. to 52⅝d. per ounce. The bullion value of the silver dollar here is 88.36 cents. The fall trade has been checked by the prevalence of the yellow fever at the South. Large orders for goods from Memphis, Louisville, and St. Louis have been countermanded, with consequent discouragement to the Southern branch of the trade. Otherwise the symptoms are healthy, the demand being steady and prices exhibiting a firmer tendency. Cotton goods are now 2½ to 5 per cent. higher than at the opening of the season.

The public in England is still trying to make up its mind, though with indifferent success, as to the probable working and result of the Anglo-Turkish Convention. Mr. Cross, the Home Secretary, declared in the debate on the Hartington resolution that the engagement to protect Turkey from attack had been made "with the express condition that Turkey reformed herself; that they (the Ministry) did not undertake to reform her." Mr. Bourke, the Under-Secretary, declared positively also that the guarantee of Asia Minor was conditioned on the reform of that country, and that if the condition were not complied with the guarantee ceased; that if the Sultan introduced no reforms he was to be "left to his fate." The Sultan is therefore to be left to make the reforms himself, under British supervision, or rather with British agents watching to see whether his reforms are sufficient to sustain the Convention. It will, of course, always be open to Russia and other foreign Powers to complain of him for not reforming, and public opinion in England will be constantly appealed to both by pro-Turks and anti-Turks to decide whether he is enough of a reformer. He, on his part, takes a ground amusingly like that of our custom-house machine-men when they were forbidden to "control primaries." They said that while they were very willing to reform, and, in fact, on the whole rather liked reform, and would have reformed long ago if it had not been for the Democrats, their freedom of action as American citizens should not be interfered with. He says that he is and always has been a reformer, and, in fact, would have had all "necessary reforms" completed by this time if the Russians had only let him alone; and, like Collector Arthur, that every reform now called for by the reformers had been recommended and ordered years ago by either his ancestors or himself; he is now ready to go on reforming again, but he cannot permit any interference with his independence as a sovereign. The *Economist* makes no secret of its belief that he will not prove much of a reformer after all, that England will soon be sick of him as a protégé, and will abandon the Convention.

The sum of the week's operations in Bosnia is that General Szapary, who, with the Twentieth Division, was defeated at Tuzla on the 10th instant, after twelve hours of severe fighting, retreated with the loss of part of his artillery, not only to Gratshanitza but to Doboi, on the right bank of the Bosna, at the junction of that river and the Spressa. Here, on the line of the communications of the main body, he was, at last accounts, awaiting reinforcements. He appears to have been closely followed up, and had to sustain a very heavy attack on Friday while in position, and another on Monday, in which the fighting was "prolonged." The activity of the insurgents in this northern portion of Bosnia is shown by the fact that the Austrian garrison at Banyaluka was assaulted, though ineffectually, on the 14th. Communications have also been threatened by the Turkish garrison from Livno, upwards of 3,000 strong, which had actually set out for the purpose when recalled by a demonstration in their rear from Dalmatia. As for the joint forces of General Philippovitch and the Grand Duke of Würtemberg, 30,000 in number, their advance has been retarded both by the troubles behind them and by the resistance in front. On Friday they captured an entrenched position near Buzovaca, sufficiently strong to permit the enemy to retire in good order and with their guns, except on the left flank, which had been turned, and to take new positions at Visoka, in front of the capital. But the next day the insurgents were driven out by General Tegethoff, and on Monday this commander in conjunction with General Philippovitch successfully assaulted the heights around Serayevo, and entered the town amid house-to-house fighting "of the most terrible kind," which lasted all day. "Even the women," says the official despatch, "and the sick and wounded insurgents in the military hospitals participated in incredible scenes of the wildest fanaticism." The Austrian losses, "unfortunately, were not inconsiderable." In Herzegovina the situation is still menacing, and General Jovanovitch has not found it safe to leave Mostar in furtherance of the movement on Serayevo. The Austrians have gained some trifling successes near Stolatz, and are reported to have occupied Liubinye. As far south as Bilek more than 5,000 insurgents are said to be massed. The number of them in eastern Bosnia is estimated at 16,000; and thirty Turkish battalions stationed in the province, including five of regulars, have cast in their fortunes with them. This formidable opposition has led to the ordering of four more divisions to the seat of war, and has made the Austrian press very bitter in its denunciation of Turkish perfidy. Its change of tone, under the discipline of experience, is very interesting, and must give great satisfaction at Moscow and St. Petersburg. The Hungarians, who have no heart for fresh Slavic annexations, have suffered heavily in the field.

THE PEACE OF BERLIN.

THE Treaty of Berlin has only just been ratified, and yet the instability of the situation it has created is already beginning to show itself—that is, about ten years sooner than was generally expected. Austria has met with unlooked-for difficulties in taking possession of Bosnia and Herzegovina, partly owing to the desolated condition of the country but largely to the language in which the Congress handed the spoil over to her. There can be little doubt that if Russia and Germany had had their way, it would have been presented to her in set terms as an addition to Austrian territory; but the susceptibilities of the British plenipotentiaries had to be respected, so it was given to her simply to be "administered" for an indefinite period, every one, of course, believing that in the end she would formally annex it to the Empire. The wording of the treaty, however, was just vague enough to give the Turks something to struggle for, and they have accordingly been pestering the Austrians for an acknowledgment of the Sultan's sovereignty, which the Congress did not formally abrogate, and for a definition of the term of the occupation, which the Congress did not formally declare permanent, and have very probably been supporting these applications by instigating or conniving at the Mussulman resistance. On the other hand, Servia has been greatly disappointed, both in not getting the whole of the territory occupied by her troops during the war, and in not having her dream of a great Servian kingdom realized by the annexation of Bosnia. Montenegro, too, owes to Austrian opposition the loss of one-half of the territory ceded to her by the Treaty of San Stefano, and the refusal to her of a national flag. All three, therefore, if not actually interested in making the Austrian occupation difficult, are sufficiently irritated and disappointed by it to become stimulators of discontent and hostility. The result is that the Austrians have found work for double the force they at first thought sufficient, and will probably have to contend for a year or two with a great deal of Mussulman turbulence. It is characteristic of the military ill-luck of the Empire that they should have entered on their task with inadequate means. Bismarck would have poured in so many troops that the first blow he struck would have made the malcontents quake for twelve months, and have made a second unnecessary. As long as Bosnia is not tranquil and its fate not definitely settled, agitations will continue along the frontier, and the hope or expectation of fresh combinations be kept up among the whole Slav population, and Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia will certainly be affected by them. In fact, the formation of a party in Eastern Rumelia to promote discontent and force the Sultan's hand, so as to lay him open once more to Russian rebuke and interference, has probably already begun.

How little the Porte has learnt from experience, and how ready it still is to play into the hands of its enemies, is shown in its present dealings with Greece. The recommendation of the Congress with regard to the rectification of the Greek frontier was in reality a command, with which it was the interest of the Porte to comply without further discussion. Instead of doing this, it has entered into a controversy with the Greeks, and proved to its own satisfaction in an elaborate note that the Greeks are not entitled to the cession of territory in consequence of anything they did or left undone during the war; which, of course, amounts to saying that the recommendation of the Congress ought not to have any weight. Bismarck treated the Turkish plenipotentiaries at the Congress with considerable roughness, and indicated very clearly that he had no bowels of compassion for the falling empire. It is not surprising, therefore, that this attempt to evade the decision of the Congress has drawn from him a remonstrance in no way distinguishable from a threat. In fact, he is said to have directed the German Minister to inform the Vizier that he was putting the existence of European Turkey in peril. France and Italy also will not be sorry to have an opportunity of showing by their support of the Greek demands that they too counted for something at the Congress.

The most serious cloud on the horizon, however, is that which has arisen through the renewed advance of the Russians in Central Asia, the news of which seemed to come as an answer to the Anglo-Turkish alliance. The history of Russian conquests in Central Asia since 1846 is substantially that of British conquests in India—a continued process of accession brought about, in the main, in defence of previous acquisitions. A barbarous neighbor becomes troublesome and aggressive; he cannot be restrained by treaty, either because he is too perfidious or because he cannot control his own subjects; so that the only way of making him harmless is to annex him. Every step in this process has brought the Russians nearer to India, but also further from the base of supplies both in men and stores, for Central Asia does not furnish them, as India furnishes the British, with a recruiting-ground. Every step has, however, been made in a shamefaced way, and with both real and apparent anxiety to prevent its alarming England, and with an undoubted consciousness that England had little or nothing to fear from an advance in this direction as long as her native troops remained faithful. The handful of soldiers with which Russia could reach the Himalayas, even if she succeeded in winning over the Afghans, could make but little impression on the vast force which could be brought up by rail in the finest condition to oppose them, supposing the Sepoys to be as trustworthy and efficient as Lord Beaconsfield evidently thinks them and as they undoubtedly are. In fact, an attack on the British Empire in that quarter was a thing which on no reasonable view of military or political probabilities could be looked for in less than fifty years, and that was the only quarter in which Russia could assail British possessions without beating the British fleet.

Now, however, as Mr. W. E. Forster pointed out in his powerful speech before the Cobden Club the other day, England has made her frontier conterminous with that of Russia, fully one thousand miles nearer the Russian military capital—in fact, within easy reach of her principal southern railroad terminus; and along the whole of the line Russia can easily bring all her resources into play, so that she can actually attack India and draw the Indian troops to meet her at Kars, instead of having to go in search of them to Herat. If the news which the Paris *Temps* has published, and which the Moscow *Gazette* confirms, be true, that General Kaufmann started on the 23d of June at the head of an expeditionary force to march through Bokhara southward, and probably cross the Oxus and occupy Balkh, the Central Asiatic question has entered on a new phase. It was agreed, in the understanding between Lord Clarendon and Prince Gortchakoff, of which Mr. Gladstone boasted in his late speech, that whether Balkh was an Afghan province, as the British maintained, or a Bokharan province, as the Russians maintained, the Oxus was to be the Russian boundary on the south. If it is now crossed, it will show that Russia considers the Anglo-Turkish Convention a release from any obligation to restrain herself in that region, and also indicates her sense of a great improvement in her strategic position through the Anglo-Turkish Convention. She can repel an attack made on her in Afghanistan by simply marching out of Kars. One has only to think of the temptation which this will keep constantly open, in connection with the unsettled state into which the Treaty of Berlin has plunged Turkey, to feel sure that we are only witnessing the opening of the Eastern Question, and to doubt whether the great and long-expected revival of business will come until the political sky is clearer than it is now.

THE GRANT MOVEMENT.

THE ostensible aim of those who are pushing General Grant forward as a candidate for the Presidency in 1880 is to set up an invincible barrier against Communism and currency inflation, and to put a stiff curb on the South. We are given to understand that the American people are so alarmed by Schwab and Kearney and their kind that they desire to proceed against them in some way different from that which a statesman would adopt; that they have so little confidence in the efficacy of their form of government that it is necessary to try something more speedy and summary. "We

need a strong government at Washington," says the Rev. Dr. Newman, in an interview reported by the Chicago *Inter-Ocean*, "and General Grant is an army of one." This veteran consular detective remarked further that "Hayes, John Sherman, and Schurz thought that Grant was dead, buried, and descended into hell; but," he added with the irreverence of the sand-lot orator of California, "the third day he rose again"! "Has he ever mentioned the next Presidency in his letters to you?" asked the reporter. "Yes," responded the doctor. "I wrote him that every one was asking me about his sentiments regarding the third term. He replied that he had been through the trials and labors of sixteen years of public life, and was taking a rest"; an answer quite as evasive and enigmatical as his letter to the chairman of the Republican State Convention of Pennsylvania in 1875 on the same subject.

Whether as an army of one or of any other number, the candidacy of any soldier in preference to a civilian at this time is a suggestion that anticipated mob lawlessness be met with organized lawlessness. This is peculiarly its intent when applied to Gen. Grant, whose disregard of law in the Executive office would have filled the founders of the Republic with amazement and horror. The favor with which this plan of dealing with the unruly elements of society has been received in many quarters is a much graver cause for apprehension than Communism. The safety of our civilization rests upon the traditional respect for law which leads nine out of ten Americans to look to the magistrate for the redress of private, and to the ballot for the redress of public wrongs. The immovable stone in the way of Communism on our soil is the instinctive and largely hereditary impulse to commit every grievance to a civil tribunal, if we have one fitted to take cognizance of it, and if not, to make one as speedily as possible. A late illustration of the force of this instinct (and a more notable one cannot be found in the history of any country) was the Electoral Commission to decide the dispute about the Presidency. Even the war of the rebellion was preceded by a Peace Conference of the highest respectability and of several weeks' duration. To weaken and tamper with this noble and conservative trait of national character is an act of criminal folly which every Republican editor is ready to condemn in Kearney, but which not a few of them are committing daily by suggesting Grant as a remedy for Communism. As an enforcer of law President Grant was never distinguished, unless it be a distinction to enforce more laws than there are on the statute-book. His uniform practice was to enforce those which were agreeable to him, and neither to enforce nor allow others to enforce those which were not. His proceedings in Louisiana in 1872 were so flagrantly lawless that his own party in the Senate could find no apology for them, and one of the last acts of his term was to drive from office with every mark of anger all those engaged in prosecuting the whiskey-thieves, and to pardon the most notorious culprits among them who had been sent to the penitentiary by the discriminating juries of the country.

In what way General Grant became the ideal enemy of the Greenbackers, so that he should be selected to save the country from them, it is not easy to make out. In one notable instance he vetoed an inflation bill after allowing everybody, including his own Cabinet, to understand that he intended to sign it. He probably had no fixed ideas on the subject; he had never shown any before, nor has he since. The public may be duly thankful for any accident which wards off a great misfortune; but only victims of the grossest superstition invoke the accident for a permanent shield and remedy. In selecting a chief magistrate with reference to the currency question it would seem desirable to choose from among those who understand the subject or profess to do so, so that it may be known with some certainty what he will do in a given case. No such claim has been made for General Grant in any quarter, and the only thing resembling it is a prevailing suspicion that he will be found on the side of capital in all emergencies. The more champions of this unreasoning sort capital has the worse will it be in the long run for capitalists.

Coupled with the notion that General Grant is needed to put a new curb on the South the allegation is made that he alone can carry a sufficient number of Southern States to elect the Republican ticket. In other words, the South, having missed the enjoyment and solace of the curb through the laxity of President Hayes, is so desirous of renewing the experience that she will abandon Hampton, Nicholls, and the now Democratic Returning Boards in order to vote for the patron of Kellogg and Chamberlain. This is sufficiently humorous, but not more so than the assumption that the best interests of the country require that something should be done to the South which is not done equally to the North. During the eight years of Grant the South was a scene of pillage and carnage relieved by breathing-spells of military government. Since his departure it has been as peaceful and orderly as any other part of the country, and it presents fewer signs of disturbance to-day than Pennsylvania or California. This is a case of *post hoc* and *propter hoc* as well. The South is quiet and contented not only after the expiration of his Presidential term, but because of its expiration. In order that no form of nonsense may be wanting from this chapter of false pretences, it remains to be mentioned that General Grant's last public act—the last after pardoning the whiskey-thieves—was to notify Packard that he would not recognize him as governor of Louisiana or tolerate the doings of his retainers any longer. In other words, he indicated his intention to do (after his time for doing it had gone by) the very things in respect of the South which have since been done by his successor. Put this fact beside the pretence of his friends that he ought to be elected again in order to reverse President Hayes's Southern policy, and thereby win Louisiana and South Carolina back to the Republican column, and we have a medley of reasons more curious, if possible, than those lately advanced to account for Mr. Sumner's removal from the chairmanship of a certain Senate committee.

The only bottom that can be found for General Grant's candidacy in 1880 is that Mr. Conkling is intensely unpopular, while Mr. Blaine has been convicted of transactions that put him out of the question; and nobody else has sufficient prominence in the party and familiarity with the machine to be much talked about. The country editors in default of any rising leader fall back upon a departed one, and, as Mr. Foster, of Ohio, pithily said to an interviewer, are trying to make yesterday serve the purposes of to-morrow. It will be a futile endeavor. If the Republican party is bereft of statesmen, that fact can be best disclosed by nominating General Grant for a third term in the blazing light of the desperately bad term he last finished. There are some signs that the immoral tendencies of the Democratic party will repel the large and increasing number of independent voters who gave Mr. Tilden a clear majority of the popular vote notwithstanding the fair promises and unblemished record of Mr. Hayes. If it is desired to frighten them away from the Republican party also, the coming shadows of those who ruled in Washington with and under Grant will be the most effective spectre for the purpose.

SCHOOL-HUNTING.

"SCHOOL-HUNTER," who summed up in our columns last week the result of his enquiries for a school from which his girls would be turned out simply with good health, a taste for knowledge, and a proper sense of their own ignorance, has found that he cannot get such a school, partly because it would cost more than most parents could afford to pay, and partly because most parents would not patronize it if it were within their reach. The responses which his demands have called out from teachers all tell the same story—that they have to depend for their success on the multiplicity of the branches of knowledge they undertake to communicate. A curious illustration of the severity of the competition which now prevails in what, rightly considered, is one of the noblest of the professions, and that in which a mercenary spirit is most out of place, is to be found in the fact that two principals of schools have offered us a commission if we would induce "School-Hunter" to place his daughters with them. He is very much too wary a man, however, for any such arrangement, however anxious we might be to make a little money out of his perplexity. He represents, we believe, a large and

growing class of parents who are disposed to revolt both against the kind of education now offered to girls and the kind which many of the most active friends of female education are clamoring for. He seeks, in other words, for his girls what so many fathers are seeking for their boys, an education which shall be a real preparation for the life which they will probably lead, not for the life which speculators on woman's capacity would like to see them lead. There is in the community a large body of thoughtful though silent fathers and mothers who are getting rather tired of having their children used for the verification of social and psychological hypotheses, very much as Weston and O'Leary are used by physiologists for the verification of views about muscle, fat, and digestive power. A very large proportion of the most energetic educational reformers want women's schools and colleges to be organized and conducted with the view of testing the question whether woman cannot equal man in any of the pursuits of which he has hitherto had a monopoly. This may be a useful and even praiseworthy experiment, but there are many parents, we repeat, who do not wish to furnish the materials for it, and who, in sending their girls to school, seek the same results as when they send their boys to school and college—that is, as respectable an equipment for the kind of work which will most probably fall to their lot in life as their mental and moral constitution will allow to be bestowed on them. The weightiest charge that is now brought against the men's universities in this country, and indeed in every country, is that they take some very precious years for what is not a direct preparation for active life. The changes made in all college curriculums, too, within the past twenty years look more and more to the supply of special training for special tastes and particular professions as the world now is, and do not aim at the production of an ideal man who will do something very different from what men are now doing or have ever done.

If we look at the education of women, either as it is or as many of those who are most occupied with the condition of women in society think it ought to be, we find the traces of preparation in it for probable duties exceedingly faint, a fact which "School-Hunter" seems to have had borne in on him very unpleasantly. We have, unluckily, no marriage statistics in our census returns, but we may fairly take those of England as a guide in discussing the probable occupation of the bulk of American women. In them we find that eighty per cent. of women reaching the marriageable age marry ; so that if education ought to be a preparation for the duties of life, female schools and colleges ought to be arranged and conducted mainly with reference to the needs of the eighty out of every hundred who will be wives and mothers, and not of the remaining twenty who may possibly lecture, write books, teach, or practice law or medicine, or live in solitary leisure. Now there is no denying that a woman, even if married, is not only none the worse, but may be a great deal the better of being as accomplished, or learned, or literary, or artistic as her natural powers will permit ; but every rational system of education has to estimate not the absolute but relative importance of acquirements, and adopt its training to the scale thus formed. For instance, the most important thing in life for a married woman is good health. Without this, all other things—talents, charms, opportunities—lose a large part of their value, and in extreme cases life itself becomes a burden. There is probably no fact of modern society so plain and palpable as this. One would naturally expect, therefore, that every parent and teacher in the country would make the accumulation of physical strength in early youth the first and greatest consideration, and that in all school curriculums nothing would be for one moment allowed to interfere with it. As matters stand, however, teachers and parents seem to accept what Miss Cobbe calls "the little health of women" as part of the order of nature, and as if the question whether a woman should pass through life sickly or strong was as unmanageable as the question whether her nose should be straight or her ears small. In other words, their attitude towards it is strictly fatalistic. If she is strong, well and good ; if she is "delicate," well and good too. Such is her nature. But if female education were a preparation for life, as men's professional schools are, there would be female schools for health simply, in which other things would be taught only so far as they ministered to health, and not one iota further ; for what does it profit a woman if she have the tongue of angels and cannot leave her bed or the sofa ?

As regards the instruction given at most girls' schools, it may be said to consist of languages, music, a little drawing and painting, and a smattering of science. The modern languages are for the most part utterly forgotten before the girl has been two years at home ; not ten per cent. of the married women sing or play a note after their first child is born ; very few are mistresses of a clear and vigorous English style, and as to the sciences (especially "astronomy, ancient and modern geography, the use of the globes") the less said about it the better. Women are not called on in active life for any of these things, and they naturally, and often properly, do not in active life trouble their heads about them. Men do just the same thing under like circumstances. What women might get in learning even useless things which they will forget is a taste for knowledge and the power of acquisition; but nobody, male or female, ever got this by any process except the process of mastering something. It is never obtained by learning a little of a thing and never feeling sure of what one knows. No mastery of a subject is possible to anybody who is expected to potter over so many subjects as are now exacted of girls at school. We think it no exaggeration to say that a girl would get a far better education, in the best and true sense of that term, by spending three or four years in thoroughly acquiring one language, or in making herself an authority on one subject—if it were only the political condition of Central Asia—through reading and digesting everything written about it, than by following the average school course, and that she would, with concomitant attention to health, leave school with a greater sense of and capacity for the ordinary demands of life, than even one girl in a hundred now gets from her present school-training. Thousands of men have first drawn their courage for the race they have to run from the confidence inspired by having completely mastered some one thing, and knowing that they cannot be floored on it. In society one meets every day apparently very dull and silent men, who cut a sorry figure at a dinner-table, and who, if women, would go home mortified and annoyed by a sense of their own insignificance, but whose self-respect and complacency are entirely sustained by the consciousness that if the conversation had only run on one particular thing, everybody would have had to make way for them. And then to a person who knows one thing thoroughly, not only does the task of learning some other thing lose all its terrors, but he contracts a wholesome dislike of half-knowledge and vague beliefs and foggy assertions, which keeps him in perpetual mental health.

What most women need next after health and power of acquisition, and the confidence which springs from having acquired something, is a tolerable amount of administrative capacity. Housekeeping is administration on a small scale. It includes the faculty of getting the most for one's money, and managing servants and children. If it were likely to be a man's vocation to the extent to which it is likely to be a woman's, he would undoubtedly be prepared for it by some sort of apprenticeship. He would have to learn in some subordinate capacity the proper mode of buying and preparing food, and of procuring and taking care of furniture and clothing, and of ruling servants. He would be trained to receive company by some experience of the art of entertaining, both in its material and its æsthetic aspect. No one would ever guess, however, from an inspection of an average school course, that a girl was to be the head of that most complex result of civilization, a modern household, with its thousand duties, responsibilities, and relations. No one would ever suppose that the very end and aim of a nation's existence, the main use of its armies and navies, and commerce, and police, and manufactures, and inventions, was the multiplication of well-ordered parlors with agreeable and efficient women in them, and yet this is strictly true. All our toiling, and fighting, and travelling, and producing ends in this. When a man has set up a happy home he feels, and the whole community agrees with him, that the best work of his life is done.

It is not only good administration, however, in the ordinary sense of buying and managing and enforcing discipline, that women are expected to contribute to it. They are expected to make it attractive to the outside world by good manners, and, in fact, are expected by their cultivation of manners to restrain or counteract the tendency to brutality and coarseness among men which seems an inseparable accompaniment of the régime of competition. The foundation of good manners is undoubtedly tact and quick sympathy, and these cannot be implanted by any didactic process ; but a great deal can, nevertheless, be done at school to aid in the formation of manners. For example, there is no such hindrance to good manners as fussiness and pretence—that is, an uncontrollable and restless desire to produce the impression that you are something other, if not better, than your natural self. Now, fussiness and pretence, the absence of "modest stillness and humility," are all over the country the curse of girls' schools. The evil reaches its last limits in the city high-schools ; a street-car full of the older girls of one of these institutions, over-dressed, eager for the notice of the passengers, talking in loud

"hollering" voices, confident to the last degree in the power of their own attractiveness, ignorant of what reserve means, and anxious that every word they say should be heard by everybody within ten rods, is perhaps as disheartening a spectacle of the kind as our civilization presents, because it indicates the absence of all moral and social training from the most important seats of education we have. But the root of the evil as well as the evil itself is to be found in a large number of our girls' schools. The daily attempt in which so many of them are engaged to cover ground that cannot be covered, to make a show of instruction which cannot be given, and which teachers and pupils know is *not* given, and which has no real adaptation to the practical needs of life, which every girl secretly intends to forget as soon as she is married, naturally creates an atmosphere of sham in which good manners cannot grow, or can only grow in rare natures. No woman's manners are good if she is not simple, and she cannot be simple after passing some of her best years in trying to impose on people as the possessor of accomplishments which she really does not possess.

One of the commonest defects of women's domestic manners is, as regards women in moderate circumstances, a sort of false shame about their mode of life. Not one of them in a hundred has been prepared by training to meet anything in the shape of an unexpected visit or intrusion with cheerful courtesy, or even calm fortitude. On the contrary, the school influence, in nine cases out of ten, has helped to give to the discovery by a stranger that they do not always dress and eat as they seem to do on gala days, the air of a calamity which the strongest natures cannot be expected to resist. The result has been, both in the United States and in England, almost to extinguish simple and informal hospitality. An average woman, among plain people, is crushed by a friend dropping unexpectedly in to a meal, and sits at the table in silent and flustered pain, whereas her education ought to have prepared her to meet such crises with a smiling front, if not with positive enjoyment. Part of the drill of every school ought to be the reception by a wife in an old gown, at a dinner of corn beef and cabbage, of an unlooked-for guest, thoughtlessly brought home by a reckless husband.

CANADIAN POLITICS.

August 14, 1878.

A GENERAL election and a great battle between the parties are approaching in Canada. To most Americans Canada is a political Timbuctoo, yet she is likely to exercise a serious influence over the political future of this continent. Aristocratic England does not know very much about her. In a proclamation of the British Privy Council the other day Ontario was called "that town," and in the article of the leading journal on the fisheries award Sir Alexander *Grant* was put for Sir Alexander *Galt*. Still British Toryism has a strong and by no means baseless notion that Canada may serve a very gratifying purpose as a political thorn in the side of the American Republic, and an obstacle to the consolidation of democratic institutions in the New World. With the Conservative reaction and the ascendency of "Jingoism" in England has come a renewal of the effort to cultivate Imperial and anti-American sentiment in Canada. The mission of an English Princess with her husband to form a Colonial Court may be regarded as a new departure of Toryism, and as a move in the same game which has created an Empress of India. Flunkyism is a great power. It is not chimerical on the part of the Tory leaders to hope that the antagonism to republican sentiment and institutions, which by the fall of slavery was deprived of its basis at the South, may in time find a new basis at the North, and that a renewal of disturbance in some form may once more relieve the world of the demoralizing spectacle of a great community prospering without a House of Peers. On the other hand, Canada, if she can escape the influence of aristocracy and take her place as a community of this continent, is capable of lending material aid to the New World in the solution of its great problems. The British Canadian belongs to the true self-governing element, and the French Canadian, though poor and priest-ridden, is a good man.

The Canadian Constitution is an imitation of the British, without the forces which move the model machine. Government is party, but the parties have no basis. Their original basis was the question of responsible government, which formed an adequate ground for a division analogous to that between the Whigs and Tories in England. To this, however, other questions succeeded, cognate, and, though inferior in importance, important enough to furnish a dividing line for parties: the question of the clergy reserves, that between religious and secular education, and, above all, the question as to the proportion of representation between Upper and Lower Canada. Those provinces had been yoked but not united, and the political struggle between them was embittered by antagonism of race and of religion. The Conservative party now found its chief stronghold in French Canada, which resisted change, and the Catholic priesthood of which, like their brethren in other countries, had a general leaning to the reactionary side. The leader of the Conservatives, during this latter period, was Sir John Macdonald. The leader of the Liberals was Mr. George Brown, the proprietor of the Toronto *Globe*, the most widely circulated journal in Canada, which, under the guise of a public instructor, has always been his personal organ, and by its conduct may be said to have signally illustrated the vices of organism and the evils of a clandestine connection between public life and the press. The superior ability of Sir John Macdonald contributed largely to the retention of power by his party. Once, by an accident, Mr. Brown grasped the premiership, but he held it only for a few days. The party struggle, however, at last brought government to a deadlock, the embarrassment caused by which conspired with the alarm produced by the quarrel between the British aristocracy and the American Republic during the Civil War to bring about Confederation. It was hoped that the antagonism between Upper and Lower Canada would be merged in the Dominion. Confederation was carried by a coalition cabinet in which Sir John Macdonald and Mr. Brown sat together. Mr. Brown, however, soon decamped. The reason he assigned was a difference of opinion on a point connected with negotiations for Reciprocity. But his conduct was universally ascribed to a mixture of personal jealousy with anxiety about the circulation of his journal, which did not thrive so well when it was on the side of government as it had in opposition. The other representatives of his party in the coalition cabinet condemned his secession by refusing to depart with him; and their judgment was emphatically confirmed by the people when he tried the issue at the polls by running for the county of Ontario. After that defeat Mr. Brown retired behind his type; and though he has completely retained the control of his party by the power of his journal, he has not again attempted to lead it in the open field.

He succeeded, however, in getting the party lines drawn again, and in plunging the country once more into a strife of factions, which, all organic questions having been settled, had ceased to have any rational object or any moral justification. The name "Grits," which has superseded that of Reformers, aptly denotes by its senselessness the absence of any common principle or political purpose in a combination which is, in fact, merely a political ring having its centre in the *Globe;* while the Conservatives show by the prefix of "Liberal" their consciousness that they have nothing to conserve. Of course the struggle thus renewed was embittered by its merely personal character; and as it was prolonged and grew more desperate, intrigue, calumny, and corruption increased. At length corruption culminated in the Pacific-Railway scandal, and, by the just verdict of the people, the Government of Sir John Macdonald fell.

Not only did the parties fail after Confederation to find themselves new grounds of existence, they failed to extend themselves to the new provinces which Confederation had brought in. Those provinces still form interests apart with which the leaders of the parties make separate terms. The perpetual auction is amusing though expensive; so is the perpetual bidding for the Roman-Catholic vote, especially on the side of Mr. Brown, a Scotch Presbyterian and once a sledge-hammer of Popery, now compelled, in order that government may remain in the hands of persons of high principle, to woo the political favor of the Scarlet Woman.

There is as little of real difference between the parties and their leaders in respect of general character and tendency as in respect of specific policy. Nobody apprehends anything reactionary at the hands of the "Liberal Conservatives"; and the main object of their leader, if he were once in office, would probably be to keep it, and to live a quiet life. On the other hand nothing Liberal, in any sense of the term, can be connected with the name of Mr. Brown. Once he was a son of demagogic thunder, but he has now been at Court; his loyalty, once doubted by governors-general, exceeds that of governors-general themselves. The measure of his political Liberalism he has shown by putting a veto in the usual form of personal denunciation on the movement for the reform of the Senate, the only important question which the Liberal party has.

Upon the fall of Sir John Macdonald, after the Pacific scandal, a "Grit" government was formed under Mr. Alexander Mackenzie. Mr. Brown remained safe in his journal-office, only recognizing his own

merit by an appointment to a senatorship. Mr. Mackenzie is regarded by all impartial judges as a most respectable man, and one who, if he were his own master, would try to do right. But he is not strong enough to be his own master. The *Globe* made him, the *Globe* can unmake him, and he has to do the bidding of the *Globe*. Till lately he had a colleague, Mr. Edward Blake, who, standing more by his own strength, was disposed to set the *Globe* at defiance and caused much uneasiness to Mr. Brown. But the air of the "Grit" cabinet undermined the health of a sensitive man of principle, and Mr. Blake's retirement has left Mr. Brown once more entirely master of his own household. The relation between the dominant journalist and the ostensible Prime Minister has been compared to that between Mr. Thurlow Weed and Mr. Seward; but the comparison is unjust to the position of Mr. Seward, if not to the habits of Mr. Weed. This subordination of government to a newspaper is a curious addition to our museum of political inventions. It combines the corruption of the administration with the demoralization of the press. It involves a constant effort on the part of the journal to maintain a monopoly of opinion by literary terrorism; and no ordinary organ of libel hunts down obnoxious or inconvenient people and butchers their reputations with such business-like tenacity as the *Globe*. To crush independent journalism is also necessarily a continual aim, and one which, in a narrow area, it costs some exertion to defeat.

As a deliverer of society from such a régime and a restorer of parliamentary Government, Sir John Macdonald might command some Liberal sympathy, even if his Toryism were of the narrowest kind. But he is an easy-going man of the world, with a mind, unlike that of his rival, widened by culture, perfectly tolerant in matters of opinion, and ready to act in public with any one who will act with him. He is socially very popular, and the qualities which secure his social popularity enter beneficially into his statesmanship. He is well fitted to hold together the various and somewhat discordant elements of which the Dominion is composed. For the same reason his return to power would hold out a hope of some sort of coalition government and of a respite from the faction fight, in the continuance of which thoughtful men begin to see political and financial ruin. On the other hand the fierce struggle for power in which he has been all his life engaged has profoundly affected his moral character as a statesman. It has made him unscrupulous in his choice of expedients, and, what is still worse, in his choice of men. The character of some of the men about him is, in the eyes of good citizens, the greatest objection to his return to power. What lengths he will go when hard pressed, in the use of corruption, the Pacific-Railway scandal shows. But it is for his party that he sins; his own disinterestedness is above suspicion, whereas on the reputation of his austere rival calumny has fixed its tooth. Sir John has personal infirmities, too, on which Mr. Brown does not fail as a guardian of morals to descant, naturally forgetting that the daily abuse of a public journal for the purposes of self-interest and malevolence may be not less inconsistent with perfect moral beauty than occasional excess in wine. The people having punished Sir John, and finding by experience that his opponents are not much purer than he is, seem now rather inclined to forgive and reinstate him. Against this culpable lenity in the case of so grievous a sinner Mr. Brown indignantly protests. But the effect of his homilies has been somewhat impaired by the discovery of what is called in campaign language the "Big-Push Letter"—a letter in which the chief of Reformers called upon the president of a joint-stock bank for money to be used in making a "big push" at the crisis of a general election. A judge before whom the letter came in the course of a libel suit commented severely on its contents. The judge was in due course assailed with three columns of billingsgate in Mr. Brown's organ, but the effect of his remarks was not removed from the public mind.

In Canada, as in other countries, commercial depression has begotten a desire for fiscal change. Protectionism has been gaining ground, at least in the Upper Provinces, and the Opposition there has taken up the cry. Probably nothing very definite is meant by Protection. The commercial autonomy of the colony is doubtful, and without commercial autonomy protection which would affect the interest of the British manufacturer must obviously have its limits. Sir John Macdonald himself confines his pledges to a readjustment of the tariff. The strictest economists must admit that Canada, cut off as she is from the markets of her own continent by her political connection with England, is placed in a position of artificial disadvantage, and that there is nothing unnatural, at all events, in her casting about for a legislative remedy; but her manufacturers will probably be led in the end to the conclusion that the one thing which they need is complete free-trade with the United States.

The contest will certainly be very bitter, and probably it will be very close. The most competent and unbiassed judges are at present entirely in doubt as to the result. A party conflict in Canada is always like the battle of Bosworth Field, with Stanley hovering between the two camps. In this case, however, there are two Stanleys—the Maritime Provinces and the Roman Catholic Church. How these will go no one as yet can say. In the attendance and enthusiasm at his campaign meetings Sir John Macdonald has had greatly the advantage; but allowance must be made for his personal popularity and his attractiveness as a speaker. Mr. Brown and the "Grits" have all the patronage of the Governments, both central and provincial, in their hands. This is a powerful engine, and it will be used to the utmost of its power.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—III.

THE ARCHITECTURE.

PARIS, August 6, 1878.

THE fine-art galleries are situated on the central axis of the Champ-de-Mars building, and occupy its whole length of half a mile, except for a space in the very centre. Here is placed the Pavilion of the City of Paris, a large, independent building, devoted to the display and explanation of the public works of the city, its administration and police, its sanitary improvements, its artistic and literary labors of to-day and its historic past. This building, which forms the very nucleus of all the vast exhibition of industry and thought, is not unworthy of its destination. There is much in its design worthy of study and worthy of praise. The construction is wholly of cast and wrought-iron, in the slenderest possible uprights and ties; within, round columns support girders in much the usual way, and a flat ceiling, mostly of glass, is successfully treated without being especially novel or remarkable. But without there is much that is new in the adaptation of material: the slender square and T-shaped bars forming the exterior frame are grouped in threes to form corner-piers at the twelve main angles of the building; and the faces, three feet broad, of these piers are made up of pale-red terra-cotta in elaborate designs of scrolls, arabesques, and interlacing circles, in moderate relief. It must be understood that no attempt has been made to give these constructive and richly-ornamented main piers any look of solid stone, of homogeneous piles of material, of the architecture of any past time or any recognized "style"; the corner pieces of iron have their own little capitals, and the central adornment is left to confess itself as an external thing, aiding the construction in no way, or at most protecting the braces and ties which stiffen the pier it ornaments. The larger spaces of wall are of plain, brownish-red brick; not of smooth and uniform quality, but picturesquely irregular, and diversified here and there by a moderate use of bricks of other colors. The cornice is slight, a mere projection of the eaves, unimportant in the general aspect of the building. The great doorways alone are more elaborate. Each of them has a frame or architecture of similar make to that of the angle pilasters already described, but double; the outermost division is filled with terra-cotta tiles like those mentioned above, of different design, bolder, with more relief, and this pattern forms a gable above the door. Within comes the doorway proper, with sloping or splayed jambs and lintel, composed of glazed tiles in relief and in vivid colors, like those tiles sold by Minton's and Maw's agencies in New York under the name of Majolica. This is better in effect than one would suppose. The iron-work has been skilfully enough colored to suit all this polychromatic material; generally the colors of the slender framework are grey and blue, of no great prominence, harmonizing with the dull reds and the more vivid glazed colors of the ceramic ware.

The line of art-galleries, eighty feet wide in the main and flanked by little projecting wings, which is carried the whole length of the Champ-de-Mars building, except where the Pavilion of Paris interrupts it, is absolutely devoid of architectural pretension, except where that interruption gives it two fronts facing the ornamental structure between them. Here two huge arcaded porticoes have been built, called Loggias from a far-away resemblance they have to the famous and noble structure at Florence. They are not of importance, but they shelter some very extraordinary productions of modern French decorative art. In the northwest one, that nearest the entrance from the river, the central doorway has a strange, and it is safe to say awkward, architectural door-piece, and corresponding *frontons* on the two sides, of equally inappropriate disposition; but all this is hardly seen for the brilliant ornamentation in painted tiles that covers the whole wall-space around them and within the arches at the sides. A vast landscape, perhaps thirty-six feet from

the frame below to the arched ceiling which bounds it, disappearing indeed behind the architrave and the sculptured Diana, but carried through as if continuous behind them, entirely in its natural colors, or such as in art of this kind pass for natural colors, is set up in each of the side archways; and these, with six allegorical figures of life-size, in arched niches, are all composed of enamelled tiles, made and painted at the Deck factory, after designs by the architect, M. Jœger. One hesitates to decide upon the artistic value of all this. It is evidently not well used, not well combined with the purely architectural forms; also it is plain that to attempt a big landscape in this material was to attempt a *tour de force*, even after the great experience the French designers and workmen have had during the past fifteen years, and the immense development of this art of decorative pottery. Certainly that which is before us here is not beautiful, but it would take so little to make it beautiful, one hopes so much from the very next effort in the same direction, that it seems to the eye of hope better than it really is. The borders and frames are delicious; one pattern, which might just as well be sent to New York for sale as the hideous English tiles so constantly thrust upon us, is of violet and greenish blue, arranged in a sort of interlacing square fret, with a grey and orange flower in high relief in the middle of each square, and smaller orange "dog-teeth"—not necessarily a costly frieze.

The corresponding front at the southeast end is better because more reserved and tranquil, although there is included in it one of the most renowned pieces of decorative art in the whole Exhibition—the *Porte des Beaux-Arts*, designed by Paul Sédille, architect, and executed in ceramic ware by J. P. Lœbnitz, of Paris. The greater part of this vast square-topped doorway is in light, reddish-brown terra-cotta, in relief, and some of the reliefs gilded, apparently not in the fabrication but afterwards. But this surrounds and frames in a broad frieze of colored and enamelled tiles, carried up each side of the door and across the top, and on a scale and with a boldness of effect probably unexampled. Each tile is about two feet four inches square, and makes the whole width of the frieze. The decoration is in enamels slightly relieved above the smooth surface, as when a thick, sticky liquid is allowed to take its own way on a horizontal surface; these enamels form flowers in white, dark green, reddish maroon, and pale blue, on a deep yellow ground, and each piece of enamel is separated from its neighbors by a line slightly incised in the paste of the tile, and showing in buff, not glazed. Hitherto no photograph of this doorway has been published, which is to be regretted, as it comes nearer to a realization of our dreams of an architecture in iron and pottery than anything else within reach, except the Pavilion of Paris, and is more successful in decorative effect even than that fine building.

On each side are showy pieces of ornamental design—one a sort of arcade with a design of figures (I have forgotten what, as I write; something "after" Fra Angelico) all made of enamelled pottery, some of whose tones remind one of Della Robbia work; all exhibited by Virebent, of Toulouse. On the other side are paintings after Raphael and Hippolyte Flandrin, "*sur lave, grand feu, imitant la fresque*," by Gillet, of Paris. This art, of which no other specimen appears, but of which this example gives a favorable idea, undertakes to be absolutely unalterable by weather or noxious gases. A knowledge of the process is necessary to enable one to judge of its utility.

On either side of this line of galleries is the open street—Rue de France on the French side, with a plain iron and glass wall where the main building of the French department begins; Rue des Nations on the other side, fronted by a series of façades. Each of these streets is one continuous gravel walk, except that shrubbery and plants are introduced at the angles and in the nooks left between projecting buildings; and each is supplied with an abundance of seats, of chairs and benches, of fixed settles of architectural look, of light chairs made of steel ribbon and springs or of wire, of sentry-box-looking covered seats, of basket-work for shelter as well as rest, all furnished by the competitive liberality of the makers of such things. Perhaps the crowd here at Paris is never equal to that at Philadelphia, but there are 80,000 visitors a day, or thereabouts; and yet never does one look in vain for a seat, whether in the park or in the vestibules and main halls, under the colonnades of the Trocadéro or in these interior streets. Of course, there are departments in the Exhibition itself where seats are not placed, where there is no room for them.

The foreign division is in turn divided among the different nationalities into blocks of its whole width, so that as you pass down any of the passages which run the length of the building you go through Great Britain and her dependencies first (entering from the river front), then the United States, then Sweden, and so on—Germany alone being conspicuous by her absence. The front of each of these subdivisions on the Rue des Nations is the space allowed for the façade thereof, and the British, having a front of five hundred and fifty feet, have made five buildings of it—five separate edifices, with spaces of twenty feet or more between. In one way this has been a peculiarly happy decision; the five cottage-like, two-story buildings they have erected excite no feeling of incongruity such as that caused by the only other important façade, that of Belgium; they don't look too massive and elaborate to be put up for six months, while yet they are not mere plaster casts of buildings, mere models, like some others. Mr. Norman Shaw's design of a "Queen Anne" front would be more valuable if in real brickwork instead of a mere advertisement of a new process—one of those vexatious devices for imitating one material by means of another, or one construction by a different one, with which architecture in her struggles for life finds herself loaded. The next house is larger; it is the residence of the President of the Commission, the Prince of Wales, when he is here, and is an Elizabethan structure a hundred feet long and two stories high, faced with "plaster in imitation of brickwork, with Bath-stone dressings," the design of Mr. Gilbert R. Redgrave, the architect of the Commission. It is a sufficiently accurate historical document, and there can be no objection to the frank copying for this peculiar occasion of a characteristic national style in any material which may best serve the temporary purpose. It is possible, too, that Mr. Redgrave has done better in giving this façade than if he had copied accurately an existing piece of Elizabethan work, for the characteristic buildings in that style are on too large a scale. At the same time, in such a front the merits of the style cannot be seen—its picturesqueness, its large and rude nobility. What is seen is its ugly detail, its fantastic and meaningless ornamentation. The third front is entirely of the Lambeth pottery of Doulton & Co., the design of Messrs. Tarring & Wilkinson, in that style of ultra-florid, modernized, Italo-English Gothic which has been called "Victorian"—a style the worst vices of which pottery seems expressly fitted to subserve. The fourth and fifth houses are "half-timbered" English country-houses of great simplicity and quiet fitness; the one designed by Mr. Redgrave of the style of Elizabeth or James I., with its spirited arcading and framework, essential or not so essential, all in unpainted timber—a specimen of the most national of English styles, a thing unknown upon the Continent, and as important and peculiar in the history of English art as the open-timber roofs of churches and great halls, even of Westminster Hall itself. The fifth is a capital parsonage, or something such, of the time of William III., designed by Mr. Colcutt; the timber framework much less elaborate, painted plain white, and the wall-spaces filled up with masonry having the stuccoed surface scratched in pretty patterns.

The Yankee front comes next, and is not architectural at all—a mere railway station, and therefore not offensive. It is a fortunate escape from what we might have had.

The Japanese have done their work with that contented simplicity which is one of the happiest features of their national character and art—an art which knows how to turn the simplest devices to good purpose, and to ornament elaborately only when the right time has come. They have nothing but a blank wall on which a great map of Japan and a plan of Tokio are displayed in quiet colors, and between these a doorway doubled by an advanced gateway of heavy timber, and flanked by ingenious little fountains, where water trickles from the petals and leaves of aquatic plants in faïence.

The different nations have indeed differed widely in their ways of undertaking their task. Switzerland gives a plaster front which might be anything, a mere enclosure with huge openings in it to show off stained glass—none of which seems at a preliminary inspection to be important, Austria-Hungary, with the longest stretch of front of all the nations after Great Britain, has set up a chilly arcade with end pavilions in a classic style which is certainly not characteristic of any of the nationalities governed by Francis Joseph. Moreover, it is a mere mask, with bold architectural features painted in *grisaille*. It is suggested that the architects dared not favor one of the races subject to the Austro-Hungarian crown to the exclusion of others, and therefore went to Italy for their style. But it seems a pity that with Prague to copy they couldn't have done as Portugal has, or with Hungary to reveal to Europe they couldn't have done as Russia has. For Portugal gives frankly a series of facsimile casts in plaster of parts of a convent at Belem, near Lisbon; an elaborate doorway of the convent is reproduced for the narrow front on the Rue des Nations, and the cloisters are carried within and used to enclose the Portuguese exhibit. And Russia? Russia has built a huge log house, a solid two-story affair of heavy timber. Every round log is

stripped of its bark and grooved out or hollowed all along one side, so as to fit close to its next neighbor below, and they fit so close as to need little filling of chinks, while that little is made more permanent, no doubt, if used. None is used in the building before us. At the angles the logs are halved and cross one another, leaving the ends exposed. That is the weak point; one would expect these sticks to decay very rapidly with their unprotected ends. Probably with this, as with the stuffing with moss or hay of the crevices and joints, we are not told the whole story.

The Grand Duchy of Luxemburg has a modest little house with a turret forming an oriel window, but without any doorway; for in some friendly fashion she has made common cause with three other small powers, and uses their doorway which adjoins. The principality of Monaco, the republic of San Marino, and the republic of Andorra occupy together about twenty feet in width on the street and were obliged to have a twenty-foot front in common. Belgium, on the other hand, has nearly 150 feet on the street—the third largest front—and has erected thereon a palace said to have cost 600,000 francs. There is no temporary plaster-work about this. The dealers in materials—quarrymen, brick-makers, workers in marble, wrought-iron, and bronze—have all agreed together to show off their merchandise in the best way; a competent architect, Mr. Janlet, has designed the building, and it has been built. The greater part of the wall-surface is of brick, but there are quoins, sill-courses, windows of stone from different quarries, polished columns of marble and (apparently) of syenite or granite, and open arcades of solid stone. The names of the exhibitors are set up on slabs of polished black marble along the base; they don't offend. In this, and in the use of so many materials of different colors, the designer's judgment and power over his design are very remarkable. R. S.

SOCIALISM IN GERMANY.

III.

HAMBURG, July, 1878.

THE platform of the Social Democrats, as agreed upon at their Gotha meeting in 1875, reads as follows:

I. Labor is the source of all riches and of all culture. As general profitable labor can only be done by the human society, the whole product of labor belongs to society—*i. e.*, to all its members—who have the same duties and the same right to work, each according to his reasonable wants.

In the present society the means of work are the monopoly of the class of capitalists. The class of workingmen thus become dependent on them, and consequently are given over to all degrees of misery and servitude.

In order to emancipate labor it is requisite that the means of work be transformed into the common property of society, that all productive powers be regulated by associations, and that the entire product of labor be turned over to society and justly distributed for the benefit of all.

None but the working class itself can emancipate labor, as in relation to it all other classes are only a reactionary mass.

II. Led by these principles the Social Party of German Workingmen, by all legal means, strives for a free state and society, the breaking down of the iron laws of wages by abolishing the system of hired workingmen, by abolishing exploitation in every shape, and doing away with all social and political inequality.

The German Social Workingmen's Party, although first working within its national confines, is fully conscious of the international character of the general workingmen's movement, and is resolved to fulfil all duties which it imposes on each workingman in order to realize the fraternity of all men.

The German Social Workingmen's Party, for the purpose of preparing the way, and for the solution of the social problem, demands the creation of social productive associations, to be supported by the state government and under the control of the working people. The productive associations are to be founded in such numbers that the social organization of the whole production can be effected by them.

The German Social Workingmen's Party requires as the basis of state government:

1. Universal, equal, direct, and secret suffrage, which, beginning with the twentieth year, obliges all citizens to vote in all state, county, and town elections. Election-day must be a Sunday or a holiday.
2. Direct legislation by the people; decision as to war and peace by the people.
3. General capability of bearing arms; popular defence in place of standing armies.
4. Abolition of all exceptional laws, especially those relating to the press, public meetings, and associations—in short of all laws which hinder the free expression of ideas and thought.
5. Gratuitous administration of justice by the people.
6. General and equal, popular and gratuitous education by the government in all classes and institutes of learning; general duty to attend school; religion to be declared a private affair.

The German Workingmen's Party insists on realizing in the present state of society:

1. The largest possible extension of political rights and freedom in conformity with the above six demands.
2. A single progressive income tax for state, counties, and towns, instead of those which are imposed at present, and in place of indirect taxes, which unequally burden the people.
3. Unlimited right of combination.
4. A normal working day corresponding with the wants of society; prohibition of Sunday labor.
5. Prohibition of children's work and of women's work, so far as it injures their health and morality.
6. Protective laws for the life and health of workingmen; sanitary control of their dwellings; superintendence of mines, factories, industry and home work by officers chosen by the workingmen; an effectual law guaranteeing the responsibility of employers.
7. Regulation of prison-work.
8. Unrestricted self-government of all banks established for the mutual assistance of workingmen.

In conformity with Marx's precepts this platform, therefore, says: All means of production—*i.e.*, the ground and soil, houses, engines, tools, and raw materials of every kind—become state property. Thus private property, *in toto* or *in parte*, is abolished, so that neither mortgages nor public funds, nor shares, claims, nor savings-bank books can be owned by any private person. Money, too, as a means of exchange, is done away with, and the state government, which is the sole owner of all values, has to furnish the necessaries of life. The utmost allowance of private and inheritable property is confined to chattels or provisions which serve for personal use—as, for instance, victuals, furniture, and wearing apparel. The government orders what is to be produced in its workshops with the common means of production. Every man and woman is bound to work, and must perform that work which is allotted to him or her by the government as sole employer. Private factories, private handiwork, private agriculture, retail and wholesale trade consequently cease to be carried on. From the product of labor are first to be deducted the costs and disbursements, and the sums necessary for preserving and increasing the means of production (the capital); then the balance is partly spent for the common benefit—*i.e.*, in government institutions for the gratuitous use of everybody—partly distributed in such a shape that to each are assigned the means for his "reasonable" wants. Such is the Social-Democratic future. Personal freedom and individual responsibility are sacrificed to an all-absorbing absolutism which will make the world a uniform barrack, if not a penitentiary.

You will have perceived from the above statement that, except making religion a private affair of each individual, the Social Democrats do not even mention it in their platform. Their leaders treat all ideal aims as a remnant of superstition which suffices for the "foolish Philistine, dull by hereditary stupidity." Thus religion is a standing theme of attack for even the most insignificant Social-Democratic stump-speakers. Marx, Lassalle, and their more prominent followers belong to the modern German philosophical school, which, being atheistic in its principles and tendencies, ignores all religious creeds and the church. In this respect their subordinate disciples are eager to imitate them. Thus, two Berlin women, leading Socialists, who openly declared themselves infidels, a Mrs. Canzius and Mrs. "President" Hahn, have lately been indicted by the district-attorney for sneering at "the infamy of the Christian religion" in a public meeting. Because the preachers, with a few exceptions, have in former reactionary times always sided with the Government and upheld the most oppressive measures against the people, they are, if not despised, in the eyes of the masses a sort of black gendarmes, and therefore have no hold and little influence on the popular mind.

How can it be explained, under these circumstances, that orthodox Protestant clergymen and the Roman-Catholic Ultramontane party not only work at times with the Social-Democratic demagogues, but even encourage them in their nefarious schemes against the very foundations of state and society?

To begin with the Roman Catholics, organized under the name of the "Centre" as a political party, they hate with the utmost intensity a government which does not suffer a foreign authority to interfere with its own, and consequently does not submit to the dictates of Rome. That party, of course, cries out against the oppression of conscience, and is eager to throw obstacles in the way of the Prussian Government. For this purpose the Roman-Catholic priests stir up the worst passions, do not refrain from open rebellion, and try to undermine the roots of the secular authority. Although prompted by other motives, the Social Democrats pursue the same aims, and wish to get rid of all government, while the Roman Catholics only attack it in its present shape. The Roman-Catholic priest is for every German Socialist an unmitigated nuisance; he laughs at the Catholic creed as a poor remnant of mediæval inventions. The

Centre is perfectly conscious of these kind feelings, but ignores them for the more practical purpose of gaining the Social-Democratic votes to its side in close elections and of occasionally using them against the liberal parties. In the Reichstag they often vote together in advocating or rejecting, in the name of liberty, motions or measures brought in by the Government and sustained by the other parties. On the politico-economical field Catholics and Socialists are both strong Protectionists. While the Centre wants to return to the "sound old protective policy," which, however, has never existed in Germany, the Social Democrats promise to protect national labor and exclaim against the Manchester school, the "laissez-faire et laissez-aller" economists, who have likewise never existed in Germany, or at least never exercised any influence on her commercial policy.

To the credit of the Social Democrats, I must say that they have never concealed their hatred and contempt of the clergy in general and of the Protestant ministers in particular. Within a few months only, with great ostentation they availed themselves in Berlin of the law which allows every Protestant to leave the established church. Thus hundreds, men and women, publicly declared their withdrawal from all communion with the church. The Protestant clergy became alarmed, and tried to avert the impending danger by an agitation among the workingmen themselves. Animated by a deadly hatred against liberalism, they hoped to kill two birds with one stone, in not only weakening the ranks of the Liberal party but also winning over to their side a considerable number of their Social-Democratic enemies. They thus formed the new "Social-Christian Party," under the leadership of the court preacher, Stoecker; held meetings in all parts of the city and edited a paper of their own, the *State-Socialist*. One of its chief contributors is a Mr. Todt. He has travestied Louis Blanc's 'Organization of Labor' into a pious pamphlet, and says, in one of his articles: "The present fight for competition (*Konkurrenzkampf*) is nothing but a system of expropriations scarcely veiled by illusions of property"; or, in other words, as Proudhon more courageously first said, "La propriété c'est le vol." The Communistic harangues of Mr. Todt are, if possible, outdone by Mr. Stoecker, who as bitterly as Marx attacks the present method of production, unqualifiedly abuses capital and the middle classes, denounces "Jews" and usurers, and, on account of his prominent official and social position, does more to confound the minds of the people than the most reckless Social-Democratic agitator could possibly do. The great criminal Hödel, just sentenced to death, was one of the most active members of Stoecker's sect. In one of the electioneering pamphlets of the Social Christians I find the following words:

"What, then, are the means with which the members of other parties promise to help you? They threaten you with loss of work if you freely confess your convictions, if you read independent papers, and if you strive for freedom and justice. The men who call themselves friends of the people threaten you with starvation in order to make you vote in their interest. You must work day by day for scanty wages to enrich these men, to enable them to drive in elegant carriages, to adorn their women with fine silk dresses and jewelry, and to send them to fashionable watering-places, while you have not your daily bread for yourselves and your families. Not even satisfied that your bodily misery establishes their fortunes and riches, they also try to suppress your moral wants, and would turn you into hypocrites, in prescribing to you what to think and to say, as though you were their slaves."

The Catheder-Socialists, whom at different times you have characterized in your paper, although mistaken, are men of a scientific turn of mind and do no great practical harm, while the Socialists of the pulpit by their odious agitation exert a far-reaching and pernicious influence on all classes of the people.

The two attempts of Hödel and Nobiling on the life of the Emperor William have too clearly shown the full extent of the evil which in comparatively so short a time has spread all over Germany. Ludwig Bamberger, one of our most celebrated pamphleteers and a member of the Reichstag, in his last published excellent essay, "Deutschland und der Socialismus," says:

"It is quite true that state and society are not bound to look on stoically and passively while every preparation is made for actively beginning the openly threatened war. Did German Social Democrats originate their own theories? Have they not been transmitted and come down to them from the rich and highly cultivated classes? Has not one experiment followed another? Has not lately the Socialism of the Catheder been followed by that of the pulpit? We are all at fault and to blame that Social Democracy has become really and imminently dangerous to us; some of us because they have openly or secretly helped and supported it, others because they have passively and dully looked on. But it is indeed high time that right and wrong should be discriminated, that we may know who stands up for us and who against us, and that we at length cease to be good-natured and credulous, and try to become sober. For in no other state has this mixture of civilization and barbarism spread so far and brought on such ruin and destruction as in Germany. She is the only leading Power in which a Social-Democratic party exists—taking party in the meaning of an organized political association, which publishes its official programme in electing and elected societies, with the aim of sooner or later attaining the leadership in the state and community. France has put down Communism in open street-battle; there is no deputy of the Social Democrats in the Congress of the United States; and Burt and Macdonald, the two representatives of the working-class of the English House of Commons, are far from agreeing with the social views of our propaganda."

To conclude, the Government must deprive the Social Democrats of the means with which they work against its very being and existence; in the interest of public morals and order it must put down the Social-Democratic transgressors. In spite of their peaceful assertions, they are, in fact, a revolutionary party, and can only be subdued as such; for a party which threatens its adversaries with the guillotine, the gallows, and petroleum, which in its songs and papers glorifies the "murder of tyrants" as a highly patriotic deed, cannot complain if those who have the power take up the gauntlet and annihilate the enemy who tries to annihilate them. Germany is as yet not weak, not decrepit enough to be ruined by about a million of her erring sons; but she will only reluctantly arrive at the appreciation of the truth that she must fight a battle for life and death. After the four days of Paris street-fights in June, 1848, after the deportations under the Republic and the Empire, and after the fall of the Commune, France has got rid of her social enemies and conspirators. I hope that Germany may be spared the repetition of the same process, but as yet I don't see any way of conquering such a powerful revolutionary party with peaceful means.

Notes.

THE new volumes of the Revised Edition of the British Poets, by Houghton, Osgood & Co., contain Dryden's works in two volumes, with a life by Mitford; Milton's and Marvell's works bound together in two volumes, to which is prefixed a life of the former by David Masson; and Prior's works in one volume, with a life by Mitford. Numerous corrections have been made, particularly in the Latin and Italian poems of Milton, and probably this is now the best printed text of the works of these authors. From the same firm come the new volumes of Longfellow's 'Poems of Places,' comprising those relating to Asia. They contain many poems difficult of access except in large libraries, and the volume on Palestine is especially choice in its religious selections. One cannot help thinking that a more prominent place has been given to Mr. Nicolas Michell than either his fame as a poet or the value of his verses requires. The same house announce the 'Life of Madame de Rochefoucauld,' and the 'Life of Guido Reni,' by M. F. Sweetser.——G. P. Putnam's Sons have nearly ready Goethe's 'Faust,' in Prof. J. M. Hart's series of "German Classics."——'Memorials of Baroness Bunsen,' by Augustus J. C. Hare, is announced by Geo. Routledge & Sons.——Harper & Brothers will publish 'Ceramic Art,' by Jennie J. Young; 'Scientific Memoirs,' by Dr. John W. Draper; and 'Villages and Village Life,' by Nathaniel H. Egleston.——Robert Clarke & Co. have just completed their edition, translated, edited, and brought down to the present time, of Alzog's 'Church History.' The preparation of these three bulky volumes has occupied six years.——Henry Holt & Co. announce a series of handbooks for students and general readers in science, literature, art, and history. The size will be small 16mo, and the number of pages about 160.——'Thirty Years at Sea,' an autobiography by E. Shippen, U.S.N.; 'The Climate of America: its Influence in Health and Disease,' by Wm. Pepper, M.D.; and 'A Handbook of Nursing,' published under the auspices of the Connecticut Training-School, are in the press of J. B. Lippincott & Co. ——We have received the Report of the Chief Signal-Officer for the year 1877. A glance through it shows the wide extent of the Bureau's observations, from forest fires to the flight of swans and locusts, and even (as part of the regular army) the movements of Indians and of Pittsburgh Communists. In addition to the weather-maps proper there are several interesting charts showing the oscillations in the Ohio, Mississippi, Missouri, Cumberland, Red, and some minor rivers.——A good map of Cyprus accompanies a description of the island in the August number of the *Geographical Magazine*. In No. 75 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Zeitschrift*, besides a review of the Society's half-centenary, by Dr. Koner, there is a discussion by Dr. Kiepert of the population of Epirus, illustrated by a large and serviceable map. Dr. Kiepert

concludes that a rectification of the frontier of Greece in this direction, on ethnographical and religious lines, would call for two-thirds of Epirus. ——The quarterly statement for July of the Palestine Exploration Fund (England) announces the probable completion early next year of a large and a reduced map of the region explored, and recommends immediate examination (by excavation if necessary) of the shores of the Sea of Galilee in order to determine the chief places there situated.—— Richard Josey's mezzotint after Whistler's full-length, life-size picture of Thomas Carlyle, will measure 14 in. by 12 in. Subscriptions should be made through Charles A. Howell, Chaldon House, Fulham, S. W., London, at the rates of £3 3*s.* for signed artist's proofs, £2 2*s.* for lettered proofs, and £1 1*s.* for prints.——The third edition of Dr. F. H. Stratmann's 'Dictionary of the Old English Language,' compiled from writings of the twelfth, thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries, and much improved and enlarged, will be sent on application to the author at 6 Karlsplatz, Crefeld, Germany, to any address for twenty-one marks (equal to twenty-one shillings), post-paid. This offer holds good only to the first of October, when the book will go to the trade, with the probable result of doubling the price.——A. Vaniček has now added to his 'Græco-Latin Etymological Dictionary' (the appearance of which was noted early this year in the *Nation*) the small supplement (84 pp.), published separately and containing the words of foreign origin in Greek and Latin, thus fulfilling the promise made in his preface. This useful work, although prepared by one disclaiming in any sense the character of a master in comparative philology, furnishes, in the briefest possible space, a most valuable etymological classification of the vocabulary of the two classical tongues, and a record of etymologies proposed by the masters of that science.

—On the 11th of September will be published in this city the first number of a fortnightly household journal called the *Art Interchange*, whose object, briefly stated, is to promote the efficiency of the Society of Decorative Art "by advertising its methods and assisting its efforts to educate taste for art." It will consist of eight pages, the size of the *Nation*, and be sent to subscribers for $1 25 per annum. It will be conducted under the supervision of a board appointed by the Society, but the Society does not undertake the pecuniary responsibility of the enterprise, to the success of which a thousand subscribers are deemed necessary. Practical information in regard to art processes, notes and queries, and brief criticisms and literary reviews are promised, and some of our leading connoisseurs, collectors, artists, and art-critics are announced as among the probable contributors. All communications should be addressed to the *Art Interchange* at the rooms of the Society, 34 East Nineteenth Street, where also further information may be had verbally.

—The September *Atlantic* has more solid matter than is usual in summer numbers. "American Finances from 1789 to 1835," by John Watts Kearney, is an excellent résumé of the first part of that period, and contains a collection of important facts, not often found together, in an instructive and lucid form. It is of special value now, as are also the few pages on 'Primitive Communism' in criticism of M. Laveleye's theories, although they are dismissed with perhaps too much assurance. "Pope's Virginia Campaign and Porter's Part in It" and "Additional Accompaniments to Bach's and Handel's Scores" are of permanent value, but the latter will not be easily understood by any who are not to a degree specialists in music. Mr. T. S. Perry reviews entertainingly "Some French Novels," and with no little discrimination, particularly in the case of "Henri Gréville," who has lately attracted much attention and whose novels are being rapidly translated. The poem by Whittier is in his strongest spirit, and that by Dr. Holmes has great tenderness; these, with the third instalment of Mr. James's 'Europeans,' make the number of more than usual interest. We commend to all young aspirants for literary fame the remarkable story of an eight-years' literary career in New York by a writer in the Contributors' Club.

—Three papers in *Lippincott's* for September will well repay reading, namely, "An English Teacher in the United States," by D. C. Macdonald; Arthur Venner's "Personal Sketches of Some French Littérateurs"; and "The Boy on a Hill-Farm," by Mary Dean. Mr. Macdonald's frank account of his experience is certainly more favorable to the aptitude and instincts of our school youth than it is to the system in which they are brought up. He does not highly esteem our school agencies, or our practice of marking, or our examinations from within instead of from without. But on the whole the teacher's position is more agreeable, even if less remunerative, than in England. In the matter of discipline, at least, he "would rather manage a class of twenty American boys than of twenty English," for he would be sure of being respected without being feared, and according to his desert. He has found among American children "a more genuine, spontaneous sentiment of regard for their teachers than either in England or Scotland—a sentiment utterly free from the cringing submissiveness which too often passes muster in England as a juvenile virtue." On the other hand, he would rather have an uneducated young Englishwoman for a pupil than the more refined, ladylike, tastefully-dressed American girl equally untaught. From the former he would, as a private tutor, get greater application and concentration than from the latter, with her "impatience of sustained, systematic work, combined with—or rather caused by—her devotion to social pleasures," which nothing could induce her to forego. This he found the defective trait of the American character, especially of the women—"a want of repose." Mr. Venner appears to have met socially MM. About, Taine, Feuillet, André Theuriet, and perhaps Turgeneff, as well as "Henri Gréville" (Mme. Émile Durand). He has a number of good anecdotes about all of these, one from About's own lips telling how he induced M. Hachette to send Taine to the Pyrenees for his health and a book. Of Turgeneff and his incessant benevolence Mme. Gréville declared: "He is a saint, a nineteenth-century saint." Thorough knowledge, keen sympathy, and abundant humor have contributed to "The Boy on a Hill-Farm," likewise admirable for its literary form. We give a sample of it:

"Melvine, a great horse-breeder, one day took sides in a quarrel between a horse and its master, fought the man for abusing his horse—fought him hard and long: 'twas 't'other and which' with them for a while. 'I wouldn't have done it,' said his neighbor, Squire Greffern: 'I wouldn't have fought the man. I'd have reasoned with him kindly. I'd have said, 'See here, now, this horse isn't to blame: he an't human,' says I, 'and you ought not to abuse him,' says I. And says I, 'You ought to know better than to hurt a horse: it injures him,' says I. 'He has more sense than you have' (getting excited). 'You deserve to be licked yourself, by hoky! Why, Gosh Almighty! get out, or I'll thrash the daylights out of your darned rotten hide!' So ended the squire's reproof."

—There is an article on "Western Farm Life" in the September *Scribner's*, not so good as that on New England farm-life in the previous number, and not equal in imagination or poetic feeling to Miss Dean's in *Lippincott's*. A pretty strictly guide-book description of the Engadine is contributed by General McClellan; and there is hardly anything else to single out for mention except Dr. Morton's second and concluding paper on the South African diamond fields. This deals no longer with the process of digging, but takes us among the buyers and the brokers, and lets us into the mysteries of color—"white, Cape white, bye water, off color, and yellow." But for the fashionable prejudice against yellow, everybody's desire for diamonds might be satisfied at a moderate cost. The reserved store of them is already enormous, but, Dr. Morton declares, "they never can recover their lost prestige." Diamond-cutting is so far advanced in the United States that "the cleaning, cutting, and polishing of the rough stone can now be done as well here as abroad, or (as I believe, judging by results and from the testimony of experts) better." Noticeable among the illustrations this month are Cole's engraving of W. M. Chase's interesting painting, "Ready for the Ride," exhibited last winter by the Society of American Artists, and the head of fawn of mule-deer engraved by Müller after W. M. Cary.

—Dr. Robert Tomes has in *Harper's* a readable article on "Reformed Wiesbaden," very plentifully illustrated, chiefly from photographs; the portraits being noticeably faithful, and including, if one is somewhat tired of the Emperor and Bismark and the princesses, a likeness of Fresenius, the chemist (not *Frisenius*, as the proof-reader twice has it on p. 511, nor *bon chevaliers*, as four times on p. 526, nor *Quil dommage*, as on p. 537), and the poet Von Bodenstedt ("Mirza Schaffy"). Dr. Tomes gives a bad account of the sanitary condition of this health-resort:

"There are stagnant and festering cesspools in the rear of every house, reeking with foul odors and poisonous emanations, which must more than overbalance, in the production of diseases, the remedial effect of all the boasted remedies of this *Kurstadt* for their cure. Typhoid, scarlet, and other pestilential fevers are necessarily indigenous to Wiesbaden, as to most of the Continental towns of Europe."

Another charming region, of doubtful salubrity, is described by Mr. W. H. Rideing, in his "Spring Jaunt to Staten Island," which has a timely interest in recalling the anti-quarantine mob of 1858, that grew out of the spread of yellow fever through the island in consequence of the hospitals then established there. Mr Rideing makes the most of the antiquarian curiosities of the island, and of the incidents of a trip so near New York. In his Easy Chair, Mr. Curtis pays an appreciative and intimate tribute to the worth of the late Mrs. Sarah Helen Whitman, of

Providence, once the *fiancée* of Poe, and all her life prominent in the literary circles of a city which has never cultivated literature very assiduously since the days of "the Coliseum." Mr. Curtis, being a Rhode-Islander, speaks whereof he knows, and we should be glad to find him hereafter discussing the causes of the intellectual obscurity of Providence since the days of Dr. Wayland and Dr. Hedge.

—The name of the late Mr. Evert Augustus Duyckinck has been so long before the public that his death at the age of only 62 is almost a matter of surprise. His literary activity as a maker of books extended into the present decade, but it began with journalism as far back as 1840, so that he connected in his own person the Knickerbocker period with that in which we now live, but to which a name has yet to be given. He was in 1840 the founder, and for two years one of the conductors, of a monthly magazine called *Arcturus;* in 1847 he and his younger brother, the late George Long Duyckinck, undertook the *Literary World*, a weekly journal of literature and criticism, which lasted till the close of 1853. The two brothers continued their literary partnership by compiling the 'Cyclopædia of American Literature,' a work for which Griswold and some other poetical editors had partially paved the way, without, however, detracting from its original and laborious character. This Cyclopædia, which has lately been put anew upon the market with extensive additions, will always be valuable for its collection of facts and of extracts, but, as with most works of the kind, its comprehensiveness outweighs its critical worth. Mr. Duyckinck's 'History of the War for the Union' (1861–1865), and 'History of the World from the Earliest Period to the Present Time' (1870), are works of which little is now heard, and in the nature of the case less will be; still other works, original or compiled, would have to be mentioned if we were making an exhaustive catalogue of his productions. Mr. Duyckinck was a man of very amiable character, and wholly free from pedantry or conceit.

—Perhaps no literary reputation was ever attended by so perverse a fate as that of the poet Shelley. He lived amid continual family quarrels, and he seems to have bequeathed them to his friends after him. There is much that is trivial in the present passage-at-arms between Mr. Garnett and Mr. Trelawney, relative to the recent publication of the latter's *Recollections*. In the last *Athenæum* he replies to Mr. Garnett's article to the *Fortnightly* with a denial of most of Mr. Garnett's facts. He says that the heart of Shelley was refused by Mrs. Shelley, and that the notes to "Queen Mab" were published through his influence and not by Mrs. Shelley's wish, and much else, which those who are interested may read for themselves. What is noteworthy is that he says all this is but "blank cartridges," and he reserves his "ball cartridges for a last resort." What may be behind this is doubtful; but if he has any undivulged information about Shelley surely the time has come when the whole story may be told. We have been waiting and waiting now many years for the promised publication of the secret documents belonging to the Shelley family. This continued revelation of the existence of important secrets is disheartening. Let Mr. Trelawney and all others be commanded by some power either to speak out or else for ever to hold their peace. The poet they loved would be most honored and best served by absolute candor in their account of him.

—The British Museum, it is said, has lately received the fossil remains of three or four species of pigmy elephants, found in Malta, one of them belonging to an animal only three feet high. The abundance of such remains shows that this was the normal size of the animal. Those who put to scorn Marsh's and Huxley's genealogy of the horse, on account of the small size of the orohippus, may now contemplate an equal disparity between fossil and existing species of the very same genus.

—A correspondent ("R. B.") of the London *Times* forwards some curious and original observations respecting "Life at High Altitudes." In Potosi, Bolivia, situated at a height of 13,300 feet above the sea-level, children are generally born dead or blind; and at still higher elevations, even those long accustomed to the rarefied air of the higher Andes are liable to be attacked by a peculiar sickness locally known as the "Zoroche" or "Puna," occasioned by suddenly ascending from the *valle*, or lowlands, to the *puna*, or uplands. The symptoms are giddiness and vomiting. Mules and other beasts of burden suffer sometimes, and many die. Fatal cases happen now and then owing to the persons attacked not sitting down and resting. The Indians eat snow, but the usual remedy is to smell ammonia or garlic. Those ascending into the uplands of Bolivia from the eastern side of the Andes are not so often affected by the "Zoroche," owing to the fact that the slope from the Argentine Republic is much more gradual than that from Peru.

—Dr. A. H. Wratislaw, head-master of the Grammar School of Bury St. Edmund's—well known for his writings upon Bohemian history—has published a series of four lectures, delivered at Oxford, on the "Ilchester Foundation," upon 'The Native Literature of Bohemia in the Fourteenth Century.' It is a welcome and interesting work; nevertheless, we think it might have been made much better, if the author had held more constantly and distinctly in mind that the one aspect of his subject which has a universal interest is that it prepared the way for the Hussite movement of the century following. This movement is one of the great and astonishing facts of history, and Dr. Wratislaw well points out that it would have been impossible but for a high state of culture and education for it to take root in. The sketch and specimens of the literature are valuable in this view. But what we miss—and what belongs to a history of literature in the highest sense of the term—is such a description of life and society as to show clearly the relation of the works of literature to the people and nation. Did this literature, for example, in any way touch the mass of the peasantry, or was it wholly the production of the higher classes? On this depends largely the national character of the literature. Again, it could not lie in the author's plan to treat at length of Matthias of Janow and other Latin writers; still, some sketch of the great series of religious reformers of the last half of the century—Arnest of Pardubicz, Conrad Waldhauser, Milicz of Kremsier, and Matthias of Janow—was needed, not only because they were the forerunners of Huss, but because the native Cech writer, Thomas of Stitny, who forms the subject of the last lecture, was in a certain sense their disciple.

RECENT NOVELS.*

'BLUFFTON' is one of many books of the same kind that are to be written, and the public who see in it a partial description of what the public thoughts and speculations are and have been, will be grateful if the books that are to come are as good-humored, as sincere, and no more inconclusive than this one. The story is simple and will be enacted hundreds of times in the next twenty years. The Rev. Mark Trafton goes from the East to take charge of a church in the West. He has no doubt of the orthodoxy of his creed or of the firmness of his belief; and full of hope and youth he means to live his life straight out in the place where his work is appointed. At first he is eminently successful. The sermons which come from his heart touch the hearts of his hearers. He finds the one woman for him; she accepts his offer, and life looks full of the best and happiest promises. Gradually he is found less than orthodox. A council is called to consider his heresies, and before it assembles, questions as to his personal character and the purity of his life furnish farther food for enquiry. These, of course, are triumphantly vindicated, but his misbeliefs are manifest, and his lady-love counts him an infidel and refuses to break her father's heart by marrying him. So far all is natural and coherent. We do not for itself covet long life, but we should like to live long enough to see a novel which should take up its personages at this point and describe a natural experience; should allow its hero to stand for the truth and to take all the consequences of his stand; should let us see the every-day workings of heroism in ordinary life, and should vindicate rectitude and manliness so far as not to show that all the good gifts of this world are required to make them barely tolerable. As we write we confess our too great *exigence*, remembering Job's fourteen thousand sheep and six thousand camels, etc., etc., as well as his second wife and handsome family of daughters. The tendency must be strong in the race, and Job's she-asses and yokes of oxen are here represented by travels in Europe for Mr. Trafton, after which he meets his former love in a summer-house in a gentleman's place in California. They make it up at once; her father is dead—we believe he left a competent fortune—and soon after Mr. Trafton receives a call from a certain number of people in New York who desire to hear whatever he may have to say, and with this nimbus neatly fitted round his head the book closes, and has not, we think, attempted a solution of even one of the problems which cluster about its opening.

'Landolin' is a disagreeable little book, such as Auerbach frequently writes. No doubt the very fairest aspects of nature are disfigured by the evil passions of men, but Auerbach sets forth all their hateful qualities with such vigor that the external peace and beauty half disappear, and lose all their power to soothe and reconcile the wearied onlooker.

As we approach Mr. James's book we feel like Lady Clonbrony (a

* 'Bluffton: A Story of To-day. By M. J. Savage.' Boston: Lee & Shepard. 'Landolin. By Berthold Auerbach. Translated by Annie B. Irish.' (Leisure Hour Series.) New York: Henry Holt & Co. 'Watch and Ward. By Henry James, Jr.' Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1878.

character in Miss Edgeworth's charming story 'The Absentee'), who, whenever she had occasion to pronounce one abhorred word, puckered her lips together and spoke in the lowest possible voice. We infer that Mr. James's careful revision of 'Watch and Ward' means endorsement of the story as it stands, and Mr. James holds too high a place for anything which he deliberately acknowledges to be slightly regarded. The story is the old one of a man who proposes, or in this case falls into the plan of, educating a wife for himself. The hero, Roger Lawrence, appears first upon the scene in the uncomfortable attitude of renewing an offer which he does not expect will be accepted. Mr. Emerson says, "All men love a lover," but this sentiment does not avail against the self-consciousness, the petty awkwardness, the small *disgrazie* which Mr. James heaps on his unlovely hero. There is an intolerable deliberateness about him—we should like to have him tumble in the mud for the sake of hearing him swear—and he takes his rejection home with him as if it were a parcel that he had called for. He stumbles on a collapsed rascal who shoots himself soon after, and Roger adopts the child he leaves behind him and carries her home with him, accidentally as it were. Then appears the alternative part of the hero's character—a fussy, dilatory elaborateness. Fears of inherited disposition hardly trouble him, and the girl invincibly grows up through experiments made upon her week by week. Roger is at first equally afraid that she should love him and that she should not love him, and, though always kind, prods her every now and then to ascertain what state she has reached. A seedy, insolvent, coarse cousin of Nora's makes them a visit, makes half-love to Nora, and tries to pose as her "natural protector" and borrow money. This all seems quite right to the young lady, and soon after arrives a cousin of Roger's—a smooth-tongued, worldly-minded clergyman—who laughs at Roger, and, although himself under bonds to be married, tries his hand at making a self-pleasing kind of love to Nora. In due season Roger sends Nora to Europe under the charge of his former love, now a comfortable widow. She returns, a charming young lady, to find Roger ill with fever, and when he gets better he suddenly finds himself "in love" with Nora. His self-gratulations irresistibly remind us of an old story where a shrewd testator leaves his fortune to that one of his heirs who soonest weeps after the condition is known. One of them industriously recalls all the sorrowful circumstances of his life, dwells on the disappointment he will feel if unsuccessful, and presently starts up, presenting a complacent countenance to the company, and says: "To the best of my belief, I am shedding tears"; allowing two large ones to stream down his cheeks. So Roger; but in spite of his self-content, he offers himself to Nora in such an awkward and mean-spirited manner that acceptance is impossible, though it seems hardly necessary for Nora to run away that night to New York, intending to throw herself on her cousin's "protection." The description of the city in the early morning is the best thing in the book. Mr. James's Balzac-like detail tells at every stroke. Nora hears her chosen friend described as a swindler by his partner in business, but clings to him when he frowsily appears, and goes with him to the house where he lives in unquestionable relations with a coarse woman. Nora's dormant sensibilities are roused by a fear of being imprisoned in the house, and she runs away again, this time to the clerical cousin. She finds him in his study with his future wife and her mother. The young lady is of an enquiring mind, and finally becomes so insulting that Nora walks out of the house, meets Roger in the next street, throws herself into his arms, and they both live happy for ever after. Here comes in Lady Clonbrony. We diminish our voice to the uttermost, we roar like any sucking-dove, but we must say this is—vulgar. What woman with any instincts would go through such an experience? What man of any delicacy would want her if she did? There is infinite care expended on the making of unlovely, unreal creatures. Even the cousins might be labelled Mr. Facing-both-ways and Mr. Given-to-this-world without losing anything individual. Bunyan's allegorical beings seem alive while these people, who have the name of living, have a most allegorical thinness and limitation of existence. We cannot see what end Mr. James proposed to himself in this book. An interesting book may be written about uninteresting people, but it is by illustrating in them some touch of nature that makes the whole world kin, or by analysis that searches below every veil of circumstance and at last draws blood; but in 'Watch and Ward' we desire to keep all mantles decorously drawn and folded, lest by lifting one we see the wooden limbs and the strings whereby they are jerked. It is unnecessary for us to expatiate on Mr. James's good gifts—they are known of all men, and criticism is itself an acknowledgment of them; but when his works are brought out in "blue-and-gold," or in any form or hue, we trust that but small space will be allotted to 'Watch and Ward.'

'Pillone' is a charming story. The bandit of our childhood reappears in the most gorgeous costume, with underground passages leading in every direction, a purse full of unset jewels, and all proper apparatus. We had forgotten what a delightful creature he is; how he deceives and outwits the stupid police, whom we feel to be our natural enemies; by what feats of strength, when necessary, he transcends all their foolish combinations; how he blows up old castles in a trice; and, when luck goes against him, how naturally he takes refuge in the crater of Vesuvius and there bides his time. There is nobody like him, and when the story is threaded together with telegraph lines, railroad trains, and modern politics, the effect on our nerves is doubled.

There is something unintentionally pathetic about 'Poganuc People.' A writer whose words have stirred a nation should be hindered, we think, by a sense of fitness from publishing these cheerful, jog-trot, sweet-cider sort of lucubrations. For New England people there must be in Mrs. Stowe's books of this sort a homely "woodsy" flavor which has its charm, but the rest of mankind must be profoundly tired of the clergymen and their families, the pine clearings, the doughnuts, the cake, the gossiping parishioners, the village beaux and belles, which have been so often described. They represented, no doubt, a peculiar and somewhat interesting form of society, but enough has been done about them; now let us say, "Peace to their ashes," and go home quietly.

'Six to One: A Nantucket Idyl' is as bright as any one could wish. The One is a broken-down New York editor who goes to Nantucket to recruit; the Six are the maidens unto whose mercies he falls, and they begin his torture by promising one another not to hold any private tête-à-têtes with him. Nevertheless, the end is seen from the beginning. Two of them fall in love with him, and he falls in love with only one, the gentlest and shyest of all, whose pleasures and emotions have hitherto been associated only with the sea. This life-long, intimate inweaving of her moods with the changing ocean-view makes the transition to a life centred in human relations a difficult experience, and the conflict is the most refined conception in the book, and is pleasing until the *dénouement* comes. The editor has already been once rejected by Addie—that is the heroine's name—and it was no wonder, since his proposal is said to have affected her heart "as a match touched to a hidden mine suddenly brings a fort about the ears of its unsuspecting defenders." But one day the party goes to bathe, and Addie is caught in the undertow, and her lover, swimming out to her, cannot save her life, but enjoys an undisturbed tête-à-tête as follows:

"'The sea and I have fought for you, my darling, but the sea has won you!'

"'No,' she whispered, amid the weltering of the waves, and opened to him the seventh heaven of her eyes; 'you have won me!'

"In spite of shivering limbs and trembling muscles, her words had power to fill him with a delicious warmth. . . .

"'When we sink, hold me fast,' she whispered, 'and the sea shall not after all come between us.'

"For the first time, then, he pressed the thousand-times-dreamed-of kiss on her cold blue lips, while his eyes kissed hers, and the angry waves in vain sought to sunder their betrothal embrace. . . . She was seemingly asleep upon his shoulder, and his thoughts were far away, floating in the unearthly dream of a spirit about to be disembodied. Was not this as good a time to give up and sink as any? His poor legs deserved a rest."

It is needless to say that his legs did not get their deserts, but were mercilessly put into a boat. Except for some melodrama and extremely bad taste like this, and some remarkable sallies of wit, as when the hero says: "If Descartes had visited Nantucket, instead of '*Cogito, ergo sum*,' he would have said, 'I have eaten a soft-shell, *ergo sum*'"—a sentence which must have sorely puzzled these dear creatures, who had presumably never heard of the Harvard Examinations for Women—the book has much merit, and may well while away a couple of indolent hours by the sea.

Not so lightly, however, should we take the 'Tritons' in hand; whoever opens this volume must prepare his soul beforehand. The chaff about pottery and the somewhat disagreeable humor of the low characters do not make up for the superfluous tragedy of which this new novel, like the author's previous 'Nimport,' is full. Surely a deserted mother who was never wife, a natural son suddenly awakened from a dream of wealth

'Pillone. From the Danish of Wilhelm Bergsöe. By D. G. Hubbard.' (Wayside Series.) Boston: Lockwood, Brooks & Co. 1878.

'Poganuc People, their Loves and Lives. By Harriet Beecher Stowe.' New York: Fords, Howard & Hulburt.

'Six to One: A Nantucket Idyl.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1878.

'Tritons: A Novel. By Edwin Lasseter Bynner.' Boston: Lockwood, Brooks & Co. 1878.

and social position to find himself without known kin in the world, despairing of winning the maiden he loves, yet striving to build up for himself a character which would be worthy of her affection, going into distant lands to seek his fortune and returning to find hope quenched within him—all this is warp and woof for pictures of sufficient pain without the accessories of burning theatres, flame-swept woods, falls from precipices and mangled limbs. When we remember, however, how providential it was that the hero was not killed outright, how easily his shoulder might have been dislocated and his other ankle put out of joint, to say nothing of a few broken ribs, we begin to be thankful to the author for his self-restraint. Mere physical misfortune obscures the tragedy of such a story instead of deepening it. The author has sufficent power in delineating strong character, sufficient sympathy with the sad side of life, sufficient graceful sentiment, to allow him to dispense with the sensational. He makes the incidents bear too severe a strain of consequences sometimes, and the 'prentice hand appears in the way in which everything happens at the right time, and all the events dovetail with mechanical precision.

In 'Maid Ellice,' on the other hand, all this is reversed; everything happens at the wrong time, as is the case sometimes in life, and there is no tragedy not essential to the story. Maid Ellice is herself a charming creation, and one might go far without finding a pleasanter and more real picture of English country life. The quiet home, the eccentric and strong-hearted squire, the manly Oxford lad, the morbid discontent of the sister combine into a perfectly natural group, and the story is told with great power. It portrays simple and strong character which may be enjoyed apart from the dark plot that finally involves it, and out of whose shadow it at length emerges more admirable. We commend it to our readers.

The Structure and Habits of Spiders. By J. H. Emerton. The American Natural History Series, II. (Salem, Mass.: The Naturalist's Agency. 1878. 12mo, cloth, pp. 118, 67 figures.)—As stated in the preface, the object of this book is "to give a plain account of the best-known habits of spiders, and as much of their anatomy and classification as is necessary to understand these habits." We must admit that this object has been fairly accomplished in this the first American introduction to the study of spiders. It is not, strictly speaking, the first book upon the subject issued in this country, for the Boston Society of Natural History has republished the papers of Nicholas Marcellus Hentz, in a volume the editing of which was ably done by the author of the present work. But Hentz's descriptions and figures are mainly of a technical character, and refer but slightly to the habits of spiders.

The book opens with a description of the structure of spiders. Then follow brief characterizations of the ten great families which include the vast majority of species. A few pages are devoted to the feeding habits. The stories of serious injury and death resulting from spider-bites are dismissed as improbable, but, as it seems to us, rather hastily, and without sufficient recognition of the likelihood that there is among spiders a difference in respect to the venomous nature of the poison similar to what exists among serpents. Certainly the "hunting" or "jumping" spiders which make no nets are far more to be dreaded than the bulkier forms which depend chiefly upon their snares for securing their prey. This is a part of the subject in which people take a very direct and personal interest, and we wish our author had not contented himself with mentioning the experiments of a few observers upon foreign spiders.

Since the spider is, etymologically, the *spinner*, we are not surprised that nearly one-half of the book is devoted to the nets, and the organs by which they are produced. Our author's description of the way in which the net of the "garden spiders" is begun does not agree with the account by Miss Staveley—whose excellent little work, 'British Spiders,' by the way, is not mentioned. Perhaps the species of Epeiridæ vary in this respect, or pursue different methods upon different occasions.

The section upon "Trap-door Spiders" is very interesting, but, as our author states, is wholly compiled from accounts of foreign forms. Could not our Californian species be brought to the East, so that its habits could be observed? Our author does not allude to the two holes near the edge of the lid into which the spider is said to fix her hinder claws as she descends, so as to hold it against intrusion.

The remarkable habits of the English water-spiders are next described, but we are left in doubt as to the existence of any American forms with similar modes of life. Nor is the peculiar, but not uncommon, Tetragnatha of this country alluded to. Among the more commonly-known nets described one of the most elegant is the dome made by Linyphia marmorata, and the figure of it is a capital specimen of Mr. Emerton's skill.

The chapter on the growth of spiders embraces the largest amount of original matter, and many of the figures are not only excellent but of great scientific value. We say *scientific*, because several of them, representing the meeting of different species for the purpose of fertilizing the eggs, seem to us quite out of place in the present volume, while eminently deserving to appear in the publications of some learned society, as contributions toward the elucidation of a confessedly obscure point in the economy of spiders.

The numerous and excellent figures form a most attractive feature of Mr. Emerton's book. Most of them have been drawn by the author (whose skill as an artist-naturalist is widely known), and nearly all illustrate the form, the structure, or the habits of native spiders. The full-page representations of the garden spider (figures 1, 4, and 5) are especially useful in understanding the text, although we think a larger species would have afforded greater facilities to the beginning student, and a cross-section of the thorax would have rendered more intelligible the account of the peculiar sucking stomach. The figures are, in the main, accurate, but our author must be aware that no garden spider ever makes a perfectly vertical net, such as is implied in figure 55. The usefulness of the illustrations would be increased by an explanation under each.

The list of books about spiders might, with very little additional trouble, have been made complete, at least so far as the English language is concerned; but, besides the omissions already mentioned, no reference is made to the papers of Cambridge, who is carrying on Blackwall's labors, to an article on Argiope in *Harper's Monthly* for March, 1867, or to the notes or papers which are to be found in nearly every number of the *American Naturalist*, where, by the way, appeared our author's first spider paper. Finally, much interesting matter on the habits of spiders is contained in Kirby and Spence, and Wood's 'Homes without Hands.'

Upon the whole, in view of what we had been led to expect from our author's powers and opportunities, the impression left upon us is that of disappointment at the smallness of the book and the meagreness of original statement. But we hope that such substantial encouragement may be received as shall lead to the publication of a work upon American spiders more nearly commensurate with the extent of the subject, the ability of the author, and the price of the volume. The most useful preparation for such a work would be an exhaustive monograph upon the structure, the habits, and the development of some large and common American species, and for such an undertaking we believe our author to be eminently qualified.

The Graveyards of Boston. Vol. I., Copp's Hill Epitaphs. Prepared for publication by William H. Whitmore. (Albany: Joel Munsell. 1878.)—The burying-ground at Copp's Hill, though second of Boston's six in antiquity, dating from 1660, did not attain its full limits till 1819, and it is, therefore, not so very long since it fell into disuse. In 1852 an incomplete and too careless transcript was made and published by the late Thomas Bridgman, from the "Inscriptions, Epitaphs, and Records on the Monuments and Tombstones" in the cemetery. The present editor, Mr. Whitmore, employed the late Thomas B. Wyman, jr., to make a fresh transcript from the stones, with constant comparisons with Bridgman, and we have the result in the volume before us, a work which has been a labor of love to all parties concerned in bringing it out, and especially to the publisher, already accustomed, in this line of literary adventure, to look for an adequate reward in another and a better world. A preface exposing the shortcomings of Mr. Bridgman, an introduction giving the history of the ground and, with the aid of the town records, of particular tombs; and engravings of nine coats-of-arms copied from such stones as bear them, precede some 2,000 inscriptions in numerical order, and these, with a very copious index, conclude the book.

From an historic point of view, the Mathers, who head the list, the Hutchinsons, and Christopher Gore, outrank all who lie beside them; but the genealogist, mindful of human vicissitudes, finds their chief distinction to consist in the facility with which their descendants can be traced, and prizes this record neither more nor less because their names are included in it. In spite of considerable diversity in the form of the epitaphs, they mostly agree in being brief and to the point. The graveyard muse is slighted by the editor and, as a rule, reduced to brackets, thus: "[14 lines of verse]," and those who turn to this volume for obituary amusement will be disappointed. Still, not all the quaintness is suppressed, nor

'Maid Ellice: A Novel. By Thee. Gift.' New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1878.

all the vanity. Here is a gallant major who "Died in the Calms of domestic Felicity as becomes a universal Christian"; there a Revolutionary merchant "lies buried in a Stone Grave 10 feet deep"; here we must mourn a physician of "dignified Deportment, sublime eloquence, unbounded Philanthropy and other virtues"; of a Prussian homeward bound from the West Indies, "It may with truth be said of this worthy stranger, in his life he was an example of goodness and greatness of mind rarely to be met with, and died the Death of the Righteous Man"; "Brother Sextons," entreats the husband of Betsy D. ("She was the mother of 17 children; and around her lie 12 of them; and 2 were lost at sea"), "Brother Sextons, Please to leave a clear birth [*sic*] for me near by this stone"; further on "lyes the mortal part" of "A Despiser of Sorry Persons and Little Actions, An Enemy to Priestcraft and Enthusiasm, Ready to relieve and help the Wretched, A Lover of good Men of Various Denominations, and a Reverent Worshipper of the Deity"; and "In fine," to conclude with another major's eulogium, "could extensive virtue worth Rescue from the tomb, Reader, thou hadst not been told Here lies Ruddock."

Mr. Whitmore not only hopes that the American ancestor-worship will help Mr. Munsell off with this volume without loss, but he lets it be known that Mr. Wyman's transcripts from the other Boston graveyards are in his keeping, and only await the public demand to be likewise put into print, and so permanently preserved. We are decidedly of opinion that such unmercenary expectations ought to be gratified, and such public spirit in editor and publisher acknowledged in the only way in which it can be.

From Egypt to Japan. By Henry M. Field, D.D. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 1877.)—This second volume of Dr. Field's travels around the world will please any one who has the leisure to read it through, for its style is both facile and lucid. The author has had the good sense to select for comment those subjects only which especially interested himself, and therefore he interests his readers. The chief drawback of the book is its occasional introduction of inappropriate Scripture quotations. One instance of this occurs at the very outset. What analogy, we would ask, is there between Dr. Field's safe landing at Alexandria and St. Paul's shipwreck at Malta sufficient to justify him in detaining his readers to hear the quotation "on boards or broken pieces of the ship"? Again, in the concluding chapter, where his departure from Japan was emphasized by the presence of some American friends, he introduces a comparison with Paul's famous embarkation at Miletus. Even supposing that these two journeys were of equal importance to the world, is it becoming in the author to intimate this, particularly considering the theological importance which he professes to attach to the movements of the apostle? There are fewer of these blemishes, however, than in the previous volume, 'From the Lakes of Killarney to the Golden Horn,' and fewer than in the narrative works of most clergymen, and they are far more than counterbalanced by the uncommon appreciation shown for foreign religions, including Buddhism. The chapter upon the Buddhists (Chinese) is the most interesting of the book. In a chapter entitled "Do missionaries do any good?" he writes (as negative arguments): "There is no greater offence against courtesy, against that mutual concession of perfect freedom which is the first law of all human intercourse, than to interfere wantonly with the opinions—nay, if you please, with the false opinions, with the errors and prejudices of mankind"! And elsewhere: "When a people have become possessed with the idea that they are the people of God, and that others are outcasts, they become insensible to the sufferings of those outside." Surely it is not Japan alone that has been "opened" by trans-Pacific intercourse, but Puritanism as well. In other ways, also, too subtle to be compactly illustrated, but all comprehensible under the characterization of an increased freedom from pretentiousness, this second volume is better adapted than the first to a cosmopolitan market, instead of to the readers of the author's newspaper exclusively.

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Continued from page iv.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 29, 1878.

The Week.

A CONFERENCE, composed of a number of gentlemen calling themselves "Administration Republicans" or "Hayes Republicans," has been held at Saratoga, with the view of urging the State Committee to call the usual nominating convention this fall, which Mr. Conkling had, we believe, forbidden for purposes of his own. A resolution was accordingly passed asking the State Committee to summon the convention "to wisely and temperately consider all the differences of opinion in the party, and adopt such resolutions and measures as will rally its entire vote to the support of its candidate." It was at first supposed that the conference met to organize opposition to Mr. Conkling's re-election, but this purpose the members denied, and no mention, it is said, was made of him or his fortunes during the proceedings. In fact, the object of the meeting is said by its supporters to be simply the promotion of "harmony in the party." It is, however, harmony that gives Mr. Conkling his great advantage over his enemies; or, to speak more correctly, the love of his enemies for harmony enables him always to have his own way. He himself does not care one straw for harmony; he never hesitates to show his contempt for it, and when he shows it, it always frightens his opponents. Every now and then he calls them names and kicks them, and they grow for a minute or two quite red in the face, and seem disposed to resent it, but suddenly recollecting that if they resent it they will destroy the "harmony in the party," they simply rub the part, smile a sickly smile, and go home murmuring, "Harmony, harmony." He now shows his disregard of them by announcing that the State Committee had intended to hold the convention long before the conference met. At the convention there will probably be again some "embittering of sentiment," but we hope it will not all end, as the last one ended, by calling a meeting to eulogize Conkling and his supporters.

A party calling itself "Young Republicans," and composed, we suppose, mainly of the younger men, has been organized in Massachusetts, about the strength of which we suppose little is known, but we presume from the emphasis with which its friends in the Boston press dwell on its "earnestness" and "modesty," and the absence of "applause" and "lofty eloquence" from the meeting, that it is not strong in numbers. It did draw up, however, and adopt an excellent programme and arrange an apparently excellent working organization. The programme calls for redemption of Government notes in gold; the exclusion of office-holders from party management, and Congressmen from control of patronage; takes a serious view of the magnitude of the task of reforming the civil service; condemns attempts to excite sectional hate and distrust; disapproves of all subsidies to business enterprises, and calls for a revision of the State tax laws; and pledges the Convention to a thorough canvass of the State in support of its views.

It is difficult to say what amount of success Butler's canvass for the Massachusetts governorship is likely to meet with, both parties being uncertain as to the exact amount of impression made on their ranks by the Greenback and Labor movement. But there appears to be no doubt that the advent of Kearney and his incautious fraternization with him has greatly damaged the General and probably ruined him with the Republicans, who have very few persons among them who appreciate the plan of "pooling issues" and handing the Government over to the ignorant and cursing portion of the community. Kearney appears to have no programme beyond the hanging of capitalists; but Butler's, as well as can be made out from his New Haven speech, is the payment of the national debt in greenbacks issued for the purpose, and then the "letting the greenbacks go out," like the Continental money of the forefathers. What he would do next does not clearly appear. It is said that his keeping a yacht has so severely weakened the effects of his denunciations of the young coaching men that he has handed her over to his son or some relative to keep till after the election, so that the old patriot will be able "to go before the people" without exposing himself to the charge of inconsistency. One good word must be said for him. He did, as he asserts, advocate repudiation as early as 1869, while he was still in good and regular standing in the party; but no notice was taken of it, in the belief that he would still be very useful in "taking care of Ben Hill."

Senator Thurman's dishonorable desertion from the party of honest money has furnished Secretary Sherman an opportunity to make a public appearance on the side of virtue. His speech to a large Republican gathering at Toledo on Monday night was at most points a satisfactory confutation of Thurman's arguments, but, in the nature of the case, there could from this quarter be no reproaches for tergiversation, and the moral of the Democratic statesman's fall went therefore unpointed. No one knows better than Mr. Sherman how to be foggy when it is not convenient to be clear, and in all his allusions to silver there was a want of candor which sometimes amounted to a perversion of notorious facts. For instance, while the trade-dollar is being refused by the banks of Ohio and Indiana, amid a great popular outcry, and in spite of its being intrinsically worth more than the new legal tender, Mr. Sherman alleges that "four months before the time fixed [for resumption] silver and gold and paper are almost on a par with each other." Yet, speaking of the new silver dollar, he had previously admitted that it was "worth less in the market than the gold or even the paper dollar, and if issued without limit" would "surely depreciate below the gold dollar and become the standard of value." He did not indicate this limit, but allowed any one to infer that the issue might exceed the wants of importers without depreciation. As a bi-metallist he held that both metals can circulate at par with each other, and pointed out the only two ways in which this can happen, namely: by limiting the silver issue, on some principle not stated, or by enlarging the silver coin or diminishing the gold. In default of this, and if the Paris Conference arrives at no practical result, "we shall have to adopt the single standard of silver, like the Chinese and other Asiatic nations."

Mr. Hewitt's Committee has during the past week been examining some of the Sane as to the causes of the existing depression, including Professor Sumner, Mr. Horace White, and Mr. C. F. Adams, jr. But we cannot help considering that this is a waste of the time of the Committee. The gentlemen we have named tell the Committee nothing which they do not or cannot communicate to the public through the press in the form of lectures and articles, and much of what they say, however interesting or instructive, is open, like all economical theories, to dispute, and is disputed. What the Committee ought to do for us is give us first the ideas of the agitating discontented workingmen, or working-class agitators, and this they have done at some but not too great length; and next the facts of the situation in the various branches of industry, without any intermixture of opinion. We doubt very much whether anything can be done towards the solution of the labor problem more useful than the examination by a person like Mr. Hewitt of the crazy fellows who do the talking of the labor movement.

The testimony of Major Burke before the Potter Committee last week was more satisfactory than that of any previous witness. It

was an unembarrassed, frank, and apparently honest statement of what Major Burke knew of the actual course of things in Washington during the electoral count. There is no reason for further doubt that the policy of filibustering in the House was used as an empty threat to extort from Messrs. Garfield, Sherman, and other leaders on the Republican side as definite a pledge of non-intervention in Southern affairs as their regard for "the dignity and prudence of senators" would allow them to give. In respect to the President, it is clear that his pacific views were announced by authority, but it is not believed that any representation of probable difficulties in the count or any guarantees of good conduct given by Southerners contributed in the least to the formation of these views or to the determination to make them the basis of an actual policy. At the most their disclosure at such a time and to such persons was dictated by a desire to remove all unfounded fears which might hinder a peaceable conclusion of the count, and in this there was no impropriety. The efforts of the Southerners, as Major Burke reveals them, were directed not toward binding the President, but his probable influential advisers, such as Messrs. Sherman and Garfield, who, it was feared, would impede and possibly checkmate the President's good intentions. These men were already on record as believing that the election, after personal examination of its history on the spot, was carried by violence and fraud for the Democratic party, and the Southerners desired some assurance that such belief would not operate to unseat the *de facto* governments in South Carolina and Louisiana. Such satisfactory communications they got, although the color of direct bargaining was escaped, and the conditions were executed on both sides. It would be interesting to know what frame of mind is induced in the Ohio statesmen by this declaration of Major Burke, that the threat of filibustering was meaningless and could not have been carried out, so that it is clear that they were tricked into committing themselves to a questionable intrigue, by which their own action was undoubtedly modified, if not reversed, in return for the removal of an empty danger.

Mr. Manton Marble's letter on the Florida electoral count, however valuable it may have been as a testimony to Mr. Tilden's heroic attitude during the crisis, has had the unfortunate result of producing the publication by the *Tribune* of divers telegrams sent by Mr. Marble himself from the scene of action to his aids and supporters in various parts of the country. They are all, or nearly all, in some kind of cipher, and may be harmless as "the chops and tomato sauce" of Mr. Pickwick's note, but somehow there is a strong and ineffaceable impression that the Democratic Visiting Statesmen who went down there were not, any more than the Republican, engaged in urging the local politicians to engage vigorously in the practice of virtue, so that Mr. Marble's telegrams are generally received as covering some new, though doubtless brilliant, species of wickedness. They have led to the republication of the celebrated telegrams from Gramercy Park about the arranging for the purchase of an Oregon elector for a sum which was to be "increasable" if necessary.

Harper's Weekly publishes, as a striking contrast to this, Mr. Hayes's letter of about the same date requesting his friends not to meet Tilden's "violence, intimidation, or fraud by any means that would not bear the strictest scrutiny." Unfortunately, the friends "kept never minding him," and were not troubling their heads about "scrutiny" at all. In fact, the friends of the candidates on both sides seem to have been thoroughly practical men, who postponed the contemplation of the count as a moral phenomenon until after they had finished it, though both doubtless groaned in spirit over the things they had to do to counteract the sinful games of the other fellows. The hesitation of the pure-minded Dennis of Florida as to which was the trickier, and his half-formed determination to punish the Republicans by giving the Presidency to Mr. Tilden, shows how hard it was even for an experienced casuist to distinguish between them.

There has been a very full hearing in Kimpton's case before the attorney-general of Massachusetts, the principal counsel on either side being the present and the ex-attorney-general of South Carolina, Mr. Youmans and Mr. Chamberlain. Mr. Youmans's forensic oratory is of a kind that has not been heard in Massachusetts for many years, not so much because it is Southern as because it marks a period as remote from us as Webster and Benton. He insisted on the imperative character of the Constitutional provision in regard to extradition, and, since there could be no question that Governor Hampton's requisition was formally perfect, he argued that the Governor of Massachusetts had no discretion but to comply with it. In reply to the consideration urged by the other side as a proof of bad faith, that the State really wanted to get hold of Kimpton in order to extort testimony from him that would enable it to repudiate certain of its bonds alleged to be fraudulent, Mr. Youmans showed that the date of requisition-warrants for Kimpton, asked and obtained of the governors of New York and Connecticut last fall, was prior to the appointment of the Bond Commission out of whose report grew the suits in which Kimpton's testimony is considered so important. This point would certainly have had greater weight but for the admission that Kimpton, both before his arrest and after it, had been promised immunity from all suits if he would voluntarily return to South Carolina to testify. Mr. Chamberlain's argument was mainly directed to establishing gubernatorial discretion, and that he succeeded in doing this we think there can be no doubt; but that he furnished any good reason for the exercise of it in Kimpton's behalf we do not perceive. As Attorney-General Train, too, is a good lawyer, the citing, by junior counsel, of Judge Humphreys's ridiculous decision which saved Patterson from extradition must have been an injury to Kimpton instead of a help. Governor Rice has reserved his decision.

The ravages of the yellow fever at the South continue, and the worst does not seem to have been yet reached. At New Orleans new districts are infected, and the number of new cases each day steadily increases; at Vicksburg and Memphis unfavorable weather and the bad sanitary condition of the cities have induced a rapid spread of the disease, and all who have means to do so have fled the country, while at Grenada the story of destitution, misery, and death goes on to the end. A few sporadic cases have appeared here and there in several cities, but, with the exception of a few small villages, no new places have been attacked and there is no further fear. Liberal contributions from the whole country have been sent to the relief organizations, and particularly to the Howard Association, which has the most knowledge of the requirements and the best means of meeting them. Already public interest in the matter as a spreading danger has nearly ceased, and with the first frosts and the return of the inhabitants to the deserted districts doubtless forgetfulness will settle down over the whole community until popular municipal economy in sanitary measures and the neglect and indolence of boards of health will again conspire with an unfavorable season, and the train be laid which the chance arrival of some trader from an infected island will kindle into a blaze of pestilence and wretchedness such as we now see; then the wealth of better-regulated cities will again be called on to contribute for the relief of suffering which local taxation and ordinary vigilance would have been entirely able to prevent.

The Treasury sold enough 4 per cent. bonds during the week to furnish the money with which to redeem another $5,000,000 of 5-20 6 per cents. Since May 1 $70,000,000 of 5-20's have thus been called in for redemption, and the annual interest on this amount of the public debt has been reduced 2 per cent. The advance last week in sterling exchange to the specie-shipping point proved to be of very short duration, and rates are back again to the point where there is no profit either in exporting or importing gold coin. This downward turn is explained by the increase in grain exports and the decrease in the United States bond imports. At the Stock Exchange the week has been uneventful. Silver ruled in London at 52⅛*d.* to

52½*d.* per oz. The bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar at the close of the week was $0.8855 gold.

The elections for the Hungarian Parliament have been looked for with some anxiety as not unlikely to result in a condemnation of the annexation of Bosnia and Montenegro; but the Government has obtained a heavy majority, and M. Tisza, the Prime Minister, who was defeated in his old constituency, Debeczin, has been elected by several other counties and towns, and has chosen Sepsiszent. In Hungary, as in France and England, a leading man cannot be kept out of public life because he does not happen to please the electors or caucus of one district. The Magyars are evidently, with their usual political sense, reconciling themselves to the new situation. The *Pesther Lloyd*, which is M. Tisza's organ, declares that after what has occurred in Bosnia the annexation of the two provinces to the Austro-Hungarian monarchy "has become absolutely necessary for the maintenance of Austro-Hungarian influence in the East." But it says that care must be taken that this annexation is not allowed to work mischief to Magyar interests, and that, therefore, Hungary, laying aside old sympathies, hatreds, and prejudices, ought to "lay hold exclusively of the organization of the new provinces by demanding that they be placed under the direct authority of the Hungarian Ministry."

The slow mobilization of the Austrian army of occupation is shown from the fact that General Szapary, after a week's respite, was for the third time attacked in position at Doboi, on Friday, the 23d, and compelled to fight for nine hours. It is clear that his retreat was caused by the superior numbers of the enemy, whom a Belgrade despatch estimates at 20,000, provided with artillery, and it is not improbable that, as is reported (also from Belgrade, however), he has been obliged to retire to the left bank of the Bosna and destroy his bridges. In the extreme south, in Herzegovina, General Jovanovitch succeeded on Wednesday week in carrying the insurgent positions before Stolatz, after a severe and obstinate contest in which most of the insurgent chiefs were killed.

There has been a good deal of curiosity in England, ever since the policy of menace against Russia was entered on, to see how the Ministry would deal with the cost—that is, in what manner they would make the bills palatable to the Jingoes. This has now been revealed by the presentation of the Supplemental Estimates to the Committee of Ways and Means by the Chancellor of the Exchequer. When he introduced the Budget in April he hoped he would have a surplus of £2,210,000 over the ordinary expenses of the year, and he did not think he would have to spend more than £1,000,000 in frightening the Russians. Instead of this, however, the process has cost him £3,366,000, and this with the amount of certain exchequer bills falling due this year will, instead of leaving him with a surplus, leave him with a deficit of £4,306,000 on the year. Instead, however, of meeting this by an increase of taxation this year, according to the uniform policy of the Liberals for forty years—a policy which Lord Beaconsfield has always strongly supported—the Chancellor proposes to distribute it over three years, and pay it out of surpluses which he thinks he will have, though he confesses he does not know what the occupation of Cyprus and the reform and defence of Asiatic Turkey are going to cost. In other words, the financial policy of the Cabinet has the same flashy character as its plans of building up influence abroad.

Nothing in the Berlin negotiations has afforded the Liberals so much ammunition as the British treatment of Greece, and Lord Beaconsfield's resentment over Mr. Gladstone's charge of having "sold the Greeks" shows that he is unusually sensitive on that point. It has been proved, in fact, that during the Congress every point made in favor of Greece was made by the French or Italian plenipotentiaries, and that they were resisted and defeated in almost every case by the representatives of Great Britain. As the Greeks allege that they were prevented from taking part in the war, and thus giving themselves the benefit of the *uti possidetis* rule which has worked so well for Montenegro and Servia, by the persuasions, remonstrances, and above all by the promises, of the British Government, the failure of the Congress to satisfy them, followed by the flat refusal of the Turks to do even what the Congress has recommended, has naturally exasperated them in the highest degree. A Greek has therefore drawn up, and the London *Times* has published, a statement of the Greek case against England, which shows by extracts from the Blue-Book that the Greeks were kept at peace, from the outbreak of the war down to the signature of the Treaty of San Stefano, by a series of the most solemn assurances that if Greece would not move, England would use her best endeavors "to obtain for the Greeks the same advantages as might be granted to the Slavs." The letter is a most terrible indictment of the Ministry, or would be if they had not shown themselves perfectly callous to imputations on their good faith. Lord Beaconsfield, in his speeches since his return home, has ridiculed the Greeks in his lightest and best manner.

The attempt to introduce the system of caucus party management and caucus nominations into English politics, which the Radicals have begun and carried out in Birmingham and one or two other places, is exciting well-founded alarm among the moderate Liberals, and provoking resistance among many men in public life who have observed its workings in this country. Hitherto the management of party interests in English boroughs and counties has been in the hands of small, self-appointed committees, composed of persons who were willing to take a little trouble and spend a little money for the sake of the party; but the fact that they were self-appointed gave them no authority, and only as much weight as their behavior entitled them to. Their nomination of a candidate, too, was hardly a shade stronger than self-nomination, and any prominent man could well afford to disregard it and go into the contest with a committee of his own. For this has been substituted at Birmingham—and similar organizations are springing up elsewhere—a committee of six hundred, regularly elected at ward "primaries," in the manner with which city voters in America are so familiar, and this committee claims complete control of the nominations for Parliament and of the canvass. How it will all end no American needs to be told, after "the educated and intelligent" get tired of going to the primaries and the managers have grown skilful in getting up the "pre-primaries."

Mr. Chamberlain, the great Birmingham radical, writes to the London *Times*, defending the plan for the usual reasons. The primary is, of course, to be composed of wise and prudent Liberals of all classes, gentle and simple, who are to meet in the evening, and, after careful deliberation and comparison of views, are to elect patriotic and far-seeing men of the highest character to sit on the committee, and the committee thus chosen is to make nominations under a most solemn sense of responsibility. To show the absurdity of the fear that these Sanhedrims will ever come to resemble the American caucus, he says that the failure of the American caucus is due, "not to the representative system of organization," but to the fatal defect in the American practice which makes the occupant of every public office dependent for its tenure on the success of the party to which he belongs. We beg to assure him, on the other hand, that this "fatal defect" is the result or inevitable concomitant of the caucus, and we warn him that in a very few years his caucus will insist on jobbery in offices as an essential feature of really popular government. Considering what we are going through or struggling with here, the light-hearted way in which Englishmen take up some American experiments is very curious. He mentions one fact which would make John Kelly smile—that in every department of the public service, and in the municipal government also, "officers are independent of political changes, *quam diu se bene gesserint*." In illustration of this he says that, although the Birmingham voters are overwhelmingly Liberal, "a large number of the permanent officials of the corporation are Conservatives." We now tell him that fifteen or twenty years of caucus will make this seem a silly or autocratic arrangement to most active local politicians.

"ADMINISTRATION REPUBLICANS" AND CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

THE argument with which everybody was familiar in 1876, showing the necessity of separating the civil service, within certain easily-defined limits, from the machinery of party politics, must undoubtedly have had a great deal of force, and have made a deep impression on the public mind, or they would not have produced the insertion of the following resolutions in the platforms of the two great parties. The Democratic platform said:

"Reform is necessary in the civil service. Experience proves that efficient, economical conduct of the governmental business is not possible if its civil service be subject to change at every election; be a prize fought for at the ballot-box; be a brief reward of party zeal, instead of posts of honor assigned for proved competency, and held for fidelity in the public employ; that the dispensing of patronage should neither be a tax on the time of our public men nor the instrument of their ambition."

The Republican platform was on this point equally clear and emphatic. It said:

"Under the Constitution the President and the heads of departments are to make nominations for office, the Senate is to advise and consent to appointments, and the House of Representatives is to accuse and prosecute faithless officers. The best interests of the public service demand that these distinctions be respected, that Senators and Representatives who may be judges and accusers should not dictate appointments to office. The invariable rule for appointments should have reference to the honesty, fidelity, and capacity of the appointees, giving to the party in power those places where harmony and vigor of administration require its policy to be represented, but permitting all others to be filled by persons with sole reference to the efficiency of the public service and the right of the citizen to share in the honor of rendering faithful service to his country."

Now, whatever may be one's opinion about the honesty of the persons who draw political platforms, or the thoughtfulness of the conventions which adopt them, none will deny that a proposed change in the machinery of government which receives such strong and prominent commendation as is contained in the foregoing resolutions, from both political parties, on the eve of a Presidential election, must have been well discussed, and that its expediency or necessity must have been made manifest to a large and influential part of the public. That Mr. Hayes saw this was shown by the prominence he gave to civil-service reform in his letter of acceptance, and by the almost solemn manner in which he pledged himself to do what in him lay to make it "thorough, radical, and complete."

Why civil-service reform received so little attention in the canvass which followed; why so little was done either to enlighten the public about the proper mode of carrying it out or to deepen Mr. Hayes's sense of its importance, and to strengthen his purpose with regard to it, has been so often discussed that we need not go over the ground again. But it is necessary to say now, in explanation of the singular neglect into which the subject has fallen in the second year of the Administration, that the highly personal turn which the debates of the campaign took, the resolution of the contest into a comparison of the personal merits and defects of the two candidates, almost of necessity resulted in leading Republicans to consider civil-service reform personified in Mr. Hayes, and to proclaim and believe that although he had never been identified with it in any prominent or trying way his election would ensure its success beyond any manner of doubt. The regular party managers were sufficiently cowed to remain silent about it in public. But they said in private what they now begin to say openly, and what they did say openly in Grant's day, that it was a very fine thing on paper, but that no President or party could, in the existing state of human nature and of democratic government, carry it out. The best answer its friends were able to make to this was that Mr. Hayes would show them they were mistaken. In short, in one way or other, by accidents, by mistakes, by the active exertions of too simple-minded and confiding partisans, the public was led to believe that the man to conduct the great revolution in the civil service had been found at last, and that he would make short work of the argument of impracticability.

How these expectations and predictions have been falsified, everybody knows. Mr. Hayes has not reformed the civil service or done what in him lay toward reforming it. He has done something towards loosening the control of leading Republican politicians over the offices, but he has done it in such a way as to destroy the confidence of a large portion of the party in the goodness of his intentions as well as in the soundness of his judgment, and to give the broom of reform the appearance of the old and well-known party shillelah, wielded now for his personal benefit. This, however, is of comparatively small importance. The most serious evil of his course is that he has strengthened instead of weakening the argument of impracticability. He has put it in the power of the enemies of reform to say to its friends, "You see you got a man exactly to suit you, who declared himself, under his own signature, passionately in favor of your hobby. You were satisfied with him in every way; you said he had exactly the right antecedents for the work you set before him, and that he had the needful knowledge, judgment, and firmness; you declared, in fact, that the slightest change would spoil him. You now confess that he has made large numbers of very bad appointments and very bad dismissals; indeed, one of your most prominent organs has declared that Tilden, bad as he is, could not have done worse. Towards thorough, radical, and complete, *i.e.*, systematic, reform, he has done nothing. If you still believe in his honesty and sagacity, does not all this prove to you that your scheme is a chimera, that it cannot be carried out, and that you have been breaking the party up for nothing, and for worse than nothing?" This argument has, in fact, already done much execution among those supporters of reform who have never given much thought to its real nature and conditions. They have begun to say, When a man like Mr. Hayes fails, does it not show that we have been too sanguine; that the spoils system is really after all, as "the practical men" have often told us, an integral part of republican government, which we must accept like other drawbacks and make the best of it; and would it not be better on the whole now for Mr. Hayes to give up fighting with the politicians, and use the machine—since machine we must have—to save us from the Communists and repudiators and other enemies of order and property?

The danger of such movements as that which has been set a-going at Saratoga to help to defeat Mr. Conkling is that it will help by its language to strengthen and perpetuate the notion that the Administration fairly represents or stands for civil-service reform, or that anything like what the Cincinnati platform promised us is still to be expected from it during its remaining two years. Everything it does in the line of those promises is, of course, deserving of hearty support, and no part of the civil-service programme is more important than the loosening of the hold of the politicians on places like the New York Custom-house. The removals which have taken place there were unquestionably justified by the position occupied towards reform by the persons removed, and the defeat of Conkling, as one of the most strenuous and open opponents of the doctrines of the Republican platform, is undoubtedly work in which every friend of reform in New York ought to engage heartily. But it is very questionable whether it can be helped by offering defences and excuses for the course the Administration has pursued with regard to the reform in general. The work is the proper work of Republicans, pure and simple, and to do it well no thorough-going defence of Mr. Hayes is needed. Nothing in particular can well be more injurious to the cause than the plea, which one now begins to hear, that Mr. Hayes has done as well as he could, and as well as any man could do in his position; that "the pressure" of the politicians has been too strong for him. This argument was thoroughly exhausted in Grant's day. The answer to it is very simple. The President's bad appointments and violations of his own principles have not been confined to cases in which politicians have had an interest. They have been numerous in cases in which nobody had an interest but the President himself. Pending the adoption of a reformed system of appointment by law, every President must sometimes be compelled by sheer necessity to give way to party managers and con-

sult party exigencies. But there is an easy mode of making plain to the public that the fault in such cases is not his, and that is the filling of places which are notoriously within his control by men of undeniable fitness. In other words, all he has to do is to give within the narrow field reserved for his discretion a specimen of the régime which ought to be established in all branches of the public service. This would silence cavillers completely. Reformers must, in short, not forget just now, in their not unnatural or discreditable zeal for what remains of the Administration, that the battle will probably have to be fought over again in 1880 under some additional disadvantages, and that it will hardly do to come to the Convention with the Administration on their hands as a specimen of what they would like for another four years.

THE MEXICAN-BORDER GRIEVANCES.

THERE are signs at Washington, too numerous to be disregarded, though they have not yet attracted public attention, of a design on the part of a large, though very heterogeneous, body to force us into hostilities with Mexico. It is made up in the main of holders, real or alleged, of concessions of mines and railroad franchises made by extinct Mexican governments, imperial and republican; of would-be officers and contractors of a large army, regular and volunteer; of Confederate military men, now idle and poor, who would gladly march under "the old flag and an appropriation"; of Roman Catholic churchmen smarting under disestablishment and confiscation; of politicians who think a foreign war would revive business, quell the Communists, and put a stop to the "investigation" mania; and of claimants of all sorts who have failed before peaceful tribunals, and think they would have a chance of a share in the "indemnity" which would be distributed after conquest. It is, therefore, none too soon to see what there is in the outcry against Mexico that honest and intelligent men can consent to support.

The vagueness and violence of the complaints of Mexican depredations which came up from Texas induced Congress in 1872 to investigate them by a special commission, which, being unhappily composed by presidential selection, plunged into the flood of claims and brought out a report confessedly *ex parte*, and which might truthfully be described as blindly partisan. It asserted that our border had been almost stripped of stock by Mexican depredations, and furnished a list of 162 claims, in eleven Texan counties, amounting to over $26,000,000. The largest single claim was for $2,486,160, computed for 108,336 cattle, stolen between 1866 and November 11, 1869, at $10, being $1,083,360, with increase from 1869 to 1872, of equal value, and 3,328 horses at $60, $199,680, and increase $119,760. Many other claims were for twenty thousand cattle, direct loss, and increase added to all. Congress did not endorse this commission by sending it back to finish its work. The report, however, caused much excitement in Mexico, and induced its Government to send a commission in 1873 to its northern frontier, which made an elaborate, able, and in many respects fair report, which, admitting that depredations had been committed, asserted that they had been from both sides of the Rio Grande. It specified a number of marauding and filibustering expeditions from our territory, and, quoting from official records, charged our Indian policy with driving into their states savage tribes which inflicted immense damage; cited the press and laws of Texas to show the prevalence of cattle-stealing and fraudulent branding there, and produced mutual accusations among the witnesses before the late United States Commission, who seemed to have afterwards united in testimony ascribing a Mexican origin to their own thefts. From the records of the State Comptroller of Texas it showed that, notwithstanding losses and changes produced by drought and the large increase of transportation of cattle and sale of hides since the opening of markets at the close of our civil war, the number of cattle in our border counties had steadily increased. Contrasting the same authority with the report of our Commission, it was made evident that twenty owners in one county pretended to have lost five times as many cattle as the whole county possessed; that thirty-three owners in another presented claims for twice the number there, and that the claims of sixty-five out of 2,367 owners in the eleven counties were for five times the value of the stock in those counties and three-fourths of the value of stock in the whole State.

Some passages in the report will bear quoting, to show the Mexican stand-point in the controversy:

"For several months facts were invented, or those which really occurred were distorted, and when it was deemed that the public mind had been sufficiently prepared it was proclaimed that it was necessary to exact from Mexico 'compensation for the past and guarantees for the future.' The first part of this motto is synonymous with claims against the Republic; the latter part with a war of conquest on the part of the United States against Mexico. From the moment that this vast horizon was perceptible, complaints increased in their intensity; they were bitter and accompanied by all that interest or passion could add to them. . . . It is only the creation of material interests superior to those they could expect from an increase of territory that can put an end to the restless spirit of the floating population of Texas, which, in the absence of lawful resources to employ the energy of its will, is ever dreaming of revolutionary enterprises inconsistent with the maintenance of peace and harmony between the two nations. To meet this exigency a prolonged and vigorous effort is necessary. It is not a fear, but the proved existence of important facts, which impels this Commission to insist again and again upon the protection of the Rio Grande line by suitable forces. The spirit of invasion, still dominant in Texas, does not forget the tactics which secured the separation and loss of that territory."

The most important document upon the subject is the report of Mr. J. Hubley Ashton, Consul for the United States, before the late Joint Claims Commission convened under the Treaty of 1868 to settle claims arising since the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo in 1848. It shows that 1,017 claims of all kinds, aggregating over $470,000,000, were preferred by American citizens against Mexico, of which 186 were allowed, amounting to a little over four millions, or less than one per cent. That this judicial settlement, in which Sir Edward Thornton acted as umpire, was not unfair to the claimants, may be inferred from the fact that Congress has since directed the further investigation of two of the awards, aggregating nearly twelve hundred thousand dollars, which are alleged to be fraudulent on such evidence as to warrant that unusual action. Out of the 1,017 claims, covering a period of twenty years, only twenty-five were for border depredations alleged to have been committed by Mexicans, and ten for those of Mexican Indians. Of the former class five were allowed, amounting to $22,555, and of the latter only one, for $622, which may well be contrasted with the twenty-six millions of depredation claims reported by the Commission of 1872, only seven out of the 162 of which arose wholly after the Treaty of 1868.

The Mexicans brought 998 claims before the Joint Commission, of which 167 were allowed—a proportion nearly equal to the allowance on the part of the United States, though the awards were much smaller; but 297 of the claims and 156 of the awards were for depredations of Americans in Mexico, the latter amounting to $73,573, and covering damages for cases historically well known, being more than three times the damages in thirty times the cases awarded to the same class of our claims. For Indian depredations, of which their commission of 1873 complained so bitterly, Mexico presented 336 claims, amounting to over thirty-one millions, but these were all disallowed on legal grounds without decision on the facts, the United States successfully contending that by the Gadsden Treaty it was released from the obligation of protecting the frontier from our Indians, though Mexico has always argued that the Spanish copy of that treaty, which differs from the English, was not prospective. The view of Mr. Evarts was expressed in his instructions to Minister Foster on May 28, 1877, to be that, although Mexico had "released the United States from the obligations in respect to predatory incursions of Indians from this country into Mexico, the obligations of that Government in respect to similar marauders from that country into the United States are entire."

Three more documents have been published to throw light upon the extent and character of past and present depredations. It is sufficient to say of the two reports of Mr. Schleicher, of Texas, to the House of Representatives that they are intensely hostile to

Mexico in expression, and that, while they do not in terms endorse the wild claims presented by the Commission of 1872, they do not hesitate to adopt the testimony on which that report was based. The evidence furnished by the Military Committee of the House, just issued as Mis. Doc. 64, is much more important, showing the substantially concurrent statements of Generals Sherman, Sheridan, and Ord, Colonels Clitz and Shafter, with others, to the following effect: The present situation has existed in the same neighborhood before and ever since Texas was admitted, owing to the character of the population, but is not worse than a few years ago; on the contrary, it has been and is improving. Not only our Indians but our citizens commit many of the depredations on both sides of the river. Not nearly so many of our citizens are killed by the marauders from either side as on other lines of equal extent along our thinly-settled territories. The raids made into the United States are in the proportion of ten Indians to one Mexican, and the Mexicans frequently pursue on to our soil our Indians who have stolen stock on theirs. Sir Edward Thornton has well summed up the matter thus: "It does not appear as a general rule that there has been a greater want of vigilance on the part of the Mexican authorities than on the part of the authorities of the State and those of the United States." All candid examinations into the whole subject have resulted in the conviction that the raids, committed fully as much from one side as from the other, are wholly without international character, the existence of a boundary merely giving some unavoidable facilities; that the extent of the depredations at any time have been grossly exaggerated, not being greater than on other lawless and Indian frontiers and from the same causes, and that they have been gradually diminishing, so as to leave no possible moral grounds for any present aggressive policy towards our southern neighbor.

As regards the remedies hitherto provided and proposed, it must be understood that the Extradition Treaty of 1861 expressly excepted from its operations the citizens of either party committing crimes in the territory of the other; but the Mexican spirit is shown by the fact that Señor Mata, when in Washington a year ago, proposed to modify it so as to include the class of criminals who form the main part of the depredators on either side, on which proposition no action was taken by our Government. Diaz also appears to have been more liberal than the treaty by his extradition of Mexicans who were engaged in the attack on the Rio Grande City jail. Secretary Fish, in December, 1871, in answer to a request for the punishment of our citizens who committed murders in Lower California, replied: "It is a fundamental principle of the law of the United States that no person can be tried for a crime or offence in this country except in the neighborhood where the act charged may have been perpetrated. This rule, of course, applies with peculiar force to crimes committed in a foreign jurisdiction." The laws of Texas, however, so far back as 1858, provided for crimes committed beyond its jurisdiction; but those laws do not seem to have been enforced against raiders into Mexico. Lately the federal penal code of Mexico, adopted in most of its States, has contained similar provisions. The laws of Texas and Mexico both provide for the recovery of property, but it is proved that a Mexican coming to Texas with this object is met by such onerous demands for official fees as to defeat it. Difficulties also exist in the recovery of property in Mexico, not from the laws, but from the unwillingness of the officials to co-operate, though such alleged unwillingness has in fact been overcome in many instances. We have, therefore, no more claim to superior consideration in regard to legal remedies for depredations than in regard to their extent.

There remains only the use of the army as an extra-legal and extra-territorial police for the punishment of crime and recovery of property, and this remedy had, before the incoming of our present Administration, been adopted by both countries, the forces of each receiving not only admission but co-operation from the local commanders of the other, and their action having been tacitly approved by both Governments. General Ord said last December:

"The Mexican citizens on the upper part of the river in Chihuahua are quiet and peaceable and co-operate in pursuing the Indians, so that if the Indians bring over any plunder from that side of the river to ours we are glad to have the Mexicans there come over and reclaim it. Lately, since General Trios has become governor, they followed the Indians with some eighty men and a captain appointed by General Trios, I suppose, to the mountains north of Fort Davis, killed six or seven of them, and brought back the stolen horses and three or four squaws, and they are now prepared for another pursuit. They follow the Indians regardless of trails. I gave orders two years ago that when they come over on such occasions they should be treated as if they were our own troops; and in this report [referring to the report of the Mexican Commission] the Mexican part of the Commission mention two instances, one where American officers, after the troops had crossed, asked permission to pursue savage Indians into Mexico, who had plundered in Texas, and the permission was granted; another where the Mexicans joined our forces in the pursuit, and they comment upon them as an instance of good feeling, and of a desire on both sides to co-operate against the common enemy." . . . "I gave orders nearly two years ago to cross on a fresh trail. I stated my reasons for giving the order and communicated these orders to the Administration, and I received no instructions in regard to the matter. The order was not disapproved, and consequently it was tacitly approved."

Col. Shafter's evidence was to the same effect, as follows:

"*Mr. Bragg.* Then the question is merely one of national dignity?

"*Lt.-Col. Shafter.* Yes, sir, I think that is all, and I do not think there was any feeling about it at all until the order was issued to go across; that created a considerable ill-feeling.

"*Mr. Bragg.* Was it not because it appeared to be an assumption on the part of our Government of a right which did not belong to us?

"*Lt.-Col. Shafter.* That was the claim.

"*Mr. Bragg.* So long as we were crossing tacitly and by their permission, and not under an order of our Government, they apparently acquiesced, did they not?

"*Lt.-Col. Shafter.* Yes, sir.

"*Mr. Marsh.* Has the character of your raids into Mexico been different since the order of the Secretary of War to cross?

"*Lt.-Col. Shafter.* Not at all. Our expeditions have been of the same character as before, and for the same purpose."

THE EIGHTEENTH-CENTURY GREENBACKERS.

IN the prevailing discussions of the currency question frequent references have been made to, and numerous useful lessons have been drawn from, the experience of our own and other countries which have wallowed in the mire of irredeemable paper money, and have finally established themselves on the solid ground of coined money only by letting their currency "go out," to use General Butler's phrase. But through it all there has been scarcely a reference to one chapter of history that is at this particular crisis in our affairs more instructive than any or all the other passages from human experience in this matter—that is, to the provincial paper-money of the first half of the eighteenth century, which, in Massachusetts, was drawn in and burned in the year 1750.

The first paper money in New England was issued by Massachusetts in 1690 to pay the soldiers, clamorous for money, who had taken part in an unsuccessful expedition against Canada. The system upon which it was issued was not wholly bad, and for a time the depreciation was not great. But, as is almost always the case, the temptation to increase the amount was too strong to be withstood. One excuse after another served the purpose of those who asked that the amount of the circulating medium be made equal to the wants of trade, and the temptation was rarely resisted. The neighboring colonies of New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Connecticut imitated the bad example. Indeed, in some cases they seemed to have issued currency for the express purpose of circulating it in Massachusetts, which was thus flooded with the depreciated bills of credit of her sister colonies as well as those issued from her own treasury. It is not our purpose now to tell the story of the inflation, but to draw a parallel between the incidents attending resumption in colonial times and the state of affairs which we observe to-day in this country.

The tendency of the paper money was, as has been said, steadily downwards. Various devices were resorted to in order to prop it up and give it value, but they all failed. In 1745 the price had sunk to about eight for one, and in the following years it went still lower. There were a few sturdy advocates of sound money, but they could get even a hearing only by dint of persistent repetition of their argument. At last their opportunity came. The successful expedition against Louisburg in 1745, conducted by the colonists, had left the Government of Great Britain indebted

to Massachusetts in a sum which represented in a rough way the whole market value of the outstanding bills of credit. Mr. Thomas Hutchinson, then speaker of the Massachusetts House, and afterwards the governor and historian of the colony, was a hard-money man by instinct and by conviction. The idea was suggested to him of petitioning the British Parliament to reimburse the colony on condition of its using the specie to call in and extinguish the bills of credit. Accordingly he introduced in the General Court a bill providing that the money when received should be devoted to that purpose. The proposition was coldly received at first, and was rejected. Afterwards the vote was reconsidered, and the bill was passed by the casting vote of the speaker. It is a little odd that this resumption act should have been passed in 1749, as the later act of 1875 also was, by men who were opposed to resumption, and with the idea that the whole project was chimerical and could never be carried out, and that therefore the easiest way to satisfy everybody was to pass the bill. Such was the fact. Minot says in his history, after noticing the objections to the bill—which were : that the time for redeeming the bills was too short, the rate (ten for one) too high, and that silver could not be retained in the colony—

"Such were the ideas of a people used to a paper currency for more than half a century, and so firmly were they attached to it that it was owing to their fears alone that the bill for calling in the currency, which was at first lost in the House of Representatives, finally prevailed."

We have passed rapidly over the preliminary history of this currency, omitting many facts of interest, in order to come as speedily as possible to the time of redemption and resumption. The neighboring colonies had been requested to adopt a plan similar to that of Massachusetts and had refused, leaving her to carry out her policy alone. But the government did not flinch from its duty. The agent of the Province in London lost no time in pressing for a settlement, and was successful. The first and largest remittance arrived in Boston on the 18th September, 1749. Its coming was announced by the Boston *Evening Post* (so called, although it was a weekly newspaper) on the 25th of the same month, in the following terms:

"Last Monday arrived here his Majesty's ship *Mermaid*, Capt. *Montague* Commander, in about five weeks from *Portsmouth*, in which came *William Bollan*, Esq., late Agent for this Province at the Court of *Great Britain*, who has brought with him (in *Spanish* Dollars and Copper) the greatest part of the Money granted by Parliament for reimbursing the Province the Charge of the Cape Breton Expedition; and last Friday and Saturday the Money was landed on the Long Wharf, and afterwards carried to Mr. Treasurer *Foye's*, where it was decently interr'd in a Vault prepared in the Cellar for its Reception, but when the Time of its Resurge will be, Time only will discover ; probably not so soon as some People may imagine. Few Tokens of Joy were shewn on its Landing ; but on the contrary, an uncommon Gloominess appeared in most Countenances."

The publisher of this paper seems to have been a pronounced soft-money man, to judge from this and other expressions in the *Evening Post*. The leading article had not then been invented, and the only expressions of public opinion, except such casual ones as that in the above extract, came from contributors, often men of prominence in politics, who appended fanciful signatures to their letters. As soon as the early enforcement of the law for redeeming the notes was apprehended by the people as an impending certainty, the discontent manifested itself more decidedly than before. Just as the accumulation of coin by Secretary Sherman, making certain the attempt at resumption and increasing the chances of its success, brought into greater prominence and consolidated the strength of those who oppose specie payments, so the actual possession of coin to call in at their market value and cancel the provincial bills of credit made the paper-money party of that day more active and earnest. The newspapers were filled to overflowing with contributions to the angry discussion. Ingenuity was exhausted in the effort to invent reasons why the law should not be carried into effect. There is scarcely an argument used by the greenbackers of to-day which was not anticipated by our colonial forefathers. The *Evening Post* seems to have been the favorite medium through which the "Nationals" of that day communicated with the people. In the letters then published may be found every reason now urged against resumption. The Province was implored to wait for a more favorable opportunity. It was urged that it was not the notes themselves, but the misuse of them, that had caused the trouble. Some writers maintained that, although paper money was an evil, it could not be extinguished at once without causing disaster and ruin. The argument that the public faith was pledged to a certain course having been used with effect, the fiat-money party of that time denied indignantly that the step taken was not to be retraced. Our extracts must be brief, but they show sufficiently the spirit of the discussion.

In the *Evening Post* of December 11, 1749, appears a letter from "Rusticus," dated "Up the Country in the Massachusetts," from which we take the following passage. The writer is magnifying the evil of extinguishing the Massachusetts bills while those of the neighboring colonies are still out, and urges the people to "think whether it may not be absolutely necessary for the public Good to have all our Bills that shall be brought to our Treasury to be exchang'd for *Silver* redeem'd with *Notes* or *Bonds* or a new Set of Bills under the Hand of our Treasurer," etc.

This writer, like some ingenious soft-money men of to-day, would not admit that he was opposed to redemption, but argued in favor of some other plan. Any way but the way that had been decided upon was apparently his motto, but his favorite scheme was a new kind of paper money ; at the present juncture he would have been in favor of substituting greenbacks of full legal tender for national-bank notes.

On the 18th of December the *Evening Post* reprinted, at the request of the writer, an article which had been published in the same paper on the 29th of the preceding March, and which he evidently regarded as unanswerable. We make several short extracts from it :

"A depreciating Currency has been often branded in many of our *Pulpits*, as well as in private Conversation, as *the grand Engine of Oppression and all unrighteousness*. But these Evils, as I imagine, do not result so directly from the *Nature of the Thing* as from a *wicked Disposition* in Man to misimprove the Bills, *under the pretence of being depreciated*, as an *Instrument* of *Injustice* and *Extortion*."

The gentleman clearly regarded paper money as one of God's gifts, to be rightly used and improved, and something which it was a sin to take for less than it purported to be worth. The greenback saved the country, we are now told, and it is ingratitude to the greenback aforesaid, if not a sin against high heaven, to suspect its intrinsic equality with gold. Let us hear him further :

"As we have been *many Years* winding ourselves into this *Labyrinth* of Difficulties, by Means of a Paper Currency, it seems impossible to *extricate* ourselves in the Time and Manner propos'd ; as the Paper Currency has acted *a wicked Part* on the Stage for so many Years, if it should make its *Exit* too suddenly, I fear that like *Sampson* it would kill more *at its* Death, than in the whole Time of its Life."

Here another argument of the paper-money party was foreshadowed. The plan proposed and adopted was too sudden in its operation ; resumption ought to be gradual, etc. The writer continues :

"The other reason why the Act will probably be hurtful to the Province, is, as I apprehend, because, in our present Circumstances, it is very *unlikely*, if not *impossible*, that *Silver* can be kept *as a Medium* among us. And if not, then the good and wholsom Design of the Law will be entirely defeated ; so that, having *no Medium at all*, our whole Commerce must be managed in a way of *Truck and Barter*, which (as we have found by past Experience) will be attended with far more injustice than a Depreciated Paper Currency."

In the above passage still another of the fears of the greenbackers is anticipated. Even if we should substitute gold for our paper, so we are told, we could not keep the gold among us. Specie payments may be resumed, but cannot be maintained, and instead of a paper or gold currency we should have none at all. But we have not come to the end of the discussion. The argument had been used by those favoring the redemption of the bills of credit that the money had been granted by Parliament for a specified purpose and had been accepted for that purpose, and consequently it would be a breach of faith to use it in any other manner or to fail to use it in that manner. To this replies a correspondent of the Boston *Gazette* in the issue of the 26th December, 1749—was his name Bland, or Butler, or Voorhees ?—

"You cannot be too much on your Guard against the new-fangled Doctrine, propogated by the money'd Leaches *viz.* That the General Court cannot with Justice make any Amendment, or any Act in Addition to the Money Act ; tho' of the most manifest Utility to the Province, and prevent the greatest Injury whatsoever. . . . We already feel some of the Evils dreaded by us ; in the Stagnation of our Trade, little or any Business carried on with Spirit."

And the writer went on to give some reasons why the act might properly be amended. He made much of the fact that it was passed only by a casting vote, and alleged that there was an understanding that it was not to receive the royal sanction until the other colonies had taken similar action. The similarity of his reasoning to that made use of by the soft-money party now is so apparent that it is only necessary to draw attention to it.

Occasionally the anti-resumptionists dropped into poetry, as did

General Ewing in one of his speeches last winter. February 5, 1750, the *Evening Post* printed a rhymed appeal from one who dreaded the evil of forced contraction, from which we extract two stanzas :

> " From the Good of a few, must the Ruin ensue,
> Of Numbers industrious poor ;
> Amongst whom I now stand, with my Cap in my Hand,
> Most humbly imploring a Cure.
>
> " From Events I foresee, many others with me,
> If the Act (as decreed) should take Place ;
> Must desert this great Town, or, what's worse, be weigh'd down
> With Poverty, Want and Disgrace."

In the same number the publisher warns the public that the time for taking and passing the bills is expiring, and advises them rather to pay their debts to him "NOW while they may do it in *Bumaree*" (which appears to have been the current slang for the paper trash) "than to wait until the *Dollars* come out, which will be on the 1st of *April* next," for then they—"may find it as hard to come at the Dollars as the *Publisher*."

Well, on the 31st March the right to pass provincial bills expired, and on the following Monday, the 2d April, the new money became current. On that day the *Evening Post* appeared with this semi-humorous and semi-serious advertisement, the advertiser being Mr. Fleet, the publisher of the *Post :*

"This day is Published
And Sold by T. Fleet, *at the Heart and Crown in Cornhill,*
A Mournful Lamentation for the sad and deplorable Death of Mr. Old Tenor, a Native of *New England,* who after long Confinement by a deep and mortal Wound, which he received above twelve Months before, expired on the 31st Day of *March,* 1750. *He lived beloved and died lamented.* Price three half pence."

Two weeks before, this paper was advertising cheese at five shillings a pound !

The opposition to the exchange became violent when the time came for making it. The disaffection gave itself expression even in violence and riot, to such a degree that the Legislature was forced to pass a riot act. But the Government was firmly resolved to carry the measure through, and it did so. During the process money was scarce, but the inconvenience was only temporary. As for the result, let us listen to Hutchinson, the leading spirit in the business, whose history was published only fourteen years later :

"The apprehensions of a *shock* to trade proved groundless ; the bills being dispersed through every part of the Province, the silver took place instead of them, a good currency was insensibly substituted in the room of a bad one, and every branch of business was carried on to greater advantage than before. The other Governments, especially Connecticut and Rhode Island, who refused, upon being invited, to conform their currency to the Massachusetts, felt a *shock* in their trade from which they have not yet recovered. The latter had been the importers for Massachusetts of West India goods for many years, which ceased at once."

Minot reports that from a strong liking for the paper money there was a powerful reaction, and a detestation of paper money took its place. How strong it was in Boston may be judged from an incident that took place there in April, 1751. A large crowd from Abington and the neighboring towns went to Boston with riotous intentions, expecting to be joined at the capital by a large party. They were disappointed. They were met by the hoots and jeers of boys and servants, and driven out of town.

So ended the Greenback party, if we may use that term, of the eighteenth century. The organization had sprung out of a fear that vast evils would follow upon the reduction of the volume of money by ninety per cent. Their currency, which had been paper for so long a time that only the aged could remember any other, was wholly taken in and destroyed. It amounted nominally to £1,792,236 5*s.* 1*d.*, and in exchange for this, which would have been an enormous amount to the colony if it had been worth its face, the meagre sum of about £180,000 in "good hard money" was put into circulation. It served the purposes of trade better than that which it displaced. The change was in no respect attended with evil results, but did accomplish much good. If the Greenbackers of 1878 would read and heed the lesson they might learn that ruin is not likely to attend the exchange of gold dollars for paper dollars at par.

COUNT FERSEN.—I.

Paris, July 26, 1878.

Baron Klinckowström is the great-nephew of the famous Count John Axel of Fersen, and he has just published two volumes of the Diaries, Letters, and Despatches of the chivalrous friend of Marie-Antoinette. No documents throw more light on the last years of the reign of Louis XVI., on the beginning of the French Revolution, and on the designs of Europe when the revolutionary wars began ; but the chief interest of this work is not so much historical, after all, as it is personal and dramatic. It is well known that Fersen was handsome, that he felt a passionate and romantic attachment for Marie-Antoinette : and it is generally believed that the Queen was not insensible to it. Not that she ever confessed her weakness—her reputation is perfectly pure ; notwithstanding all the libels of the revolutionary period, she carried her head to the scaffold proud, unmoved, and free of remorse. But the generosity, the devotion, the courage of Fersen had profoundly moved her, and she would have been something less or more than a woman if her heart had not clung to the friend who was ever ready to risk his life in her defence.

John Axel of Fersen belonged to the noble family of Fersen, illustrious in Sweden for two centuries. He was sent at the age of fifteen, with a governor, to foreign lands ; he studied the art of war at Brunswick, at Turin, at Strasbourg. He made his début in Paris in 1774, and was presented by the minister of Sweden to the king, to Madame Du Barry, to the Comtesse de Brienne, to the Princesse de Beauvau, etc. Comte de Creutz, the Swedish minister, wrote to the king of Sweden the 29th of May, 1774 :

"Of all the Swedes who have been here in my time Fersen has received the best reception in the great world. He has been exceedingly well treated by the royal family. It is impossible to have a wiser and more decent behavior than his. With the handsomest face and with *esprit*, it was impossible that he should not succeed ; but what recommends M. de Fersen especially to his Majesty is the fact that he thinks with a singular nobility and elevation."

There are few portraits of Fersen. A miniature painted in Paris, now in possession of Countess Louise of Gyldenstolpe (born Fersen), represents him at the age of twenty-eight : it is a face of exceeding beauty and manliness ; thoughtful, calm, firm, with a Greek regularity of features, and at the same time with a romantic expression.

Fersen remained four months only in London. He was struck by the contrast of the French and English courts. "I went to the court with Nolcken. The apartments are neither large nor magnificently furnished, and nothing announces the greatness of the king. . . . When the king was dressed we entered his room, where we saw an old bed of red velvet, all black with smoke and shining with grease." . . . The king spoke low, because 'he was afraid we should hear that he put the same question to everybody' [this was in 1774]. The queen was graceful and amiable, but not handsome." The young count describes Almack's ball : "The ball begins at ten o'clock, but the men remain at their clubs till half-past eleven. Meanwhile the ladies wait, sitting in a great gallery on benches, right and left, in great ceremony ; the place seems like a church ; the ladies are all *tristes* and serious, and don't even speak to each other."

Fersen had been, you see, somewhat spoiled by French society. He returned to Sweden in 1775, and took his part in the gaieties of the court of Gustavus III., the gayest court in Europe at the time. His name appears in all the accounts (which have been preserved, but have become very rare) of the festivities of Gripsholm and of Ulriksdal. We see him back in France in 1778, this time coming to learn the art of war ; he went to the camp of the Maréchal de Broglie in Normandy to follow some manœuvre. At the beginning of 1779 the count asked permission to join the expedition of the French troops for the war of independence in North America. By the express recommendation of the king of Sweden, and thanks to the great friendship of the Comte de Vergennes for his father, he was accepted as aide-de-camp of the Comte de Vaux. He was soon afterwards attached as aide-de-camp to the Comte de Rochambeau. In the two volumes which are before me an American reader will certainly turn with the greatest interest to the letters addressed by Fersen to his father between the 2d of March, 1780, and the 10th of March, 1783. The letters are full of very curious details. The expeditionary army, which was to consist of 7,683 men, was reduced to 5,038, as there were not transports enough, and so the rest of the men were left behind. There were four general officers—the Chevalier de Chastellux, the Comte and the Baron de Viomesnil, and M. de Wicktenstein, once colonel of the Anhalt regiment. The army had four months' provisions on sea and as much on land. It was escorted by seven men-of-war—the *Duc de Bourgogne*, the *Neptune*, the *Conquérant*, the *Jason*, the *Eveillé*, the *Provence*, the *Ardent*. The expedition left Brest on the 4th of May ; the landing was to take place in Chesapeake Bay, but as there was some danger of meeting the English fleet it took place on the 11th of August in Rhode Island.

Fersen writes on the 8th of September from Newport :

"We have not left our island; we occupy in the best possible order a very healthy camp, well chosen and perfectly well entrenched; we are still at work on its defences. The most rigid discipline is observed; nothing is taken from the inhabitants except with their permission and for ready money; there has as yet not been a single complaint against the troops. This discipline is admirable; it astonishes the inhabitants, accustomed to the pillage of the English. The greatest confidence and harmony are established between the two nations; if this were enough for the success of our expedition, we should be sure of success."

Fersen's impressions have the freshness of youth; he admires the scenery, the climate, the manners of the people, "not yet spoiled by the luxury of Europe." It is curious to read his prophecies: "This country will be very happy if it enjoys a long peace, and if the two parties which divide it do not condemn it to the fate of Poland and so many other republics." Most of the country people are Whigs; they are for liberty and independence. The Tories, having relations and lands in England, are for England, or rather for peace, and care little for independence.

The garrison of Newport became very despondent when it heard of the defeat of General Gates by Lord Cornwallis in South Carolina; the French were shut up in the island and could be of no service to their allies. Rochambeau had his first interview with Washington at Hartford; Fersen accompanied him on this occasion. He was delighted to see "this illustrious, not to say unique, man. His handsome and majestic face, at the same time sweet and honest, answers perfectly to his moral qualities; he has the appearance of a hero; he is very cold, speaks little, but is polite and courteous. An air of sadness overspreads his physiognomy, which suits him and makes him more interesting. His staff was larger than ours—the Marquis de Lafayette, General Knox, chief of the artillery, M. de Gouvion, a Frenchman, and six aides-de-camp. He had besides an escort of twenty-two dragoons, which was necessary as he was going through a country full of enemies."

Fersen had moments of great discouragement. There was occasionally a little coldness between Rochambeau and Washington; the operations were too slow for his taste; the tedium of the camp made him often unjust. At last, in June, 1781, he left Newport; he wrote a complete account of the operations which ended in the capitulation of Lord Cornwallis. The besieging army, from his account, was composed of 8,000 Frenchmen and about as many Americans. "We took in York 7,000 men, among whom there were 2,000 sick and 400 wounded, 400 fine horses and 174 guns." After this great event Fersen went to Philadelphia through Virginia. "The Virginians are like another race; instead of superintending their farms or trading, the proprietors wish to be lords. A white man never works; . . . there are twenty negroes at least in Virginia for one white. . . . The Virginians have aristocratic principles, and it is difficult to understand how they entered the general confederation and accepted a government based upon perfect equality." At Philadelphia there was an interview between Rochambeau and Washington, and Fersen was charged with embarking the siege artillery which had been left at West Point and bringing it to Baltimore. As he had only one ship to accompany his convoy, Fersen had to execute this operation very rapidly and very secretly.

Fersen remained after the departure of Rochambeau. He speaks very highly of this general: "He was the only man capable of commanding us here and of maintaining the perfect harmony which has reigned between two nations so different in their manners and their language, and which in their hearts do not like each other. There have never been any disputes between our two armies while we have been together, though we have had at times just complaints." M. de Rochambeau was a strong disciplinarian, and he won the just admiration of all parties. Fersen was sent to Porto-Cabello after the operations in America had come to an end. The signing of the peace with England allowed him soon afterwards to return to France. He had won his spurs in one of the most momentous and extraordinary wars of our age. He returned to France in the month of June, 1783. He was on the point of returning to Sweden in order to see his father when King Gustave III. ordered him to join him on a journey to Germany, Italy, and France. Fersen returned to Sweden towards the end of 1784 with the king. He was named colonel in the Swedish army; the king of France named him second colonel in the Deux-Ponts Regiment (named after the Duchy of Deux-Ponts). In September, 1783, he became full proprietor of the Royal Swedish Regiment, at the request of Gustavus Adolphus, and he was also placed on the list of French pensions for the sum of 20,000 livres (this pension was reduced in 1788 and suppressed in 1791). General Washington gave Fersen the order of the Cincinnati.

Towards 1783 Fersen was paying his court to Mlle. Necker, but young Staël of Holstein, his friend, was more successful than himself. Young Staël was minister of Sweden in Paris. Fersen wrote to his father: "M. Necker has at last taken his decision; he gives his daughter to Staël, and I am enchanted for his sake. He had many and powerful rivals, among whom was M. Pitt, who is now at the head of affairs in England; but the girl has preferred M. de Staël." The double service of Fersen in the French and in the Swedish army obliged him to make constant journeys. He saw in May, 1787, the closing of the Assembly of Notables. "The consequences of this assembly are great reforms in the households of the princes; . . . Comte d'Artois has given back to the king 400,000 livres on his household; the reform in the queen's stables amounts to 100,000 écus. . . . The king has reformed his equipage for the boar, the wolf, all the falcons, all that was called the *vol*." The Assembly of Notables had greater consequences than these paltry reforms. The spirit of the Revolution was felt everywhere, and young Staël, the representative of Gustave III., was imbued with it. In the Austrian Netherlands the spirit of revolt was rife; the Duke of Aremberg, the Catholic priests, the monks, were preaching independence. In 1787 Fersen accompanied his king to Finland in the unhappy war against Russia. Gustave III. was obliged to return to Sweden, which had been invaded by the Danes. Fersen's journal between 1780 and 1791 has unfortunately been lost. We shall next follow him with the help of his own journal and of his despatches through the revolutionary crisis of France, in which time he played a part the importance of which has not been suspected by the historian.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—IV.

THE STATUARY OF PAUL DUBOIS.

PARIS, August 11, 1878.

IN the middle of the Vestibule of Honor a door-way adorned with mosaic in glass, and bearing the legend *Beaux-Arts*, leads into the first of the long line of fine-art galleries. In these galleries the distinction between French and foreign is not preserved by a line drawn the length of the building; here alone the nations succeed one another, French and all others alike, each nationality taking the whole gallery in width. And the first room, that into which one enters by the "Fine-Art" door on the great vestibule, is devoted—as are the two next succeeding long, narrow galleries side by side—to the French sculpture which has been produced since the Paris Exhibition of 1867. The space thus occupied must be about seventy-five by one hundred and fifty feet, and contains perhaps three hundred and fifty works of sculpture of good size—erect and recumbent statues, a very few groups, many busts, especially portrait-busts of life size, medallions, and statuettes. But the French sculpture is not all in these rooms; there is some used purposely as decoration of the buildings and grounds; some large pieces or series are put in the "loggie," or out of doors altogether, for want of room within; then there are some which, for peculiar reasons, are connected with other exhibits; and, finally, the small-scale works—the medals and dies, the cameos and engravings on hard stones—are in a room by themselves. The numbers in the catalogue reach 388, representing about 360 larger and independent works, and for the rest the frames of small ones. This catalogue, though it includes sculpture not in the galleries—such as has just been spoken of—does not include the statues forming part of the Palace of the Champ de Mars or of that of the Trocadéro, nor yet the new works designed for this occasion and set up around fountains, etc., nor yet (of course) the well-known statues of antique or modern design which, in bronze, cast-iron, or other material, serve as the exhibits of foundries, nor yet the wilderness of smaller bronzes which are catalogued under "Groupe III.—*Mobilier et Accessoires*," as are also the larger castings not pretending to be new and original work.

It will be interesting to attempt the comparative appreciation of this mass of sculpture found in so many different shapes and conditions; but one thing must be kept clearly before us—the distinction between the works selected for the Exhibition by central authority, and those which have not been so selected, but come within the enclosure either as parts of the new buildings, and therefore only so far selected or approved as brief time and a vast undertaking would admit of; or else as merchandise, as works of ornamental furniture only, and therefore not receiving any critical approval at all. Among these two classes will be found very interesting works, but they have not been selected with care and comparison from the galleries of the Louvre and the Luxembourg, from the park of Compiègne and the garden of the Tuileries, from the collection of private persons or that of the Mint, as the best work of the decade,

That this selection has been made from a sufficiently large body of work is shown by the annual catalogue of the Salon. This year there are 640 numbers in the sculpture catalogue. It is safe to say that the Commission has had nearly or quite 6,000 works from among which to choose 350. A "Note" in the *Nation* some months ago called attention to the interest felt in sculpture, of late days, in Paris, to the growing tendency to throng the galleries of statuary, and to the powerful and wholesome influence over modern sculpture of the constantly increasing use of high-class works in the decoration of public buildings. It was just. The growth here of something like a true modern sculpture can hardly be denied. The work is in great quantity and its quality is the better for that. Much of the work is for public purposes, and its quality is the better for that. The most important of the work is set up in the sight of men, out of doors, or in interiors so spacious as to produce a similar effect; and the whole school is the better for that, as being made free from the wretched notion, nearly universal elsewhere, that a statue is a thing to help furnish a parlor, to be seen between the footmen in the dining-room, and to be made to vie with them in the elaboration of buttons and lace; or, at least, to please by waxy finish of flesh and minute and laborious imitation of the flow of love-locks.

If we consider only the selected and catalogued works, the general impression made by them is certainly one of strength, and of a large treatment of subject and of form. And to take, in the first place, the most marked instance of all that has been claimed for the existing French school, we have to go out of the galleries to where the marble tomb of General Juchault de Lamoricière is set up in a recess of the Rue de France. This tomb is intended to stand in the Cathedral of Nantes, in Brittany; no doubt the light of out-of-doors is more like that which it will have than would be the direct down-pour of white glare from a sky-light. The architectural design is by M. Boitte, and is uncommonly pleasing; a frank bit of early Renaissance, an open temple-like structure, perhaps fifteen feet long and twelve feet high. A flat and spreading base supports a second, higher and ornamental base, the top of which is about five feet from the pavement. Upon this rest the eight square pilasters and the eight columns which support the roof, and within them the couch upon which lies the statue of the general, as if composed to quiet sleep, covered as if by a veil so thin that it takes all the form of the body and limbs, the left arm lying by the side, the right raised so that the hand supports on the breast a small crucifix. This statue, with those we have still to describe, is by M. Paul Dubois. The columns support a continuous lintel, forming the architrave, and this in turn a roof in one large slab of marble, the edges of which form the cornice. It is perhaps to be wished that it had stopped there. Above the cornice rises a little "attic" or blocking course, or parapet, richly carved, light, not too large, but somehow smacking of the Neo-Grec style one gets to hate so; a contradiction of the calm repose of the rest of the design. Four seated statues are at the four corners, each resting upon the base which supports the couch and the recumbent figure. These are to be in bronze—two of them already are so, the other two are in the plaster; the tomb is completed, except for the finishing in the permanent material of these remaining figures. The dark greenish-black bronze will go well with the white marble; that there is no fear of. But one may regret the use of polished black marble mingled, in large masses, with the white. The eight round columns have their shafts of this black marble, and, above, the architrave is broken by a black slab on each face, bearing inscriptions. It is a pity; it gives a look of mourning, of the funeral ceremony, to that which should have been only monumental, and therefore permanent; its profound blackness takes away shadow and shade from delicate bas-reliefs around; it tends to destroy, what otherwise would be so strongly marked, the look of perfect reserve and quiet beauty, most unusual in a modern work of this kind.

The four corner statues are Military Courage, Charity, Meditation, and Faith; the first and third masculine, the others feminine. Charity is indeed a group, but the babies are so subordinate that I have spoken of it, involuntarily, as a statue. The woman is of full age, not beautiful, not aristocratic in feature, the head rather small than large, and the features rather strongly marked; a woman of the people, but a noble one. The head is veiled in a kerchief, which wholly hides the hair, but leaves the face exposed. The dress is not marked, not peculiar—simple bodice, and a skirt of which the folds surprise one as being large and deep for bronze. The two children in her lap she just encloses with her careful arms so that they sha'n't fall; one has gone to sleep, and is asleep all over, with a delightful abandonment of his limbs and head to easy slumber; the other, with some action and eagerness, holds back and away one side of the open bodice, to reach the motherly breast to which his lips are clinging. Courage is merely a warrior in military dress, holding a naked sword on which he partly leans, as the feet are drawn back and seem to take a part of his weight—as if the soldier might suddenly start up. The costume is especially noticeable here, for it is so easy to spoil your warrior by dwelling upon the details of his armor, and it is hard to say who now could dwell upon them and *not* spoil the statue, as Verocchio could. There is no cuirass nor greaves, but a leather coat of defence, admirably treated, and military buskins, a headpiece not unlike a sixteenth-century morion, but that it is crested by a dragon instead of the ridge or blade. The idea of the armed man is perfectly preserved, while one does not take much account of the armor. That, of course, was the object in view: probably it is best so in the case of an accessory figure like this; probably even if the sculptor felt himself able to treat minute detail as freely as a master of the Renaissance, he would have preferred to avoid it here. Meditation is an aged man, beardless and nearly bald, who holds a tablet and rests his forehead upon one hand. Faith—ah! the Faith is a gem. Observe that these allegories are not so likely to be absurd when set around this tomb as when sent to an exhibition and expected to speak for themselves. Faith and Charity are more easy to recognize here than if independent and no longer the supporters of a monumental design. But still it is evident that the characters are most unusually well marked. Faith is a young girl, with clasped hands raised toward heaven: the treatment of the dress, to describe which would only weary your readers, is of admirable simplicity and freedom. And if in the other statues the artist seems to have shunned treatment of the hair, here it is treated frankly and simply; half loosening itself from its braids, it falls in a single mass on the neck and downward.

All of these statues that can be described and explained is admirable. But one is left in doubt how to speak of the purely artistic side of it, the sculpturesque treatment, the modelling. That it is not antique is plain enough; that it has not antique perfection is plain enough. But ought it to have? That wonderful beauty of gently-modulated surfaces which makes the glory of ancient work, so common in classic times and so much a part of the common stock of all workmen that a marble head of even a late period and of inferior rank can be known as an antique by its comparative perfection, is nearly unknown in modern work. Our best efforts only approach it. No one but a sculptor, and a sculptor of freedom and mind and wide training, ought to be heard in positive characterization of any work of great sculpturesque merit. But it will be safe to say that probably our sculptors will approve these works highly—that they probably come closer than any except a half-dozen modern statues to real excellence of modelling. There is a statue by the same artist in the sculpture galleries, "Ève naissante" (Eve beginning life, shall we say?), in which this excellence is peculiarly marked. It is in the plaster, as it has to be, indeed, if one would be sure of a sculptor's actual handiwork—a girl of eighteen years, standing nearly erect. The hair is brought over the shoulder to the front, and falls between the breasts, and the two raised hands caress it slightly. The face expresses merely interested attention. The feet and hands seem rather large, though it is hard to judge of the feet, as they are left rather unfinished; perhaps the arch of the foot is not so great as one expects. The sculptor seems to have been resolute to avoid the *too much* in these conventional beauties of the form. Now, all that makes this figure remarkable, beyond its simplicity, is its unsurpassed delicacy of modelling. It is in a trying place, for what light could be worse than one that streams down upon the shoulders of an erect, nude statue, lighting all parts alike with its intense glare? (When will managers learn that if top-light is best for paintings, it is *worst* for statues? Out-of-doors would be far better; side-light would be better, even if not nearly strong enough.) This delicacy of modelling on which we are insisting, what is it good for but to invest the statue with tints of shade, hardly seen, wholly indescribable, but making the difference between delicate sculpture and coarse—which is much the same thing as the difference between good sculpture and bad? But this strong top-light on a statue that stands out in the gallery directly under the skylight is destructive of much of that play of shade. It is hardly too much to say that the upper parts of the figure cannot be seen at all; uniform whiteness, equal lighting, renders the form invisible. But, in spite of this, one cannot avoid the belief that this statue is of the first rank in modern art for truly "sculpturesque qualities."

And now, to avoid giving the fag end of a letter to other work perhaps as important as that of M. Dubois, let us name only what there is else of his work: a Narcissus in marble, in which I have not been interested,

though it is strong and good work ; a portrait bust of a most eminent painter, Henner ; a portrait bust of Baudry, the artist, who has done so much of the painting in the new Opera House—both of these in bronze—and two more portrait busts. All these works of sculpture are of different years. The Eve was in the Salon of 1873 ; the Narcissus in that of 1874, in which year the artist, who had been rewarded and *décoré* before, was made officer of the Legion of Honor ; two busts were in the Salon of 1875 ; in 1876 were exhibited, probably in the plaster, the statues of Charity and Military Courage, which now appear in bronze and in their destined places ; and in that year, besides a medal of honor, the artist received election to the Institute.

It is pleasant to enumerate these honors, as showing the recognition given to pursuits and studies which in English-speaking countries are admitted on sufferance and looked at doubtfully. In the regular line of promotion, an artist or a mere *littérateur* like Sainte-Beuve may gain a seat in the Senate. Will the Republic change all this, and give up the Senate to shrewd fellows who know how to rise to great offices by helping their friends to small ones ? We shall see in the course of another ten years, and by the time the next great Paris Exhibition is held. R. S.

Correspondence.

THE LATE HENRY ARMITT BROWN.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : The death of Henry Armitt Brown, which this community so deeply deplores, is really a public calamity ; and even while our grief is freshest and keenest I cannot forbear from stating to the readers of the *Nation* some of the qualities which compelled us to regard him as a man who gave very great promise of future usefulness.

He was a ripe scholar, not only in the classics, in history, in philosophy and literature, but he also spoke and wrote modern languages with unusual accuracy and elegance. He possessed special aptitude for society, and was the centre of every social gathering of which he was a part, by the charm of his conversation. He was a clear and forcible writer, using his brilliant rhetoric and his admirable gift of humor only when they were aids to the enforcement of his argument. He was entitled to be called, without any exaggeration, an accomplished orator. His judgment in political matters was so excellent that he could foresee and describe many of the grave misfortunes which would follow the attempt to consider as judicial the functions of the Returning Boards of Florida and Louisiana. His sense of honor was so delicate that he forbade his friends to solicit office for him, declaring that he could not enjoy it unless it was freely conferred, upon the ground of his fitness for it.

Above and beyond all these claims to our regard, the words which Mr. Burke wrote of his dead son exactly describe him : "He was made a public creature." His guiding and controlling purpose was to try to make the government of his country purer and stronger and better in all ways than he found it. I need hardly add that he was the instinctive foe of all manner of baseness and corruption in our politics, or that he was as chivalric in uttering his convictions as he was conscientious in forming them. The simple truth is that he never had any trouble in choosing the right side of any political question, for he never regarded it as a possible aid to his own ambition, but simply in its relation to the public welfare, and the causes he championed furnish the best evidence of the manner of man he was : municipal reform, honest money, civil-service reform, revenue reform, the restoration of fraternal feelings between all sections of the country, and the use of the lessons of the Revolution for the elevation of the spirit of our public life. For these great labors he was thoroughly equipped, and to them, if he had been spared to us, he would have devoted his life.

These are the reasons why we who knew and loved him feel sure that not only this city and State but the whole country has suffered in his untimely death, for, unfortunately, those other words of Mr. Burke are also applicable : "At this exigent moment the loss of a finished man is not easily supplied." Wayne MacVeagh.

Philadelphia, August 28, 1878.

Notes.

S. C. GRIGGS & CO., Chicago, will publish next month a 'Waverley Dictionary,' by May Rogers, which will be welcome to a place beside the Dickens Dictionary in every well-regulated library.——As was to be expected, Mr. Eggleston's 'Roxy,' now running through *Scribner's*, will be shortly brought out in book-form by that house.——A forthcoming privately-printed paper on "William Dawes, and his Ride with Paul Revere," by H. W. Holland, is likely to cause lively discussion among Boston antiquarians, already at loggerheads over Revere and his lantern-signals.——The early history of the Boston *Herald* is not so savory that it calls for record in book-form, and in fact the memorial volume just published by its present proprietors, apropos of their new quarters, is discreetly silent about some of the original sources of its prosperity. If something is thus lost in tracing the development of a low and scurrilous paper into a decent and able one, with a higher constituency, enough remains to make the narrative a curious and valuable contribution to the history of American journalism. A number of heliotype views show the principal offices of the new building.——Mr. F. W. Putnam, Permanent Secretary of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, has published at Salem, Mass., the Proceedings of the Nashville meeting, in August, 1877. Prof. Marsh's address on the Introduction and Succession of Vertebrate Life in America is perhaps the most striking paper in the volume.——A very full bibliography of Cyprus literature is given in the London *Bookseller* of August 6.——The teachers, principals, and head-masters of the greater London schools and universities have memorialized the English Premier to cause to be formed a Museum of Casts from the Antique, and to arrange for the delivery of lectures upon the history of Greek sculpture, to be illustrated by the collections of the British Museum. Lord Beaconsfield is favorable to the English applicants. Earl Cowper, on their behalf, affirms that £10,000 would be all the money required, and the rooms are ready at South Kensington Museum. This hint might well be acted upon by the trustees of the Metropolitan Museum with reference to the unsurpassed Cypriote collections of Gen. Cesnola, so important to the history of ancient art. ——Among the few historical works in Provençal are two rhymed accounts of the war against the Albigenses, and the war with Navarre in 1276–77. The author of the latter is Guillem Anelier of Toulouse, who by many is considered identical with the lyrical poet of the same name, of whose poems only four have come down to us. These have been edited recently with great care by Martin Gisi, under the title 'Der Troubadour Guillem Anelier von Toulouse' (Solothurn. 1877). The editor has prefixed a careful grammatical and metrical introduction, and each poem is accompanied by a German prose translation and copious notes, metrical, philological, and historical. The four poems belong to the class of *sirventes*, and in them the poet complains bitterly of the growing avarice and wickedness of the rich and noble, which he ascribes to the influence of the French and the priests. Gisi's work is a model of its kind, and will be found very useful to the student who still needs a master.——Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, sends us an excellent photographic likeness of the late Henry Armitt Brown, of that city, whose loss in the better politics and in literature is fitly estimated above by a correspondent.

—Mr. William Cushing's 'Index to the *North American Review*,' for the first 125 volumes, 1815–1877, has appeared, and makes a compact volume of 153 pages. It consists of two indexes, one of subjects (with the writers' names added) and the other of writers, and will, therefore, not only satisfy curiosity as to authorship, but help the student to judge of the weight to be attached to any particular review. It is needless to pick out from the long list of contributors the famous American names, famous in literature, science, and politics, which make the *Review* the most precious intellectual repertory of our nation and century. One is rather struck with the repetitions of the same name, sometimes representing several successive generations, which give us the Adamses, Allens, Danas, Everetts, Gilmans, Grays, Hales, Jameses, Nortons, Palfreys, Peabodys, Quincys, Uphams, Walkers, Wares, and Whitneys—genuine New England, and for the most part Boston, families, and again Boston Unitarian. Further, it is curious to note here and there an early essay in fields other than those in which the reviewer has distinguished himself, though it may be and is true, in some cases, that he has always maintained his interest in both. Thus, Dr. Asa Gray's first review was of Smyth on Presbyterianism and Prelacy, meet preparation for the exposure of Joseph Cook's theological recklessness ; Motley began with a review of Balzac, as Professor Bowen did of Cooper's novels ; Professor Felton first took up a text-book of geology ; Bancroft, Schiller's minor poems ; Professor Greene, Petrarch ; Professor Newcomb wrote on "Our Financial Future" as naturally as of the stars. Perhaps another cause of surprise is the number of women who have enjoyed the catholic hospitality of the *Review*. We have counted twenty-one, almost all married women, and we are certain that

some who have written have effectually concealed their names from the cataloguer. Mrs. Kirkland, Mrs. Sigourney, Mrs. Ellet, Mrs. Felton, Mrs. Sparks, Mrs. Gilman, Mrs. Ware, Mrs. Dall, Mrs. Vale Smith, Mrs. Mary Lowell Putnam, Mrs. Prescott Spofford, Mrs. Fanny Kemble Butler, and Mrs. Wister are the best known of them. Mrs. Kemble's sole review, by the way, is of Victor Hugo's writings. No less than eleven critics of Longfellow's genius are enumerated under his name; Whittier counts seven; Lowell, on the other hand, pays the penalty of his editorship by having no work later than his "Fable for Critics" reviewed. Mr. Cushing justly expects his Index to be of use not only to libraries and to such as own the *Review*, but to those who can consult it as required at some public library. His work has been excellently performed, and we can suggest no improvement upon it except that a brief statement of the origin of the *Review* and its successive editors and publishers might well be appended to the preface.

—Those whom the centenary year of J. J. Rousseau has led to review the incidents of his checkered career will have smiled once more at the astronomical episode so gayly narrated in the sixth book of the 'Confessions.' One figures him seated at midnight on the garden terrace at Charmettes, in slouched hat and quilted nightgown, his face aglow from the candle sunk in an earthen jar to light up the planisphere suspended overhead on four stakes, from which the near-sighted investigator turns to sweep the heavens with his glass. To the belated peasant he naturally seems a sorcerer brewing something for the approaching "sabbath," and the rustic scandal becomes so great that friendly jesuits advise him to carry his planisphere in-doors and consult it there in future. The difficulties which Jean Jacques experienced, and which his rude contrivance was intended to overcome, has lately been ingeniously solved by another amateur star-gazer, the Rev. James Freeman Clarke, of Boston. His device consists of a semi-cylindrical lantern, in which the front consists of a sheet of ground glass illuminated by four candles inserted from behind. On one end is a convenient handle, so that, to begin with, one has a very brilliant dark lantern, which has its uses in picking one's way over the ground or in consulting a text-book in the open air. In front of the ground glass, however, is a provision for inserting opaque paper slides on which the various constellations are printed, the stars being punctured to correspond with their respective magnitudes. The observer, therefore, has only to match the miniature sky-segment of the lantern with the genuine appearance in the heavens. Of course the search can be greatly facilitated by references to the pole star or the Great Bear, and this is done in a little manual which Lockwood, Brooks & Co. publish in connection with the lantern. At the same time Mr. D. Van Nostrand has issued a planisphere called "The Star-Finder," which, having a movable horizon, can be adjusted so as to show what part of the starry firmament is visible at any given hour of any month and day. Armed with these two instruments, the youthful astronomer finds the path smoothed for him to the utmost.

—Mr. C. F. Thwing, who has distinguished himself as an industrious collector of college statistics, has in the *Sunday Afternoon* for September an article upon Religion in Colleges, founded upon his special recent enquiries upon that interesting subject. So far from being, after the common notion of them, hot-beds of infidelity, it appears that the colleges are fertile fields which yield to the laborer sixty or an hundred-fold. Naturally the larger proportion of professed Christians is in the Western colleges, where the denominational influence is nearly always strong and the libraries comparatively free from German learning and French novels; but the Eastern colleges certainly hold their own. The most remarkable statement, perhaps, is that revivals, instead of being few, are nowhere more frequent or more rich in results; but there are sufficient reasons for this. There are in nearly all colleges a number of candidates for the ministry whose well-known youthful earnestness taken in connection with the intimate companionship of the students, particularly in smaller colleges, and the strong personal friendship of individuals, forms always a ready-laid train for explosion whenever the fervid moment comes and kindles the emotional life. The weight of authority, also, represented by the professors, who are usually Christian men, is to the student's mind nearly overpowering. It is to their credit that the colleges which have been thus favored have kept the revivals so much out of public notice that the announcement of them now comes as news even to a large part of the religious press.

—"A Lawyer" writes us apropos of a recent review in the *Nation*:

"You haven't said enough about Judge Smith's 'Elements of the Laws' yet. Fancy the consternation of the Count Johannes, of Citizen Steinway and other eminent Americans who have been decorated with exposition medals and orders, and of the great army of Americans who have been employed and paid by foreign princes and powers or are now in foreign employment and pay, at finding themselves disfranchised, disestablished as citizens, and made incapable of holding office, by the learned author of the 'Elements' (*vide* page 46 of the book)."

—Lt.-Col. Garrick Mallery, U.S.A., who has elsewhere undertaken to show that the American aborigines are not red or copper-colored, and had no notion of a Great Spirit, read at Nashville last August a still more important paper on "The Former and Present Number of Our Indians." This has been printed in the Proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and also separately. It is an effective piece of destructive criticism, and proves the utter baselessness of the traditional estimates of the Indian population of this continent. The author depicts the natives as moving gradually from the headwaters of the Columbia and Fraser Rivers towards the Mississippi Valley and the Atlantic coast, following the lines of rivers and lakes on account of their fish, and leaving one side, for want of horses, iron tools, and fire-arms, great tracts of the highest fertility, which the imagination of the early settlers peopled as thickly as their immediate neighborhood with dusky inhabitants. When the time came for the Atlantic tribes to be pushed into the interior, not only there was room for them in abundance (sometimes not very far off), but "the same civilization that pressed the Indian race from its chosen water-courses provided the facilities for its enjoyment of land which without them was uninhabitable." As for the wars with the whites, the state of warfare was normal to the Indians, at least to the more powerful tribes and confederacies, and if diminution is traceable to this cause, the whites have perhaps not very much on their conscience. Extermination was too often inferred from change of locality; and again, while on the one hand the multiplication of names for the same tribe enormously swelled the estimates of Indian strength, on the other the disappearance of the name was taken to mean extinction of the tribe. The contagious diseases of the whites have, Mr. Mallery thinks, destroyed more tribes by dispersion and absorption than by actual deaths, and he makes the noteworthy statement that the small-pox "has ceased to be a scourge to the tribes, the reports of fifty-six Agents in the years 1874, 1875, and 1876 not including any fatal case." The most striking example of over-estimate given by Mr. Mallery is that in regard to the Indians of Alaska, who even in the census of 1870 were set down by the Superintendent at about 70,000. Mr. Dall has lately carefully reckoned them for the same date at 25,704. "If such a change," says our author, "had been made after the Alaskans had been under an Agency, it would have been attributed either to fraud in the first enumeration for the purpose of swelling the ration return, or to the fated sudden mortality of all tribes connected with whites." Mr. Mallery's conclusion that the Indians are more numerous than they were when the country was first settled, and are increasing against all odds, has a practical bearing; for there can be no question that the popular notion that the Indians were passing away has at once encouraged the vile to speed their going, and deterred the good as if from a struggle against destiny.

—Those who remember or are interested in the French stage at the time when the elder Dumas was at the height of his fecundity as a dramatist, will recall the name of M. Hippolyte Hostein, who was the manager of the Théâtre-Historique which the author of 'Monte Christo' created for the performance of his own plays. For twenty years M. Hostein, who began as a medical student and as the author of medical monographs and children's books, was one of the leading managers of Paris; in 1868 he failed; at the opening of the Suez Canal he was appointed director of the Egyptian theatres; now he is back in Paris as a dramatic critic. The result of his varied experience is in part given in the volume of 'Historiettes et Souvenirs d'un Homme de Th tre' which he has recently published. It is a rather heterogeneous gathering, as such reminiscences are likely to be; but many of its anecdotes are fresh and amusing. It is curious, for instance, to be told that M. Fechter applied for an engagement at the Comédie-Française, which he failed to obtain because of his marked English accent. Perhaps the most interesting anecdote is one of Balzac, more characteristic than most of those which cluster around his name. Balzac, who always had a desire for success as a dramatist, was in 1847 a neighbor of M. Hostein. He paid him a visit one day, declaring his intention of writing a grand historical drama for the Théâtre-Historique—if Dumas made no opposition. Reassured by M. Hostein on this point, Balzac announced his subject, "Peter the Great and Catherine of Russia." The first act was already written—in his head—and M. Hostein prints for us Balzac's description of this first act,

a really suggestive introduction to the subject. The novelist left the manager in a great enthusiasm and building high hopes on the play. When next M. Hostein saw him he had given up the idea, at least temporarily, as it was too important to treat without full preliminary study. In place of it he offered another play, a parlor comedy so to speak, with a quiet whist party and family chat, from the heart of which presently was to spring an overpowering passion working itself up to a terrible climax. And then Balzac told how he had had the first hint of the situation, and M. Hostein's story deserves notice by all students of Balzac, for it is as characteristic as may be. This domestic tragedy he finally finished and read to M. Hostein and to Mme. Dorval, who was to play the leading part. When the actress heard the title, "Gertrude," she ventured a remark which Balzac checked at once. At the end of the second act, so long was the play, an adjournment was had to the next day. When the culminating scene was described, not shown, Mme. Dorval moved impatiently. Balzac glanced at her and said, "I understand," and then read to the end, when, without a pause, he said: "Too long; a quarter of the piece to be cut; a description to be changed into action." "And a title to be changed," added Mme. Dorval. The title was changed to "La Marâtre," and the play was a success.

BEESLY'S CATILINE.*

PROF. BEESLY has done well to republish these striking articles, which originally appeared in the *Fortnightly Review*, in the years from 1865 to 1869. They are five in number, two being devoted to Tiberius, two to Catiline and Clodius, and a fifth to Necker and Calonne. They belong to that class of writings which aim to reverse the popular judgment as to historical characters. Mr. Beesly undertakes to show that the three men whose names stand on his title-page have been deeply wronged by writers of a "literary class"—which class he holds in deep contempt (as if he himself did not belong to it); and he maintains, not by any means that they were estimable men, but that they were not so black as they have been painted, and that they were the victims of oligarchical conspiracy and misrepresentation.

These opinions are presented with great vivacity and incisiveness, and supported by ingenious and scholarly arguments. The criticism upon the senatorial leaders, and upon the statements of former writers, is always keen and instructive, although we cannot always accept the views that the author presents in the place of theirs. To tell the truth, he always appears as a theorist, as the champion of a foregone conclusion; he is no more an impartial seeker for truth than his opponents, but the representative of a school for whose doctrines he is determined to find support in the career of these men. The key to his theory is stated on page 83, "that the proletarian class has naturally a breadth of view which education, unless positive in its spirit, only tends to impair." Not many American democrats, we fancy, would advance so thorough democratic doctrine as this of the English positivist, and we must wish that he had explained himself a little more fully. What does he mean by *proletarian?* We heartily accept the doctrine that the *laboring* class—meaning by this the honest, intelligent, hard-working farmers and mechanics of any healthy condition of society—do possess a certain breadth of view which lends them a soundness of judgment upon great general movements in politics. Universal suffrage, for such a class, is a safe method to determine which of two great parties or of two well-known leaders is fittest to be trusted with the destinies of a nation. The mistake of our radical democracy has been precisely in ascribing these same qualifications to the prolétariat—that is, the class which is unable or unwilling to engage in regular industry. Prof. Beesly's fellow-positivist, Mr. Frederic Harrison, has lately given us, in the *Fortnightly Review*, some interesting illustrations of the political sense in the French working class; and it was this same class in this country, without much argument, but by strong moral sense and common sense, that carried us triumphantly to the abolition of slavery. But this is no *prolétariat*, in any accepted sense of the word; nor was the Roman plebs in the time of Cicero, whether we call it a prolétariat or not, a class that lived by honest industry. As Prof. von Treitschke says, it was at bottom because industry had no honor in the ancient world that the classic nations possessed no permanent vitality, and classic civilization came to an end. There is no parallel between the cases.

In his rehabilitation of Tiberius Prof. Beesly is not alone, although he was one of the earliest to advance this view. His arguments as to Catiline and Clodius are able, even brilliant, and well worth study. Every student of Cicero's orations ought to read his remarks carefully; but, after all, we cannot say that he has made out his point. Bad as the Roman Senate was, the Roman plebs was still worse. Nor is our author always accurate on points of detail. He tells us (p. 45) that the Senate proceeded "to depose Metellus from the tribunate and Cæsar from the prætorship—an assumption of power utterly unknown to the constitution." But the words of Suetonius (Julius, 16) are "administratione . . . summoverentur," which certainly mean only that they were suspended from the exercise of their functions—not so very great a stretch of the rather indefinite powers of the Roman Senate—and the action was afterwards reversed. Again (p. 49), he says that the Senate resolved "that no public business should be transacted till it [the law for the trial of Clodius] was carried." Now, Cicero's words (Ep. ad Att., i. 14, 5) are *ante quam rogatio lata esset;* and surely Mr. Beesly knows that *ferre legem* is not to "carry a law." The law had not been defeated, but the voting interrupted—*comitia dimittuntur*—and the Senate appears to have determined now that this proposition should take precedence of every other business.

In the discussion of the trial of Clodius Professor Beesly makes some very good points, and shows up thoroughly the inaccuracy and confusedness of Mr. Forsyth's account. We believe, for instance, that he is the first person who has pointed out (page 51) that the senatorial plan for the establishment of a *Quæstio* for this trial was to be voted on by the centuries rather than the tribes; but we do not think this fact has the importance he attributes to it. He holds that the object of the Senate was to establish a tribunal which could sentence to death; for "all these *Quæstiones perpetuæ* had been appointed by the people assembled in *comitia tributa*, and being regarded as mere committees of that assembly, they could not inflict capital punishment." But in this Mr. Beesly is mistaken. It is true the first *quæstio perpetua*, organized by the Calpurnian Law, B.C. 149, was established by the *comitia tributa;* but Sulla reorganized the whole system, remodelling the old courts and organizing new, and this he did as dictator, and of course through the *comitia centuriata* —for the dictator could not preside in the *comitia tributa* any more than the consul. The special *quæstio* for the trial of Clodius would, therefore, by the senatorial plan, have rested upon precisely the same authority as the *quæstiones perpetuæ;* and it is a sheer assumption of Mr. Beesly's that the Senate wished to inflict the punishment of death. Nor is it at all probable; for it would seem quite certain that this was a power of the centuriate comitia which could not be delegated (see Mommsen's History, vol. iii. p. 140); at any rate, it never was delegated. The Sempronian Law was intended absolutely to forbid putting a Roman citizen to death; and if the Senate wished to inflict this punishment, it could not make use of any regular process of law—it must have recourse to illegal or extra-legal methods, as in the case of Catiline's fellow-conspirators.

Again (page 45), Prof. Beesly makes a good deal of the point that the affair of the mysteries of Bona Dea, for which Clodius was tried, was an old story trumped up for the occasion; for the festival of Bona Dea, he argues, was May 1, while the events just discussed took place in January and February, B.C. 61. Now, it is true the *festival* of Bona Dea was May 1, but it does not follow that her *mysteries* were on the same date. It was not uncommon for the same deity to have more than one sacred day: the *Consualia*, for example, were August 21, while the sacrifice to Consus *in Aventino* was December 12. And he has overlooked the fact that according to Plutarch (Cic., 19) Cicero, after his third speech against Catiline (December 3), went to the house of a friend because his own house was in the hands of the women who were engaged in celebrating the rites of the Good Goddess. Thus the two principal points of Mr. Beesly's indictment of the Senate in the case of Clodius—that they hunted up an old and almost forgotten offence for political ends, and that they attempted, by an extraordinary process, to inflict the punishment of death upon him —fall to the ground. That the trial of Clodius was not a piece of political persecution we do not undertake to say; at any rate, the Senate has a right, as well as Catiline and Clodius themselves, to have no villany charged against it which cannot be proved.

The New Paul and Virginia. By W. H. Mallock. (New York: Scribner & Welford. 1878.)—'Positivism on an Island' pays the penalty of popularity by thus appearing in book-form. It was pre-eminently a *jeu d'esprit* that should have been allowed only the sparkle of a momentary existence. At first glance it seemed of doubtful value, and second thought is fatal to it. It has been so widely read that it is almost superfluous to say that it represents a materialistic professor and the

* 'Catiline, Clodius, and Tiberius. By Edward Spencer Beesly, Professor of History in University College, London.' London: Chapman & Hall. 1878. 8vo, pp. 169.

wife of an English clergyman, who seems to have led a loose life in her youth, cast upon an island where are all modern conveniences and luxuries in the shape of a house, rich furniture, delicate food and wine and the like. Here the pair, amid various interruptions, live upon such principles as Mr. Mallock appears to think are held by the scientific men of the day. But the gospel of exact thought, like all other religious speculation, lends itself with great facility to misconception, and hence to meaningless parody. Mr. Mallock has written a satire of words and not of things. True, he has added in an appendix justificatory extracts from Tyndall, Huxley, Frederic Harrison, and Miss Martineau; but the modern theory of the duties and capabilities of life, like every fragmentary and undeveloped system, has its extravagances and trivialities, due to individual champions, which, nevertheless, are mere excrescences, having no place in the heart of the matter. Mr. Mallock has seized upon these and burlesqued them without difficulty. Even when he does touch a doctrine with his wit, he is unfair. Impersonal immortality has little consolation for a bereaved mind, but it has some value. Mr. Mallock makes it the ground of one of what are thought his brightest hits, and shows a poor drowned wretch still living in the chocolate creams which his death has consigned to the palates of Paul and Virginia. It is very funny in its way, and one is disposed to laugh at this sort of immortality, unless by chance the remembered lines of Tennyson recall him to a truer feeling :

> "Whatever way my days decline,
> I felt and feel, though left alone,
> His being working in my own,
> The footsteps of his life in mine :
> . . . . . .
>
> "And so my passion hath not swerved
> To works of weakness, but I find
> An image comforting the mind,
> And in my grief a strength reserved

Satire should paint its prey as it is, and at the best that it is, to be effective. Satire like this of Mr. Mallock tends only to harden prejudice, impede toleration, and is besides a misrepresentation, perhaps unconscious but none the less to be condemned. The impression deepens in the mind that Mr. Mallock is not unlike the evangelical preacher ridiculing Popish mummeries of whose meaning he is ignorant—not unlike Diderot, whose wit played coarsely round the Immaculate Conception ; in other words, that his satire has no sting of truth, because he himself has no perception of the real significance of the doctrine he satirizes. Beneath the cleverness lies the hard Philistine rock, blind, impervious, barren.

Railroads: Their Origin and Problems. By Charles Francis Adams, jr. (New York : G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1878.)—The topics of this timely work are presented in the clear style and forcible manner characteristic of the author. The picturesque history of pioneer railway achievements, and of the fresh and deep impressions made upon the first witnesses of the new marvels, form an admirable prelude to the author's able discussion of existing railway phases. The strong faith in the perennial and absolute beneficence of railway effects which inspired the strenuous labors of projectors in the beginning, is in vivid contrast with the multitudinous social and commercial evils since begotten by the system, and so clearly portrayed in the closing portion of the work.

Each new radical advance in human accomplishment has, *pari passu* with its good results, always generated new, peculiar, and unforeseen troubles. Railways, from the magnitude and minuteness of their scope, create, and must create, unusual disturbances, until better understood and more wisely regulated. The first step toward curing railway defects is to gain a clear perception of their characteristics and causes. Mr. Adams has given us the fullest picture of both yet written, and in a form strikingly dramatic and impressive, though he has omitted all reference to some vicious features, and notably to the employment of powerful shippers as "eveners" or dividers of competitive traffic. Modes of suppressing social defects are necessarily experimental ; our ignorance can find no better guides than tests and blunders. By learning what to avoid we finally stumble upon what to do. One of the most valuable portions of this work, therefore, is the history and description of the remedial methods which have been and are being tried at home and abroad.

We cannot wholly follow Mr. Adams in some of his points. It is true railways can never be highways to the same extent that ordinary roads are, but they can be made highways in a lesser degree. They can be open for use by any suitable cars, at rates reasonably less than are currently charged in their own cars. Again, the competitive principle, which as partially applied has worked such grievous harm, would be more effective for good if compelled to an impartial and general application among shippers and localities, and this fact Mr. Adams inferentially recognizes. In all countries, even in this, some degree of railway regulation is practised. In the United States much of the best work of this sort in certain directions has been done through the courts ; and the various decisions reached in the various tribunals form a body of rules which govern and are enforced. The chief present question is, how far this code from the bench can be profitably enlarged by statute, and how infringements can be promptly detected and swiftly and certainly punished. The cautious manner in which legislation is recommended shows the prudent spirit with which Mr. Adams approaches the whole subject.

While combination is inevitable now, it has been seldom resorted to except as a protection against existing or threatened destructive competition. If by general regulation the need of such protection could be lessened, combination would mainly cease. When carried beyond aggregations of reasonable size it undoubtedly produces serious evils, though not of the class most dreaded by the public. Quasi-monopoly with reasonable governmental regulation seems to be the direction in which Mr. Adams would search for remedies. We believe he is right ; but no attempt to limit the free construction of new roads should be made a part of any programme. He very properly urges as the prime element in any legislation the presence of executive force. There must be also a body to investigate and publish. It need not be the enforcing power, but behind it must rest somewhere—in courts, the executive, or the public—the will and the ability to abate all features which prove to be common nuisances. Perhaps as potential a medicine as can be easily applied is constant publicity in tariffs. Secret rates breed more official corruption, work more commercial injustice, and tend more rapidly to the ruin of the unsuspecting and usually ignorant and trusting railway owner, than any other feature of the system now extant.

In seeking cures it will not be well to make haste too slowly. Boldness as well as caution should rule in making tests. Consideration is necessary, but so is energy, and some risk of mistakes must be taken. It is almost essential to discover *soon* better means for enforcing upon railway managers a closer adherence to justice in the performance of their public functions, and a wiser administration of the property entrusted to their management, as competent experts, by owners, who, for lack of trained capacity, are committed perforce to a blind and uncriticising confidence in their selected servants.

Mr. Adams has done an important public service in writing this book. It will command the thoughtful consideration of the better class of professional transporters, and cannot fail to attract and enlighten a large portion of unprofessional but interested people.

The Cossacks : A Tale of the Caucasus in 1852. By Count Leo Tolstoy. Translated from the Russian by Eugene Schuyler. (New York : Charles Scribner's Sons. 1878.)—Mr. Schuyler in introducing Count Tolstoy to the American public gives him a warm recommendation. He is, says his translator, now, perhaps, the most popular novelist in Russia, and, "after Turguenief, he is incontestably the best." Turgeneff himself is also quoted as declaring to Mr. Schuyler that he considered 'The Cossacks' "the finest and most perfect production of Russian literature." An introduction of this sort is apt to be a little dangerous, as it has a tendency to arouse the mind of the reader to an attitude of critical revolt. He prefers to find out an author's qualities for himself rather than to have himself forced into admiration by the weight of authority. Of course, with the judicial mind of the critic, no considerations of this sort can count for an instant, and we have read the 'Cossacks' without allowing Count Tolstoy's reputation to prejudice us in the least against him. The story is a very simple one. A young Russian noble, who has led a life of pleasure in Moscow, resolves to turn over a new leaf, and leaves home to join a regiment in the Caucasus. There he falls in love with a beautiful Cossack girl, to whom he proposes marriage. She is in love with a young Cossack, but apparently listens with favor to Olenin's suit, until at the critical moment the Cossack lover is killed or mortally wounded, when her old love revives and she sends Olenin off. So the story ends, if story it can be called, which is far more a collection of national types than a novel. Its strength consists mainly in the vigor and nicety with which the characters are drawn. The types are entirely foreign to our experience, and it is a strong proof of the author's ability that they should seem at all true to nature. Russian types, as those who are familiar with Turgeneff's novels know, have always a something in them that is grotesque to our eyes. Olenin, for instance, is a young man full of the ardor and impetuosity of youth, who

is longing to find some career for himself, and at the time he falls in love with the heroine thinks he has found one in what is known as "altruism." Yet he is represented at the outset as having "neither family nor country, nor faith nor wants. He believed in nothing and admitted nothing. But, though admitting nothing, he was not only not a sad, bored, and argumentative youth, but, on the contrary, constantly amused himself. He had decided that there was no such thing as love; and yet the presence of a young and pretty woman always gave him a sort of shiver. He had known for a long time that honors and titles were all folly; but he felt an involuntary satisfaction if, at a ball, Prince Serge walked up to him and made some complimentary remarks." This union of a fashionable, philosophical negation with a keen, practical zest for life and its pleasures is continually making its appearance in Russian stories. But Count Tolstoy is just as much at home in the Caucasus as in Moscow, and the semi-barbarous Cossack is drawn with the same skill that marks the picture of the civilized Muscovite. The heroine, gravely (and perhaps stupidly) beautiful, the boastful Eroshka, and the heroine's native lover, are all drawn with great vividness. The descriptions of the scenery and daily life of the frontier are good. But it seems to us that any comparison with Turgeneff, judging at least from this story, rather puts the author at a disadvantage. There is in Turgeneff a wonderful dramatic power which is altogether absent in 'The Cossacks.' Turgeneff's characters are not merely types, they are individuals playing a part in the story, and indissolubly bound together into one dramatic whole. The plot is determined, to a great extent, by the development of character, so that you can hardly say at the end how, with the *dramatis personæ*, it could have been different. No such connection between characters and plot exists in 'The Cossacks.' The characters are all life-like and real, but their destiny seems strictly controlled by the author. Consequently, although as a description of a certain sort of Russian life the story is valuable, it does not, as fiction, seem to us to be of great interest.

Homer. By the Rt. Hon. W. E. Gladstone. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878.)—What is needed in a primer of Homer or Shakspere or Dante is such comment as would naturally accompany a *viva-voce* translation or reading to persons who are wholly ignorant of the poets, such an elucidation of framework, characters, spirit, and the times as is essentially necessary to a real understanding of the poetry or greatly facilitates the study of it. Mr. Gladstone's 'Homer' is in many respects a model of such work. It is unencumbered with superfluous learning; it is not, like Professor Jebb's 'Primer of Greek Literature,' a shorter dictionary. The special theories of the author in regard to the analogy of Zeus, Athene, and Apollo to the Hebrew mythology are kept in the background; the whole effort is concentrated towards giving a notion of what place Homer, as a living poem, occupied in the Greek mind. In reading the short paragraphs one gets a sense that Homer was really an influence in Greek life such that there is a fitness in calling his poems the Bible of the Greeks; one comes to see along what lines of patriotic feeling, of national and local pride, of moral sentiment that influence pulsed; one perceives how the Greek conception of the actual ends and means of practical living is mirrored in these poems, and although there is as yet but little reflection upon the facts of life, it is not too much to say that a thoughtful reader, with some previous direct acquaintance with Greek, can see in this narrative of Homer the prophecy of Plato—a fact that indicates the historic value of the book, which is, of course, only incidental to its scope. There are, besides, accounts of the geography, cosmology, ethnology, and like matters, which serve as an introduction to the exhibition of the poet's work as a product of Greek experience and imagination; but these portions are technical and not difficult. The presentation of the Greek spirit and method in life is a rarer thing, and it is for this that the primer is valuable. Whether Homer is the name of a person or is a myth, whether he was born in Samos or Chios, whether he placed the Kimmerian land here or there, are for the purposes of this book questions of comparatively little interest; but to give the youth, who each year open Homer afresh, some notion of him beyond battlefield and dictionary, to show him as the beginning of a literature which never rivalled its founder, as the teacher of ideal living in manly and womanly ways who has never been surpassed by later observers, is a work which much needed to be done, and this little volume comes the nearest to accomplishing it of anything that we have seen. It is accurate in its portraiture, clear and simple in its lines of thought, and full of suggestions which an active mind, interested in intellectual and literary things, will follow out for itself.

Physiography. An Introduction to the Study of Nature. By T. H. Huxley, F.R.S. With Illustrations and Colored Plates. Second Edition. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878. 12mo, pp. xx. 384.)—The lectures which gave rise to this compact volume were delivered ten years ago to young people in London. Every one must regret that so long an interval has elapsed before the rare privilege of sitting under Professor Huxley's teachings could be shared by all English-reading children. The author's aim was to show the connection between the local natural phenomena and the universal, and for his audience he chose the Thames valley as the starting-point. The discourse begins with the physical conformation of the valley, and then passes to springs, rain and dew, snow and ice, evaporation, the atmosphere, etc., etc., and ends with the figure of the earth and map-making, the earth's movements, and the sun. The chapters whose titles we have not quoted deal with the tearing down and the building up of the solid land, with fluvial erosion and glaciers and the wear and tear caused by the sea, with earthquakes and volcanoes, peat-bogs and coal-mines, corals and foraminifera, the distribution of land and water, and so much else incidentally that a thorough study of this volume is worth more than all the ordinary school and many of the college courses in geology, biology, and physical geography. The model is so good, indeed, that it ought to be copied in its method by all teachers; and since text-books are a necessity in default of teachers worthy of the name, the best compliment that could be paid to Professor Huxley would be the production, in this country, of State or sectional treatises for use in the schools, substituting for the Thames the Connecticut, the Hudson, the Delaware, etc., or even smaller streams, and for the rest following the line laid down in 'Physiography,' without a slavish adherence to its language.

In working over these lectures the scientific progress of a decade has not been neglected, but changes still remain to be made wherever human knowledge is probably or confessedly incomplete. It is, for instance, no longer true, as stated with due caution on p. 87, that "oxygen and nitrogen are examples of gases which are not known in any other than the gaseous condition."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Avery (E. M.), Elements of Natural Philosophy	(Sheldon & Co.)
Byrne's Timber and Log Book: Ready Reckoner, etc.	(American News Co.) $0 35
Dickinson (W.), Glossary of Words in the Cumberland Dialect, swd.	(Trübner & Co.)
Duncan (Dr. T. C.), How to be Plump	(Duncan Bros.)
Encyclopædia Britannica. 9th ed., Vol. VIII., Ele-Fak	(Little, Brown & Co.)
Francesca of Rimini: a Poem	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Greg (W. R.), The Creed of Christendom	(Rose-Belford Pub. Co.) 1 50
Hart (Prof. J. M.), Goethe's Faust	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
Hill (Prof. A. S.), General Rules for Punctuation, revised ed., swd	(C. W. Sever) 25
Marshall (W. V.), Parallel and Meridian System of Map-Drawing, swd	(A. S. Barnes & Co.) 20
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Palmer (J. A.), Elements of Book-keeping	(Sheldon & Co.)
Skeat (Rev. W. W.) and Nodal (J. H.), List of Works Illustrative of English Dialects, 3 parts, swd	(Trübner & Co.)
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Continued from page iii.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 5, 1878.

The Week.

AT New Orleans and Vicksburg the yellow fever has very much increased in virulence, and the number of daily cases has nearly doubled. At Memphis it is reported that it is impossible to bury the dead rapidly enough, and several neglected bodies have been found lying in houses or out-of-the-way places. Riot and bloodshed have been added to the list of terrors. At Grenada there is no improvement. At Port Gibson there is a panic, and only six hundred persons, of whom four hundred are ill, remain in the town. The same state of affairs is imminent in Jackson and other infected places. The whole Southwest is now virtually cut off from traffic with the world, except for the interchange of requests for aid and offers of relief. The daily subscriptions are probably not less than ten thousand dollars, and come from all parts of the country. The Howard Association asks for provisions and supplies as being more needed than money at present. The Government has strained its powers to give aid by issuing rations, tents, and the like from the War Department, and is called on for further relief. Business is of course suspended, and the cotton crop is expected to suffer from not being properly picked and from prolonged delay in shipping. One would hardly have believed without experience that all social affairs could be so much deranged by so simple a cause.

The Silver Conference in Paris closed on Wednesday, the 29th ult., and ended, as most people expected it would end, in a failure to agree on anything. The foreign delegates, however, before separating resolved that, while it was desirable that gold and silver should both continue to circulate as money, each nation should do as it pleased about the matter; or, in other words, declared that though a fox without a tail was a very good-looking animal, each fox should decide for himself whether he would wear his tail or not. The fatal defect in the American case was that it was well known to the Europeans that we had, without any reflection and in deference to considerations in no degree scientific, rushed into a situation which was alarming our wisest heads, but in which it is for the interest of most European countries that we should stay, as they all want an outlet for their superabundant silver. They consequently listened both to our politicians and economists with politeness, but probably laughed among themselves over our plight and over our simplicity in supposing they were going to help us out of it. The best thing for us to do now is to consider seriously, and with no more cursing and yelling, how to prevent silver from driving gold out of use and becoming our sole standard.

Mr. A. B. Cornell last week issued a circular inviting several Republicans of all shades of opinion to meet at Saratoga and consult as to the advisability of holding a full State Convention. It was largely attended, and the greatest harmony prevailed, since those who were not friends of Mr. Conkling apparently stayed away. Ex-Governor Morgan sent a letter advising an endorsement of the President, but this bit of humor was unique. The event of the Conference was the reading of a letter from Mr. Conkling, in which he said that the government of the country was rapidly passing into the hands of "those who sought to destroy it"; that "vast" Treasury raids were "mustering"; that "wild schemes of repudiation, financial chaos, and revolution find encouragement on every hand"; that New York, as the greatest commercial State and "largest taxpayer," had an interest in these matters. This, however, was no more than the Conkling press has been saying for some time; but Mr. Conkling had originated a refinement upon their appeal for harmony to which none of his editorial friends had been equal. He went on to say, in words which would have struck dismay to the hearts of his supporters had they been believed, that not only do these considerations dwarf all home issues and make harmony most needful of all things, but, further, they even make Mr. Conkling himself insignificant; and to a confession of his unworthy discharge of senatorial duty he added an injunction that no interests of any individual should even seem to enter their conference. This game of dissimulation, of patriotic self-sacrifice, of professed modesty, is cleverer than the dictation, blackguardism, rough-and-tumble way of Rochester, but it passes Mr. Conkling's skill to play it. It is so transparent that this humility emerges only where it is absolutely certain that no advantage will be taken of it, it is so clear that its only aim is to point his own magnanimity in contrast with the ungenerous partisanship of his enemies, that one wonders he should have expected so thin a veil to hide anything. There have been few things in recent politics more comical than this transformation scene at Saratoga in which the Senator attitudinizes as the unworthy steward. Translated into ordinary Conkling language, the letter means that the present is a time for "wise and timely counsel" to the end that Roscoe Conkling may be returned to the Senate as the saviour of New York's financial interests and protector of the rights of man; and while this great work is going on, he will lie close and play modest so that it may be easier for his friends to carry on his canvass under the cry of harmony.

Nothing much more discreditable, as affecting the relations of North and South in politics and law, has occurred of late than the refusal of Governor Rice, of Massachusetts, to surrender Kimpton, the late financial agent of South Carolina, in compliance with the requisition of Governor Hampton, on an indictment charging him with bribing the Legislature. The excuse for it is that the South Carolina authorities do not want to try him, but to use him as a witness. Governor Rice accordingly pleads "the practice of the executive of the Commonwealth to deny a requisition when it appears that the purpose of the requisition is other and different from that of the trial of the alleged offender upon the indictment," etc. If Kimpton had been asked for by a Republican governor there is little doubt he would have been surrendered. That he should not have been surrendered is a great shame and scandal, considering the part he played in the plunder of South Carolina by the Ring. The appearance of Chamberlain as counsel in the case for his old confederate gave the final touch of indecency to the scene.

The report of the Attorney-General on which Governor Rice bases his refusal is, to say the least, disingenuous. He cites the case of Taylor *agt.* Taintor in support of the Governor's discretion, without mentioning that all it decided was that a governor's "duty to surrender was not absolute and unqualified," and that if the fugitive is undergoing a sentence in the State to which he has fled, "the duty of obedience" to the requisition arises "when the demands of the (local) laws have been satisfied, and not before." It gives no color to the extraordinary doctrine that a governor's discretion is unlimited. One reason he gives for advising the Governor not to deliver Kimpton is that, though his alleged offence was committed in 1872, no attempt was made to prosecute him or his co-defendants until April, 1877, the fact being that the government of the State where the offence was committed was in the hands of Kimpton's confederates until April, 1877. South Carolina might just as well have refused to surrender Tweed because no indictment for frauds committed while he was a supervisor in 1860 were found against him till 1871. The other reason, and the only one, is that "negotiations have been going on for

several months" between the authorities of South Carolina and Kimpton, by which he was promised immunity if he would return to the State and volunteer as a witness in her courts; that is, Governor Rice is advised to refuse to deliver a criminal lest he should be employed to convict his fellow-criminals, one of the commonest and most needful modes of preventing a total failure of justice. The Attorney-General says that all this is in accordance with the practice of Massachusetts since 1801, but he carefully refrains from citing a single example of a similar, or, indeed, of any, exercise of discretion. Chapter 177 of the General Statutes of Massachusetts, to which he refers with an appearance of awe, as something he dares not advise the Governor to treat as unconstitutional—thus giving the unlearned reader the impression that this statute in some manner constrains Mr. Rice to refuse Kimpton—simply says that the Governor *may* obtain the Attorney-General's opinion as "to the legality or expediency of complying with the requisition," and that "if the Governor is satisfied that the demand is according to law and right to be complied with," he shall deliver the prisoner.

The Kansas Republicans had difficulty with the financial planks of their platform. As originally framed the resolutions declared for an "early securing of a currency convertible into coin," "general resumption," an amendment to the silver legislation which would secure for the silver dollar "perfect equality with the gold dollar," and the substitution of Government currency for national-bank notes. They were modified the second day so as to "denounce the issue of an irredeemable, absolute-money, legal-tender scrip as a species of repudiation," to favor "an honest greenback which shall always be worth its face in coin," and the "passage of a law by Congress by which the volume of greenback currency in circulation shall always obey the natural law of supply and demand," and to assert faith in a "double standard." This is unsatisfactory enough; but it reveals the tendency of Republicanism everywhere toward sound views, and is a sign of good omen that the paper-money heresies at the West are growing weaker.

After the slogan of Kearney, with which the Butler campaign in Massachusetts began, the letter of acceptance which the General has put out as a platform is so near respectability as to be very tame reading. We doubt whether one in ten of the fifty thousand petitioners to whom it is addressed will read it through. It is limited to State affairs, as, in Butler's opinion, national issues are not at all involved, and declares against Boards of Commissioners, both as a useless expense and because the Governor ought to be something more than a "figure-head"; is opposed to the double taxation of mortgaged property; calls for a revival of usury laws; and proposes a sort of stay-law by which for at least fifteen months a mortgage may be redeemed, no contract by the improvident to the contrary availing, as is the case in some of the Western States, and one of the most powerful inducements to debt among farmers which the West, fertile in such matters, affords. The danger now is that in this campaign the citizens will be too sure of Butler's defeat, on the ground that Kearney has disgusted the voters and dragged down Butler with him. Without the Democrats, however, he is reasonably sure of fifty or seventy thousand votes, and this means danger of success. Something besides "a beating of the long roll" and "fireworks and plenty of them" will be needed, or Massachusetts will have a governor who certainly, whatever else he is, in his own words, will be "no figure-head."

Mr. Bayard, of Delaware, delivered a speech at Newport, in that State, on Thursday last, on the cause and remedy of the present depression, which, as a piece of grave, forcible, and lucid argument, has not, we think, been equalled by anything which the present crisis has called out, and which reminds us of the constancy and ability with which he has, amid the widespread unfaithfulness of the politicians of both parties, stood by all sound principles of government during the last ten eventful years. There is no question of the day on which, as far as our observation has gone, he has uttered an uncertain word, and he has treated no question which he had not mastered. Instead of resorting to the common dodge among statesmen of fixing on something as of such stupendous importance that all other reforms, however respectable, must be abandoned in order to look after it, he shows in the speech before us that currency reform and civil-service reform and tariff reform all go together, and are the things needed to restore peace and prosperity, but he does not say in the whole of it one word in praise or blame of either of the two great parties. We have read no more powerful exposition of the folly and danger of giving Congress power over the volume of the currency.

The scandal about Bishop McCroskry, of Michigan, which has for some months been making occasional appearances in the newspapers, has culminated in his formal deposition by the House of Bishops from "the sacred ministry and all the offices thereof." This is the result not of an investigation of the charges against him, which was impossible in his absence, but of his abandonment of his diocese and of the territory of the United States "while grave allegations touching his moral character existed." As he has probably no good defence to these charges, the public cannot but be grateful to him for withdrawing without enquiry, and thus saving us another mass of disgusting details. The enormous growth of newspaper enterprise within the last twenty years, and the increased pertinacity and unscrupulousness of reporters, have converted all investigations into cases of this kind into public calamities hardly inferior to pestilence, and the accused man who runs away really lays the community under great obligations.

The Treasury has resolved to meet the difficulty experienced in getting the silver into circulation by paying it out to anybody who calls for it in sums of not less than $1,000, at any sub-treasury or national-bank depository in any part of the country; in other words, it is going to distribute it at its own expense, if possible. Moreover, national-bank notes sent in for redemption in multiples of $1,000 will now be redeemed in standard silver dollars, which is practically beginning to resume in silver. In this way it is confidently hoped, it is said, that the $10,000,000 silver dollars now in the Treasury will be put afloat, and to a considerable extent kept afloat until the great day when gold, silver, and paper shall be equally valuable. The Secretary's fear is that the silver will come back again very rapidly, as hitherto, in the payment of customs duties, and apparently persons suspected of intending to use silver for this purpose are in some manner to be discouraged. In short, the Government is going further than it has yet done in friendship for silver. It will be carried to the various distributing points with care, well lodged, and every pains will be taken to see that it falls into the hands of kind and humane owners. The West may, we think, now be satisfied that all neglect and ill-usage of this beautiful and long-suffering metal is at an end.

The Wall Street markets have been, on the whole, spiritless, though steady as to values. The speculative transactions were barely half the amount of those for the corresponding period of last year, the larger operators having assumed a waiting attitude. United States bonds, however, remain active, especially the fives and sixes of 1881, prices being generally firm. The foreign exchanges no longer sympathize with the high rate of the Bank of England, nor has the advance of the Imperial Bank of Germany rate to 5 per cent. visibly affected the market. The current supply of commercial bills is fully adequate to the demand, and the probabilities are that when cotton bills are forthcoming in liberal amounts, gold may begin to flow hither from Europe. Notwithstanding this aspect of the exchanges, the gold premium remains quite steady at $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{5}{8}$. The monthly returns of the Bureau of Statistics show that the net export

of specie from the United States, for the first seven months of the calendar year, amounted to but $301,000, against $25,045,000 for the like period of 1877. The total imports of goods and specie for the seven months were valued at $269,877,000, while the value of the exports was $436,422,000, showing an excess of exports amounting to $166,545,000 upon the seven months' trade. The fall trade in this city has thus far been satisfactory, which is, perhaps, more than can be said of any season since 1873.

The good faith of the Mexican Government, and its desire to take away every pretext for an aggressive war on the part of the United States, have been shown by its abolishing the so-called "Free Zone," which has afforded the greatest temptation and no small opportunity for smuggling, perhaps the principal source of trouble on that frontier. This strip runs along the Rio Grande, and the free admission of all sorts of merchandise was conceded some twenty years ago as a special privilege to the inhabitants of the district. Hereafter commercial intercourse is forbidden at all points except at Matamoras and New Laredo. This edict has been followed up by the despatch of troops to the Rio Grande, to suppress Indian raiding, and already we hear of an alcade co-operating with General Mackenzie to recover stolen American cattle. At the same time the Governor of Ohio publishes a letter from an army officer in Texas, offering his services in the probable event of a State call for volunteers for war with Mexico.

There is considerable perturbation in English political circles over the news from Central Asia, in which Russia appears to have resumed her onward march. She has sent an embassy to Cabul to make friends with Shir Ali, the Amir of Afghanistan, who has ever since he gained the throne in 1869 been a bone of contention, as his territory is now almost all that separates the Russian from the British frontier, and his people are warlike. At his accession he seemed more disposed to throw himself into the arms of the British, and he probably would have done so if they had agreed to guarantee him against his rebellious feudatories or Serdars. But Lord Mayo, after a long conference, refused to do anything more than give him some money, and arms. With this he professed to be content, and at the conference between Lord Clarendon and Prince Gortchakoff at Heidelberg in 1869 the latter treated him as a British vassal, and made it a part of the understanding that Russia was not to go beyond the Oxus, that England was to keep the Amir quiet and well behaved. He has wavered to and fro a good deal since then, but appears finally to have determined to throw in his lot with Russia, and has written a curious letter to the Sultan, which has been published, sympathizing with him in his misfortunes, and warning him against the English as a bad and perfidious lot, and advising him to make friends with the Russians. He has been put into this bad humor by a late British expedition against the Afridis, semi-independent warlike tribes in the south; and by the occupation, as a result of this expedition, of the famous Khyber Pass. General Kaufmann has now sent him a mission and is following it up by a military force pushing for the head basin of the Oxus. So the Indian Government has sent him a mission too, consisting of General Chamberlain escorted by a regiment of cavalry. The Government confess in the House of Commons that the news is very grave, but say that they are giving it their best attention. The fact is, the fierce abuse of Russia by the English press and public men, the futile but irritating opposition to her about Turkey, and the secret Convention of June 5, guaranteeing Asiatic Turkey, have let the devil loose again in Central Asia, and no man knows how or when he will be chained up.

The actual working of the Asiatic Convention looks more difficult the more it is examined. The ministers have confessed that when they concocted it they really made no plan as to the reform of Asiatic Turkey, and will now have to trust to their luck with the Sultan. He has manfully met their importunities thus far by the undeniable statement that the needful machinery for the reforms they are seeking would cost a million sterling, and that there is not a cent in his treasury. So that "reform" is at a stand-still. Where the money will come from nobody as yet knows. England will certainly not supply it unless she has the spending of it, and this he will not consent to because it would impair his sovereignty. Some curious light has been thrown on the value of the Indian troops for warfare in that part of the world by the fact that some regiments cannot be sent home until rations suited to their caste are received from Bombay, they being unable to cook their food on shipboard without exposing themselves to temporal and eternal ruin. The Conservatives, in their late exultation, have been trying the public credulity a good deal by the fervor of their language. Lord Salisbury has spoken of the Sultan as a "powerful and enlightened ruler," and now comes somebody else who styles the Bosnian beys "a fine old yeomanry." The performances of the truthful and upright Turk in Cyprus seem likely, however, to shake the Jingo faith a good deal. The honest fellow, as soon as he found Cyprus was to be ceded, gathered in this year's taxes in advance, so that the British Government have to administer the island till next summer out of their own pockets. It is plainer and plainer, too, that any decent administration of the island will cost far more than the Turks spent on it, and the preliminary outlay on roads, harbors, and public buildings must be very great; but then there is no doubt the yield of taxation will by and by be much greater than the Turks ever obtained; the Turks, however, get the surplus over a certain amount.

The occupation of Herzegovina is still incomplete, but Nevesinye has been taken with little opposition, the inhabitants disarmed, and a civil government set up, and from the Narenta to Liubinye the Austrian sway is undisputed. Trebinye still holds out, and there has been a fight for the citadel between the regulars holding it and the insurgents. An advance upon the town from the direction of Fotcha is reported. In Kolashin (presumably the town of that name on the northern frontier of Montenegro) the Mohammedan population have seized the fortifications in spite of the resistance of two battalions of Turkish regulars, who have retired upon Novi-Bazar. At Serayevo a council of citizens of all religious beliefs, including four Jews, has been appointed. General Szapáry is still on the defensive at Doboi, and on August 30 had an artillery engagement by day and a musketry engagement by night, each lasting for several hours. The Austrians report only 1,500 as their total loss so far in the Bosnian campaign.

The law against the Socialists presented by Prussia to the Federal Council prohibits democratic-socialist associations, meetings, and publications "tending to sap the bases of political and social order." Any of the State governments can prohibit a club or association by a simple police order, and persons offending against the order are to be presented before a court composed of nine members, sitting at Berlin, and chosen by the Federal Council and appointed by the Emperor. The court will not pass upon the character of the association, but upon the simple fact whether the accused has disobeyed the police. Any person belonging to a prohibited association, or collecting funds for it, or furnishing it with a place of meeting, or distributing its publications, will be liable to fine and imprisonment, and the police are to have the right of expelling any person from German soil who is engaged in Socialistic propagandism, and to close printing-offices devoted to the printing of Socialistic publications. The State governments, too, are to have the right, with the approval of the Federal Council, of proclaiming in their respective territories a sort of state of siege, in which all meetings and distribution of publications, and even the carrying of arms, will require a preliminary police permit. The probable result of this legislation will be a period of secret assassinations and conspiracies with which it will be very difficult to deal. The French, in watching the German struggles with the evil, will probably prefer their own plan—of letting Socialism come to a head once in twenty years, and then killing some thousands of the most active and bloodthirsty apostles.

A SOUTHERN REBUKE OF BOURBONISM.

THOSE Northern journals which eye the South as a basilisk, and pick up from obscure country papers in Mississippi or Arkansas sundry "Bourbon" paragraphs to justify their suspicions, have made much of a speech recently delivered at Edgefield, at the opening of the Democratic campaign in South Carolina, by a General Gary, who is said to be a candidate for the United States Senate. What they have to say is uninteresting, as they use it merely as a text for the familiar warning of the probable action of a "solid South" in power; nor would the speech itself have undergone any hardship had it been suffered to die unreported; but what has been said about it at home, from the national bearings of the spirit which that criticism evinces, is a sign of the times and worth attending to. General Gary remarked that he "had been charmed with the far-reaching statesmanship displayed in the witty and eloquent speech of Judge Mackey"—words which that gentleman two years or more ago certainly never expected to hear from such lips—and went on to remind his hearers that "as far back as 1874 I announced, in a speech that I made in the Tax-payers' Convention, that in my humble judgment the mistake which our leaders were making was in considering the differences between the negro and white man a difference of politics, instead of a difference in point of fact of race," and he added that "this same idea was incorporated in the State Democratic platform." It is further stated by one of his critics that "the address abounded in unwarranted abuse and ridicule of the colored race." Here was a sweet morsel for Foster, Blaine, and Conkling, and all who believe that a promise-breaking, Constitution-despising South is insulting and violating the sacred rights of man. More than one editorial article appeared at the North, and notably one in the New York *Times*, charging that this was proof of Governor Hampton's surrender to the Bourbon element in his party in order to secure a re-election.

The intemperate and foolish speech had its inevitable result. The colored population of Edgefield County, forming a large majority of the voters, was frightened; and, in the judgment of the leading Charleston paper, "it will take some time to satisfy them that the Democracy in general do not regard them as being as sly as the 'possum and as obstinate as the mule." But apart from the immediate political effect of the address in alienating voters, Democratic sentiment elsewhere in the State did not accord with it. General Gray, who presumably had stood with General Gary "shoulder to shoulder and knee to knee" for the Lost Cause, as the Southerners are fond of putting it, wrote a letter to the press to this effect: "As an individual I feel compelled to say that General Gary did not express my sentiments towards the colored race, nor, in my opinion, those of the Democracy of the State. I have yet to converse with the first Democrat present who does not pronounce his speech unwise, impolitic, and in violation of the avowed policy and tenets of the Democratic party." General Gary's feelings on reading this were probably, *mutatis mutandis*, those of the Union veterans of Chicago who refused to honor the President on the ground that he had betrayed all they had fought for. General Gary wrote, however, an elaborate defence, which he winds up by saying: "I do not suppose that any one will dispute or care to share with General Gray the honor of having brought about, by *his invitation*, 'the first instance where *colored* troops have marched in line with the *white* citizen soldiery of South Carolina.' He claims that 'the event is a natural result of Hampton Democracy.' I suppose we shall next hear of '*dining*' or *dancing* with the colored brothers and sisters as events the natural result of Hampton Democracy"; a sneer which shows a simply childish confusion of the social and political aspects of the negro question. General Gary's explanation, however, only called down on his head more thunders from the leaders of the party, and the Charleston *News and Courier*, which had before commented unfavorably on his words, now mildly but firmly, and with a delightful directness, proceeds to read him out of the true Democracy in these words: "In making such an issue, if he continues to make it, General Gary puts himself outside the Democratic party. . . . He must be treated like any other Democrat who is in open rebellion against the Democratic party. The articles of war apply equally to the officer and to the private in the ranks."

This story has been told somewhat in detail because it shows the folly of much that has been said at the North upon the matter, but mainly because of the plain evidence it gives that there is a party at the South who are on the right road toward a rational solution of the negro question, which is to home politics there what the labor question is to Massachusetts or Pennsylvania. In consequence of the action of the President in leaving Southern society to work out its own salvation, there may be some parts of the country where negroes do not possess in full the political privileges to which the Constitution entitles them. If it be so, however, it is the fault of the character of society in those regions, and cannot be remedied unless, as we have frequently said, the Government should make up its mind to keep them in prolonged tutelage until a radical social change can be worked out and a practically new society organized; and this cannot be done. It is, therefore, a sign to be hailed with satisfaction when, as appears in this little South Carolina controversy, there really is an active and aggressive party at the South which is beginning to look on the negro as a political animal, and to direct its efforts, not toward blackguarding him for being more than he ought to be, but toward managing him as he is—toward developing a system which shall secure the control of a State whose population is in the main ignorant and poor by the intelligent and more fortunate of its citizens. Of course this can be done finally only by the diffusion of information and the development in the colored race of political instincts and aptitude for government, of which they have as yet shown little except imitativeness. Meanwhile, before this can be done, the mastery of the State must be secured for intelligence. South Carolina has been trying one method, and successfully. The doctrine that a recognition of the full political rights of the negroes is the first condition of a peacable control over them has been made the basis of the actual administration of affairs. Since this was done the increase of material prosperity has been great, and the decrease of crime such that it is doubtful whether it can be paralleled in many other States. The reports recently made by the circuit judges and circuit solicitors must be considered decisive of a great improvement in civil order since the carpet-bag administrations. In the First Circuit there were, in June, 1877, 172 cases in the hands of the solicitor; in November there were 114 new cases; in February, 1878, only 51 new cases, and in June 60. In the Second Circuit there were in June only 26 cases from three large counties. In the Third Circuit, "only one case in two years where a white man was charged with an offence against a colored person." In the Fourth Circuit, "prior to the installation of Governor Hampton atrocious crimes were common," but now are very rare. In the Seventh Circuit the number of crimes is only "one-fifth of what it was before Hampton's installation." All the reports, which, it must be remembered, are from Republicans as well as Democrats, show a remarkable absence of crime committed by whites upon negroes. The State is, therefore, in a fair way to show by experience that its method of dealing with the negroes is the right one, and wiser than any plan followed in other States. Other States, indeed, like Mississippi, will be forced to fall into line and follow South Carolina in her methods by the most irresistible of social forces—the desire for material prosperity. Even for the most barbarous and bigoted parts of the South no more convincing proof of the error of their ways of terrorism or fraud can be devised than the example of a neighboring State following more enlightened methods, and thus living in peace and outstripping them in the race. This is the position of South Carolina now, and Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi must sooner or later learn her ways.

The work is still far from completion even there. Many doubtless think with General Gary, although his words receive no public echo. The Edgefield rule, that colored Democrats cannot vote in the primary elections, silly and short-sighted as it is, shows the

strength of Bourbon prejudice. But these things remedy themselves. Negroes will not long remain faithful under such regulations as these; and so long as there is a nucleus of a party who are convinced that the political difficulty of the negro vote is to be faced by directing rather than destroying it, and who have the power to make their convictions influential in shaping party measures, the course of events is their best ally, and all the multiform forces involved in renewed prosperity work with them, gain them adherents, and keep them in power. For these reasons South Carolina is today in a more promising, prosperous, and satisfactory condition than any other cotton State.

THE CAUCUS IN ENGLAND.

THE Liberal party in England is just now passing through a period of great trial and difficulty. It has, with the exception of brief intervals, held the confidence of the country ever since 1832, and has been during all that period very much what the Democratic party was in this country during the first half of the century—the party of hope and progress, to which everybody who desired change and expected much from change looked for the realization of his dreams, and into which the young men drifted naturally. During that period, too, it may be said to have converted the old, arrogant, and conservative England of the eighteenth century into a new England, devoted beyond any other nation in Europe to political and social experimentation, and ostentatious in its neglect of the art of war. The enormous success of its earlier reforms, however, blinded it to the fact that John Bull is not naturally a reformer, and that to make him submit to reform at all it has to be imposed on him slowly and with caution, so that Mr. Gladstone's activity in the latter years of his administration ended by causing general alarm and misgiving. The success of the policy of free-trade, too, as shown in the prodigious growth of commerce and manufactures, and the diminution of pauperism between 1847 and 1867, blinded the party to the fact that no amount of material prosperity is sufficient to extinguish in the English mind what is now called the "imperial idea"—that is, the idea that England is entitled by her strength and traditions to the luxury of a vigorous, meddlesome, even haughty foreign policy. This idea has been greatly stimulated by the closer contact with the Indian Empire which followed the extinction of the East India Company, and by the passing away on the Continent of the status left by the Congress of Vienna, which was mainly England's work, and the appearance on the scene of great states with whose formation she has had nothing to do. Probably nothing contributed so much to loosening the Liberal hold on popular confidence as the increasing indifference of the party to this feeling—indifference which culminated in the great party blunder of the Treaty of Washington, and which finally made possible the overwhelming success of the Tories under a leader who has nothing to commend him to the nation but a foreign policy of unprecedented flashiness and recklessness, which can hardly avoid ending in great disaster.

It is not without reason, therefore, that many of the most thoughtful Liberals look forward now, not only to a long period of exclusion from power, but to a complete change of rôle even in opposition. That is to say, the party will be compelled to play the part of a brake on Tory impetuosity and chauvinism, and to preach the lessons not of hopefulness but of prudence, and to devote itself to the unwonted and ungrateful task of keeping popular enthusiasm in check. The strength of the party lies mainly in the boroughs, and it is in the boroughs that the last extension of the franchise has produced the most decided effects in increasing the number of voters. Consequently, at the very moment when the party is weaker and more distracted than it has been since the passage of the Reform Bill, it finds itself face to face with the task of providing more efficient means of party organization and government than were necessary in the days of more restricted suffrage. Accordingly, the older Liberals have been scandalized, and even alarmed, by the appearance in the large cities of committees which propose to take the same charge of party affairs that is exercised by the American caucus, and which differ from the American caucus solely in being free from the control of Government officers and in having as yet but little experience in the art of management. The causes, too, which have led to the appearance of the Machine on English soil do not differ materially from those which led to its appearance here. As long as constituencies are small and the voters for the most part well known to each other, and local notables have political weight, the work of management is trifling. Candidates are easily settled on, platforms are framed in conversation, and personal character and ability count for more in a nominee than his agreement with his supporters on single points of policy, even when these points are important. When the constituency is greatly enlarged, however, voters are not content with voting for a candidate who presents himself, or whom a few respectable men put forward. They want to have a voice in selecting him themselves, and forthwith the primary meeting is produced, and delegates are elected to a huge committee or convention, who provide both candidates and principles and tests of good standing, and draw up rules which keep the Machine in good working order. On paper nothing looks better than the whole plan, because it seems certain that the committee will fairly represent the party, and that through its deliberations the candidate will be selected, and that he will be the man best entitled by his character and services to the party support.

The English are now in the paper stage of the experiment, and one watches them from this side of the water with much the same feeling as that with which one reads the earlier debates of the French National Assembly in 1790. There is the same confidence that they have at last got hold of the very crank whose turning is to make popular government successful, and the same assurance that the circumstances which have led to failure elsewhere have, in their case, been eliminated from the experiment. The contact of the Machine with the old practices and ideas has been recently illustrated in an interesting way in a published correspondence between Mr. William E. Forster, the member for Bradford, and the Liberal Committee of that place. At the last general election the Committee had only just come into operation, and it undertook to discipline Mr. Forster for his course on the Government Education Bill, some features of which were distasteful to the Bradford Liberals. He, however, set it at defiance and was elected by the help of some Tory votes. It is now considered probable that there will be another general election before spring, and the Committee again offers Mr. Forster the nomination for the borough if he will accept "Rule 15," which prescribes that the nominee shall in all things submit himself to the decisions of the Committee. To this Mr. Forster replies that, as an old member and the sitting member, he is entitled to the nomination with or without the approval of the Committee, and that in any case he will not accept "Rule 15."

Now, this is a spirit which it is essential to the success of the new system that the Committee should break down. The system cannot succeed unless the Committee not only has control of the nominations, but makes election without its approval hopeless, and makes "standing" or "running" without its endorsement as ridiculous as it generally is in this country. That it will accomplish this in the end there is no doubt, though prominent members like Mr. Forster, who have reached eminence under the old régime, may give it trouble for a while. Once they have passed away, and a new set of politicians, broken to the harness, have come on the stage, everything will work smoothly, and "Rule 15" will gradually come to have the sanctity and force of one of the Ten Commandments.

The next stage on which the system will enter after securing unquestioned control of the nominations will be the seizure of the Committee's powers by a small body or "ring" of the members with a special fondness for political management and intrigue. The committees thus far are very large, not unlike in this that famous body the "Tammany General Committee." Birmingham has its "Six Hundred," Bradford and Southwark their "Three Hundred," and so on. The interest of the great bulk of these in the work will inevitably soon flag, and the reins pass into the hands of half a dozen zealous "workers," who will soon make "politics" an art, of which

they will be the sole masters. They will know all the wards better than anybody and the best modes of influencing the voters in them, and they will take the needed pains to keep up their political zeal. Into their hands, too, will fall after a while the control of the primary meetings; they will see that they are attended by the right men as soon as the "educated and intelligent" get tired of appearing at them, and that the proceedings are carefully prepared beforehand beyond all risk of miscarriage. After this they will soon have the committee elected to suit themselves, and then as soon as the working of the machinery has become sufficiently exciting, in order to withdraw the attention of voters from public questions and fix it on the mere drill and discipline, the local "Boss" will pretty certainly make his appearance and assume the air of the real practical man who understands "politics," and can give seats in Parliament and places in the common council; and men like Forster and Gladstone will begin to be looked on as mere "theorists" and "visionaries," very well in their libraries but very ignorant about the "mechanism of government."

The English have one strong defence left against the course of things we have here foreshadowed in the fact that elections to Parliament only take place about once in five years, and all administrative offices, both imperial and local, are filled by appointment, and the tenure is during good behavior. This, as long as it lasts, will retard the growth of management into a profession, because it will keep the machinery simple and prevent the necessity for the constant activity, or "work," which does so much for the exaltation of our local politicians. There is a good deal of force in the argument which our custom-house statesmen use in defence of their use of Federal offices for the reward of partisan zeal, that when you have an election every year, and from ten to thirty offices, about which few voters know or care anything, to be filled at each election by universal suffrage, nothing but weekly canvassing will keep the party organization intact and the rank and file ready for the polls; and what volunteer, they ask, will undertake a task so arduous and repulsive? However, we strongly recommend the English Liberals to send out a commission, before going further on their present course, to study the Tammany General Committee, which is the exact prototype of their "Three Hundreds," and find out how a man like Mr. John Kelly comes to be the chief financial officer of the second greatest commercial city in the world. When they have thoroughly mastered this they will be in possession of information which they will find invaluable, and which they will obtain for the mere travelling expenses of the commission, though it has cost the citizens of New York hundreds of millions of dollars to get it into accessible shape.

COUNT FERSEN.—II.

PARIS, August 9, 1878.

I HAVE chiefly spoken so far of Count Fersen as one of the soldiers of the War of Independence in America; I will now study him in his relations with Marie-Antoinette and with the courts of Europe which attempted to save the French dynasty. There is little doubt that Fersen had made on his arrival in Paris a very favorable impression on the Queen, and that he went to America not so much in order to win his spurs as to give no pretext to the enemies of Marie-Antoinette, who were always finding fault with all her actions. There is a secret and very important despatch of Count Creutz addressed to Gustave III., on the 10th of April, 1779, and preserved in the archives of Upsal:

"I must confide to your Majesty that the young Count Fersen has been so well looked upon by the queen that it has given umbrage to many persons. I confess that I cannot help thinking that she had some inclination for him; I have seen too sure marks of it to have a doubt. The young count's conduct on this occasion has been admirable for its modesty and its reserve, and especially for the resolution which he has formed of going to America. . . . The Queen could not take her eyes off him during the last days; her eyes were full of tears. I beg your majesty to keep this secret to yourself and to Senator Fersen. When his departure became known all the favorites were delighted. The Duchess of Fitzjames said to him: 'What, sir, do you abandon thus your conquest?' 'If I had made one, I would not abandon it,' was his answer; 'I go away free and leave no regrets behind me.'"

I have said that the diary of Fersen between 1780 and 1791 was lost; there are, fortunately, some letters extant which he addressed to his father during that period. How changed everything was since the young count had left for America! He was by nature a conservative, and he had no sympathy with the revolutionary movement. "The fermentation is general," says he in 1788; "everybody speaks of a constitution. The women are in the movement, and you know what influence hey have in this country. It is a delirium. Every man speaks of progress and has become an administrator. In the ante-rooms the footmen are busy reading the last pamphlets; there are ten or twelve every day." Fersen says in 1789: "The Third Estate wishes to be alone the States-General." It was the moment when Sieyès published his famous pamphlet, 'Qu'est-ce que le tiers état? Rien. Que doit-il être? Tout.' The soldiers were not to be trusted; they were taking the popular side. The King had to call in M. Necker. The populace of Paris took the Bastille and killed its old governor, M. de Launay. The mob hanged M. de Flesselles, the *prévôt des marchands*, and took 36,000 muskets at the Invalides. The emigration began. The Comte d'Artois, the Princes of Condé, of Conti, left the kingdom. Fersen was at Valenciennes in September, 1789, and wrote: "The authority of the King is gone. The National Assembly trembles before Paris, and Paris trembles before 40,000 or 50,000 banditti established at Montmartre. . . . The abolition of feudal rights, decided in the Assembly in three hours at the end of a supper, has persuaded the people that they have nothing more to pay. Everywhere they attack the châteaux. They pillage and burn all the papers. . . . The taxes cannot be levied. The troops are corrupted by the hope of liberty or by money. Bankruptcy is imminent." In all the garrisons there were revolts. It is curious to compare these extracts with the minute descriptions given by Taine in his last work. Fersen agrees with Taine on this point: he does not believe that the Terror began in 1793. It begins for him in 1789, as soon as the National Assembly was called. The Convention alone is responsible for the Terror in the opinion of the historians of the Liberal school, such as Mignet and Thiers. Fersen saw at once that the National Assembly had a merely nominal power and was the slave of the revolutionary faction of Paris.

At the end of January, 1790, Gustave III. ordered Fersen to leave his garrison of Valenciennes and to stay near the King of France. He remained in Paris till the famous attempt at escape in June, 1791. Fersen did not believe that the king and queen could safely remain in Paris, or even in France. He professes a great horror of the so-called constitutionalists. They all seemed to him either imbeciles or knaves. He despised Necker: "He has sacrificed the King and the state to his ambition. He is well punished now, as his influence has come to nothing." He ridicules the great Fête of the Federation: "The soldiers kept no order. Before the arrival of the King they conducted a priest and two monks to the altar, put grenadiers' caps on their heads and guns on their shoulders. They shouted and danced, as savages do before eating a Christian." There are two ways of looking at a ceremony or a popular manifestation. The magnifying-glass, if you turn it, becomes a diminishing-glass. Fersen had not the faculty of seeing in the great *days* of the revolution what has excited the admiration of so many. "Major a longinquo reverentia." He was too near. His natural and honest instincts, his Scandinavian good sense, were too often offended.

Fersen had set himself a chivalrous task; he had given up the colonelcy of the Royal Suédois; he wrote to his father (February, 1791): "I am attached to the king and queen, and I should be vile and ungrateful if I abandoned them now that they can do nothing more for me. To all their kindnesses of the past they have added a flattering distinction, they have given me their confidence; a gift all the more valuable because it is concentrated among three or four persons, of whom I am the youngest." Who were these persons? They were the Baron de Breteuil, the Marquis de Bouillé, and Count Mercy. These were the only people who prepared with Fersen the flight to Varennes. Fersen took the royal family himself as far as Bondy; everybody knows how this first attempt failed. The flight was a terrible affair, and involved great diplomatic difficulties. Fersen was sent to Brussels with a letter from Louis XVI. to Count Mercy; he saw there Marie-Christine, the sister of Marie-Antoinette, who was then Regent of the Netherlands. After having met Gustave III., King of Sweden, at Aix-la-Chapelle, and received his orders, he went to Vienna in order to make arrangements with the emperor. Gustavus wished to land Swedish troops in Normandy, but he required support. The negotiation was very slow, and Fersen soon assured himself that the Aulic Council would do but little for Marie-Antoinette, though she was an archduchess. In fact, one of the conclu-

sions which can be safely drawn from the long correspondence of Fersen is, the great unwillingness of the European powers to enter into a common action against France. All the powers were scandalized and horrified at the news received every day from Paris; but their old jealousies were their ruling passion, and they were more afraid of acting for each other than of acting for the cause of monarchy. It is also very curious to find how jealous Louis XVI. was to the end of the princes who had joined the emigration; how he kept complaining of their untimely interference, of their want of discipline. He dreaded, especially, the then ardent Prince de Condé, and was not far from seeing in him a possible usurper in case the allied powers should bring their armies into France with the little French army of the émigrés.

There were during that period direct and confidential communications between Marie-Antoinette and Fersen, as he acted as an intermediary between the King and Queen of France and the courts of Europe. Fersen sent their letters to the sovereigns, and he gave the most important news to the Queen in secret despatches. His object was to form an armed congress at Frankfort or at Aix-la-Chapelle, and to force the will of the congress on the National Assembly. There are twenty-eight letters from the Queen to Fersen in the two volumes now published, written in the years 1791 and 1792, and thirty-two letters from Fersen to her. The letters of the Queen are documents in cipher, which would have been fatal to her if they had been discovered at the time when they were written. "One must regard all that we have done for two years as *null*, so far as the will of the King is concerned" (8th July, 1791). "The King desires that his captivity be well confirmed and known to foreign powers. He desires that the good will of his relatives, allies, and friends be manifested by a kind of congress, which shall employ the method of negotiation, but have an imposing force to support the negotiations—a force far enough away, however, not to incite to crime and massacre."

How suggestive is this short note of June, 1791: "I live. . . . How uneasy I have been about you. . . . Do not write, you would expose us; and do not come back here under any pretext. They know that you took us out of this place; all would be lost if you appeared. We are guarded night and day. Adieu. I shall not be able to write more to you." Two months afterwards, however, she contrives to write again, and with what terrible freedom of thought: "The best way to disgust people with all this is to seem to be *in it* entirely; they will see that nothing can go." She speaks with horror of "ces gueux-ci," and "cette vilaine race d'hommes qui se disent attachés et qui ne nous ont jamais fait que du mal." She has flashes of horror worthy of Marie-Thérèse: "On s'accoutume à nous voir avilis." She has no hope of the Assembly—a collection "de scélérats, de fous et de bêtes."

The correspondence between the Queen and Fersen continued almost to the end. The letters were in cipher. They were sent in chocolate-boxes, in tea-boxes, in the lining of clothes. On the 1st of March, 1792, the Emperor Leopold II. died. He had shown great indecision and weakness in the affairs of France; but unfortunately for Louis XVI., a few days afterwards the generous King of Sweden, who had made himself his champion, was assassinated by an ex-captain of his guard, Anckarstroem. Sweden fell under the hands of a regent. The royal family was all this time in the Temple. Dumouriez, who had led the French army to victory at Jemmapes, made on the 31st of March a convention with Prince Coburg, who was at the head of the allies on whom the Assembly had declared war. During an armistice, Dumouriez engaged to go himself to Paris to liberate the King and to re-establish the monarchy. It is well known that the army, encamped at Maulde on the Belgian frontier, refused to obey Dumouriez, and that he took to flight with Louis Philippe, who was then his aide-de-camp, under the name of the Duc de Chartres. This event sealed the fate of Louis XVI. and of Marie-Antoinette, and the long efforts of Fersen soon became objectless. The rest of his career offers but little interest. He will always be remembered in history as the man who, disguised as a coachman, took the King and the royal family, with false passports, from Paris to Bondy, on the road to Belgium. Louis XVI. forced him to leave the coachman's seat at Bondy; had he remained to the end, perhaps the result would have been different. His energy would have been able to cope with the audacious son of the postmaster of Varennes. Fersen was loaded with all the honors which his native land could give; but he had himself a tragic end. In the year 1809, after the sudden death of the prince royal, his enemies accused him of having poisoned the young prince. This base calumny was used against the proud grand-marshal, and he was killed by an infuriated mob with sticks and umbrellas; his corpse was dragged in the streets; the noblest of men died the most ignoble of deaths.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—V.

THE DRAMATIC EPITOME.

PARIS, August 4, 1878.

THE student of the stage can find but little to interest him in the theatres of the French capital during the Exhibition. Most of the pieces on which the managers specially relied to attract the throng of expected visitors, for one cause or another failed, and the directors have in consequence been forced to fall back on older plays. The "Balsamo" of Dumas, father and son, having made a startling fiasco, the Odéon revives the "Danicheffs," and the New-Yorker finds at other theatres the familiar "Two Orphans," "Round the World in Eighty Days," "Orphée aux Enfers," "Bébé," and many another play he has been able to see to satiety at home. Even the Comédie-Française has not given us the abundant selection from the repertory which one had a right to expect. The House of Molière has hardly acted a play of its founder for the past month. Three nights a week are given up to the "Fourchambault" of M. Emile Augier, the success of the season and a healthy and honest work; "Hernani" takes up another night or two, leaving but few opportunities for other plays. Indeed, after seeing these two and the "Etrangère," I found I either had to stay away from the Théâtre-Français altogether or to go on Sunday; and the force of inherited prejudice keeps me, at least, from enjoying George Sand's "Marquis de Villemer," or the elder Dumas's "Mlle. de Belle-Isle," on the evening of the first day of the week. But there has recently been opened in the Exposition itself an exhibition hitherto unattempted and of remarkable interest. The Ministry of Public Instruction, Religion, and the Fine Arts has a general supervision of the theatres, under the final clause of its title. It was urged that this important department of the Ministry should not allow the Exhibition to pass without seizing the opportunity to make itself better known and to set forth as far as possible the history of the stage in France—the country where of late the drama has most especially flourished. A commission, including M. Garnier, the architect, and M. Halanzier, the manager of the Opéra, and M. Perrin, the manager of the Comédie-Française, was appointed, and the result of its labors can now be seen in one of the little pavilions adjoining the long central picture-galleries.

Since the organization of the archives of the Opéra there has been gradually forming there a complete collection of the *maquettes* of the scenes of all operas produced there since 1864. A *maquette*, it may be as well to explain, is the miniature model, drawn to scale, which the scene-painter prepares for submission to the manager and author, and to guide him in the execution of the full-sized painting. Selecting ten of the most effective and elaborate of the *maquettes* in the collection of the Opéra, fourteen others were reconstructed upon the same uniform scale (three centimetres to the metre) from engravings, sketches, descriptions, carrying the history of scenic decoration back from our time to the earlier days of the regular French stage. We are thus enabled to see the small stage of the Hôtel de Bourgogne, where about 1619 was produced "La Folie de Clidamant, pièce de M. Hardy," the scenery for which is copied from a sketch in a MS. of the National Library (a MS. apparently of a stage-manager's note-book), wherein it is accompanied by this description: "There must be in the middle of the stage a fine palace, and on one side the sea, in which appears a vessel rigged with masts, on which a woman who throws herself into the sea, and on the other side a fine chamber which opens and shuts, where there is a bed well decked with cloths." From the *maquette*, as from this description, it seems that the rigidity with which the French bound themselves by the false rule of the unity of place was compensated, to some extent at least, by the liberality with which they endowed the chosen place with all needed qualities. Other of the earlier scenes are scarcely less curious than this. From the original sketch of the artist, Pizzoli, a *maquette* has been made of the scene of the third act of that "Psyché, Tragédie-ballet," represented for the first time in 1671 and due to the collaboration of Corneille, Molière, and Quinault. After this, documents and sketches being wanting, there is an abrupt jump to the first years of this century, to the 13th Floréal, year VIII, when a "Hécube" was produced at the Opera with terrific display of the sack of Troy. The next two *maquettes*, both beautiful as well as complicated, find us on the familiar ground of "William Tell" and "Robert the Devil." And then we come rapidly to scenes from "Fandango," the latest ballet, and "Le Roi de Lahore," the latest opera, which owes its success wholly to the splendor of its *mise-en-scène*. The scene of the second act, of which the *maquette* is shown, is an arid sandy waste, producing on the ample stage of the

Opéra an effect of immensity of space which I have never seen elsewhere achieved.

But interesting as this collection of *maquettes* is, it is not as useful to the student of the stage as two other articles exhibited with it. As the regular drama of France grew out of the early Mysteries, so here the *maquettes* of the modern theatre are accompanied by a reproduction on the same scale (three centimetres to the metre) of the platform on which was performed the well-known Mystery of Valenciennes, three copies of which are in existence, each adorned with a painting representing the elaborate staging and comprehensive "set" of the scenery. From this painting the model has been made, and nothing is more curious than the way in which all the possible places needed in the course of the Mystery have been accumulated on one platform, from heaven, with some of its inhabitants, on the left, to hell, with several energetic devils, on the right, while in between are Nazareth, the Temple, Jerusalem, the palace of the high-priest, the Sea of Galilee with a boat in it, and the Golden Gate. Side by side with this popular stage of the middle ages is the popular theatre of antiquity. The type chosen was the colossal Roman theatre of Orange, whose walls, though bare, are standing to this day, and which has been reconstructed by M. Caristie. A model of this, on the same scale as the *maquettes*, has been executed by M. Darvant under the direction of MM. Garnier and Heuzey. The Orange Theatre is sixty-one metres wide, while the new Paris Opéra is only sixteen. The immensely greater size of the old theatre is shown by a glance at the surrounding *maquettes* and also by a figure of an actor, made in due proportion and placed, a tiny speck, in the proscenium. Copies of this model, protagonist and all, would be of great use in the study of the Greek tragedians in our American colleges.

These are the more important objects in the Exposition Théâtrale, but the walls are covered with sketches of scenery and costumes drawn from the archives of the national theatres. Some of the earlier frames are very amusing: No. 27, "Costumes d'Opéra, Époque de Louis XV.," contains an Afriquain and an Afriquaine and an Amérigain and an Amérigaine, the men being respectively black and brown, while their fair consorts are white; all are adorned with abundant feathers, and there is but little difference between the Afriquain and the Amérigain.

J. B. M.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—VI.

MORE FRENCH STATUARY.

PARIS, August 18, 1878.

IN searching among these statues and groups for whatever is best, in purely sculpturesque qualities, it is noticeable how uniformly those chosen on this account alone prove to be, on further acquaintance, the most interesting on all accounts. It is made plain how absolutely sculpture requires that which it so seldom receives in our day, absolute beauty—beauty as existing apart from meaning or sentiment or intellectual value of any sort. Sculpture "in the round," and of a certain magnitude, is what is under consideration; small bronzes and statuettes, and all works in relief, may or may not come under the same laws. Everybody knows how tiresome your ordinary statue is—your statue of Ruth or Eve or Delilah or Zenobia. Everybody knows how little it can please, how brief is the consideration he can give to its little tricks of execution and to its feeble sentiment. Imagine having to live near it! Imagine having to sit at the breakfast-table in face of it! Even in bronze it would be hard to put up with; but in white marble it is best in the reception room, where one looks for display, not enjoyment. The truth is that no story can be told in statuary, no incident rendered, no intellectual idea expressed with any success. Helen can only stand and look beautiful; she cannot be seen communing with Priam on the walls of Troy. Delilah can only recline and look voluptuous; a lock of hair and a pair of scissors are all the "attributes" she can have; take those away and give her a coronet of some Egyptian or supposed Egyptian form and she is Cleopatra; or, with still less trouble, she is Potiphar's wife. Consider how commonly in antique sculpture certain attributes were given to certain personages, and how much we are in doubt about antique statues when the attributes fail us—so that even the Venus Victrix of the Louvre has been called muse and Diana and what not—and consider of how prodigious a skill the Grecian sculptors were the masters! Almost universal modern custom eschews large groups as wholly unmanageable and costly beyond reason—even groups of two figures are rare, but even with larger compositions than we have, or are like to have, incident and action must needs be kept away from statuary, for the most part

It is for these reasons that statuary has especial need of beauty; of loveliness of line, loveliness of attitude and composition, loveliness of light and shade. A picture may be inferior to another in beauty and yet its superior on the whole, but that can hardly be the case with statuary. The statue which is the most beautiful is the one to choose, for all others will weary you in a shorter or longer time according to their degree.

Here, in the third sculpture gallery, is M. Falguière's *vainqueur aux combats de coq*. A youth, naked, holding a splendid bird on his right wrist and forearm, runs headlong; his face, all lighted up with laughter and eager triumph, is turned full towards the triumphant gladiator he holds; he snaps the thumb and finger of his high-raised left hand. Here is action, as much as can possibly be got into a statue; too much, or at least too abrupt and violent action for the best result. One may go on to find fault with it: it is not a true aim of sculpture to represent a face distorted by laughter as this one is; the cock is too plumy and full-feathered—not only not stripped for the fight as the modern cock-pit requires, not only none the worse for the just-fought match, but so very downy and feathery as to suggest the barn-yard and regular feeds of corn. Take this same subject in a sketch, and give it to the regular modern Italian sculptor to model, and he will make a wretched thing of it, a statue that would be altogether insupportable. What saves this statue and makes it really admirable, so that an excellent sculptor named it to the writer, with perhaps a half-dozen others, as something worth study? Nothing but fine modelling. The limbs of the boy, his slender body, the attitude, all have been studied from nature for the sake of truth, and of that beauty of easy movement which the study of nature alone can give; but that is not all. The proportion of part with part is beautiful; from whatever position we inspect the statue the outline is graceful, the details group well, the thing is lovely to the eye apart from any meaning it may have. Nor is that all; every part of the surface is studied as a piece of delicate modulation, the sculptor has "caressed" each inch of surface with affection, and has cared for the resulting delicate tints of shade with which the light of day hastens to beautify every well-modelled surface. Not that this is the best statue here; good as it is, there are several even better, several to which the praise given above is at the least as applicable; this one is taken as a convenient one for description, and for the comparison of characteristics one with another.

And now, if the reader thinks that in allowing to sculpture only beauty as a means of giving pleasure, we are limiting it too much, the answer can only be one of general encouragement. Fear not, a Greek of old times would say to the modern doubter; our old divinities and heroical persons were enough for our purposes, with a small sprinkling of mere studies from models and from athletes—not altogether approved by the judicious. Fear not; your costume will be hard to manage, indeed, but there's a way out of every such difficulty; if you want beauty and love beauty and will recognize beauty, it will come for you, and you will find it in varied forms.

This very M. Falguière has another statue here which lends itself to our purpose. Saint Tarcisius was martyred because he would not yield up the sacred wafer to the pagans, and was stoned, holding it to his breast. This statue represents the dying boy, the half-seen object in his hands, and the two or three rough stones lying by him, the only "attributes." The face and head are beautifully designed. Suffering one sees in the face, but not torture; it is quiet, and is dropping off to the unconsciousness of death. The statue would be among the finest, the chosen few, but for a lack of dignity in the position of the body and limbs. Boyish and slight they rightly are; it is hard to describe that which makes their attitude seem that of a child creeping, rather than that of the quietness one asks for to complete the beauty of the picture.

The question how far statues and groups ought to be or can be charged with the expression of sentiment is one that can be settled only by the sculptor. *Solvitur ambulando:* let them express sentiment without making their work ugly and ridiculous, and we will believe. The work of M. L. Albert Lefeuvre may be named as an instance of the expression of face and gesture carried as far, perhaps, as the art will allow—vigorous and yet lovely. His only statue in the Exhibition is in the first room, marble, of life size, "Jeanne d'Arc, enfant, entend ses voix." The maiden in her rustic dress and holding distaff and spindle leans slightly against a tree-trunk; excited and aroused by the mysterious utterances, she turns her head with a stretching out of the neck and a half-opening of the lips, which come within an ace of being displeasing, but are safe within the limits, and are not ugly, but only unexpected and piquant. There is something of the naïveté and childlike frankness of early Renaissance sculpture in this work; it almost passes the strait bounds of sculptu-

resque beauty, and is saved only by its really admirable modelling and the restraint which, after all, has been exercised over gesture and attitude ; no affectation of amazement, clasped or raised hands, no shrinking nor cowering, no exaltation or enthusiastic faith even (the time hasn't come for them), but the face is of eager enquiry, absorbed interest ; the posture is as tranquil as possible, the right hand holding the little spindle with one end pressed against the body, the left trailing the distaff by her side. A group in the Salon by the same artist is almost equally interesting—"Après le Travail." A young man is bending down to drink from a brook, with that decided and strenuous effort (readers will remember, from country walks) of him who would drink from a stream by bending down his lips to it from the higher bank ; beside him a young woman is waiting, half leaning on a rough fork made of a branching sapling. She is in a little day-dream, that is clear, looking afar off with lips set in a curious half-smile. The outstretched left arm holds the fork, which rests upon the ground ; her broad hat is slung over that shoulder and hangs behind her, helping the composition wonderfully ; her dress is as simple as those we have been describing of this artist and of Dubois—folds of heavy material arranged as these Frenchmen alone seem to know how, in no respect imitated from the classic, real as possible, but full of dignity. It cannot be said that in any of these statues the drapery is as wonderful as in the best antique work ; it does not catch the eye at first as being supremely well designed ; it is rather an accessory that harms nothing, that rightly clothes the figure and is made to help the lines of the composition ; that much it is, and in being so much it is admirable and constitutes one more step forward in nineteenth-century sculpture.

We are considering one by one the works of those sculptors who can model as well as conceive, and who are therefore sculptors indeed. One of them is J. I. Lafrance—a younger man ; neither he nor Albert Lefeuvre has been so loaded with honors yet as Dubois, or even as Falguière ; these younger men are of the present decade, and can show only a couple of honors apiece, dating from 1870 to 1876. M. Lafrance's work here has none of it the importance of the two pieces that have been described of Albert Lefeuvre ; but the little Saint John the Baptist in the first room is a delicious bit. It is a child of eight years ; he has made a cross of reeds ; with this raised high in the left hand, he is beckoning with the right ; the face as if calling loudly, and eager, enthusiastic summons. It may be urged as a fault that the call is addressed to no person visible ; but what if it is addressed to the spectator ? It is the appeal of later life, the call to repentance, to baptism, prefigured by the action of the child : a simple and charming thought embodied in a really excellent work of sculpture. In the vestibule is a marble Achilles, which also is fine : is the head meant to look like Napoleon ?—it reminds one of the famous Napoleon-Cæsar of Ingres.

The work of M. M. J. A. Mercié is better known than some of that we have been describing : he received the cross of the Legion of Honor in 1872 for the statue of David after the fight with Goliath, which everybody has seen in some form of representation. David is a slender youth, but more manly and more vigorous than the boy-Davids which have been too much used in art from the seventeenth century down. He is naked, except that the head is wholly covered by a kerchief that hides the hair : a suggestion of an Eastern sun, or of an Eastern costume ? With one foot slightly raised by pressing upon the giant's head, which lies behind and to one side, he is quietly sheathing the huge scimitar, which he looks at, as if with a certain curiosity, but gravely, calmly, unastonished by the victory he has won. This is a case of a somewhat ghastly subject so treated by art as to be perfectly endurable. The most sensitive person might be glad to have it in his inmost chamber. The group *Gloria Victis*, by the same artist, was in the Salon of 1874, and is now in the special exhibition of the City of Paris, being taken from the Square Montholon, away toward the north of Paris. It is out of doors, as it ought to be, and opposite one of the entrances of the Pavilion of Paris. A winged and armed woman, Honor or Renown, or perhaps "La Patrie," half flying and poised on one foot, carries a young warrior, either dead or desperately wounded, whose heavy right arm droops over her shoulder, and whose hand holds a broken sword. Such designs are called for on certain occasions, and the expression of patriotism ardent in defeat and ruin cannot be objected to; but the too restless and disturbed composition with spread wings, extended arms, drapery, weapons, all moving and fluttering and clashing together, is something that will defeat your best sculptor's efforts. For the rest, very much of this is fine ; the body of the youth is admirably conceived and modelled, and the flying Genius is made to carry the weight without effort or toil.

M. J. Blanchard has in the great Vestibule a faun, life-size, in bronze, and one asks whether, indeed, any more fauns are needed in the world ; but the statue enchains the attention and rewards it. It is a manly and vigorous piece of work. There is another faun near to compare it with and to help convince you how superior in mere sculpturesque merit is that of M. Blanchard. Hercules and Omphale, not far off, is a group of similar power as a work of sculpture. It could only be wished that this able artist could find a subject worthy of his skill.

M. Marquet de Vasselot has in the gallery a charming marble Chloe, meditating by the fountain ; and, in one of the *loggie*, a Christ in the tomb, larger than life, in bronze and black marble, a very remarkable work. The body, with all its parts, is of bronze, of marble are the couch or base upon which it lies, and the drapery which in very limited amount accompanies the figure. This drapery is very skilfully managed, and is expressive and well designed although the marble is polished. A portrait bust by this artist was one of the very few contributions to the Philadelphia Exhibition which your correspondent there thought worth mentioning. That one, I am sorry to find, is not to be seen here, but others are. The portraits must wait for another letter, though. There is an army of them and many are fine. R. S.

Correspondence.

THE EDUCATION OF GIRLS.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : Two paragraphs meet my eye in a late number of the *Nation*. In speaking of insanity it is said : "Among the chief dangers to be avoided are high-pressure school education, with its senseless accumulation of studies, speed in living," etc., etc. Then a man (evidently a man), who signs himself "School-Hunter," wants a school for his girls where there is no "culchur," no cramming, and a good gymnasium. The conclusion is : "Do you know any such school ?—one where the master would engage that the girls should grow up to hate sewing and love books ; where they would learn insensibly to prefer a good novel to a trashy one, and a very little sound knowledge to a mass of glittering sham and pretence ?"

In many respects "School-Hunter's" views are very sound and sensible, but in the name of womanhood let a mother, whose life-work in that regard is done, protest against any girl's growing up to "hate sewing." Granted that there is too much of it, that women sometimes make themselves slaves to the needle, even when they are not compelled, yet it is hardly possible for a woman to be happy and content who can't use her needle—sewing is so emphatically a woman's employment, her amusement, her resource. Is she restless, unhappy, puzzled, *waiting*, her needle, if she can use it deftly, will work off impatience at its point. The mind is free while the hands are employed, and she can think better than in utter idleness. It is no bar to mental activity. Some of the most accomplished women and best writers—take Mrs. Somerville for one—have been wonderfully skilful with the needle. It might not be amiss, so far as that goes, for boys to learn sewing also. Many a time a man comes to a point where a little simple knowledge of this kind would be a blessing to him. I'll tell you what a man does in place of sewing—he smokes. Any one who chooses can carry out the parallel on the score of health, economy, and usefulness.

Happily, sewing is reviving in these days, encouraged in our art schools, helped on by fashion, which is not always as sensible ; and in Boston some sensible women have, by dint of perseverance and prayer, succeeded in introducing sewing into the public schools. It was tried once in Cincinnati with success; but men are hard to convert, or else they hold that sewing comes by instinct. Alas ! no. No woman is so rich or great that she can afford to do without sewing. If she only employs others she has need to know practically how to direct them, to know when work is wrong and what it is worth. We have seen the two extremes of over and under-payments because women did not in the least know practically how much should be paid for sewing. More than all, aside from the daily need of knowing how to use her needle in any emergency, in travelling and the like, no woman in these changing days has any guarantee against coming to want. Then how helpless, if she cannot make, and make well and quickly, the clothing of the family, or even earn money by her skill in work! Again, let me repeat, sewing is emphatically woman's work ; it is best learned by early apprenticeship; it is graceful and pleasant employment ; her life is incomplete without it. And it is precisely those who can't sew, who may not smoke, and who

don't know how to use the vacant hours, who take to what "School-Hunter" so much dreads—poor novels. A VETERAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The statement that the present schools for girls are, on the whole, just as good as our average communities choose to have them, can be more strongly proved than by simple personal assertion. In the close competition between the day-schools in the large cities and between the boarding-schools elsewhere, if much more or much better were really wanted, it would be instantly provided as a pure business speculation. As the case now stands no one knows how weak and inefficient the schools are, how weary the teachers in their struggle for better things, except one who has felt the infinitude of the caprices of parents. In the light of experience one could hardly dare to hope that even "School-Hunter" himself would be of the same mind two years in succession.

Desperate as the situation would seem to be, there is nevertheless a simple and complete remedy—a remedy not over-costly either, considering that the whole womanhood of the next generation is at stake. It is nothing more nor less than the founding of *endowed schools for girls*. Such schools, and such only, would possess the indispensable requisites for success, independence and permanence. One hundred and fifty thousand dollars would be an ample fund to equip and maintain a school for one hundred and fifty pupils. One hundred dollars per year would perhaps be even more than enough to charge for tuition, so bringing it within the reach of that rapidly-increasing portion of the professional classes who find the public schools inadequate to give the sensible and refined education their daughters ought to have, but for whom the expensive private-adventure schools are out of the question. Such schools would be as able to fit girls for their probable future in life, to make them healthy, clear-thinking, quiet, steady women, as the endowed academies of Phillips and Adams are to fit the boys for college.

The suggestion is not a novel one. President Eliot has strongly recommended it more than once. It is made here apropos only of day-schools, but boarding departments would develop naturally of themselves. It is only applying to the education of girls the principle so long recognized in state and college, that the better sense of the few can, through endowments, set the standard for the many. The endowment may come from the generosity of individuals or by the union of a company, but however it should be brought about, the founding of four such schools at central points would in ten years absolutely revolutionize our education of girls. No other phase of the woman question is of any consequence in comparison. What our girls learn or do before their eighteenth birthday is what decides the character. It is not a question of college, but of plain daily work in *school*.

The strength of early New England tradition is failing fast. Something is sorely needed to save from early self-indulgence, from querulous age. The *endowed school* is a prosaic remedy for the ills that threaten American womanhood, but it is the one thing that is sure to save us. Nothing else can. C. B. M.

BOSTON, August 21, 1878.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I fear you suffer from the illusion that all the foolish women of the country have become teachers in girls' schools, while the fact is that a large number of them are the mothers of the girls. There are teachers in the country who have read enough physiology to suspect that there may be some connection between over-eating and improper clothing on the one hand and poor health on the other; but when they attempt to put their theory to the test they meet with a difficulty. Half the girls in the school are in the habit of receiving a box from home every few weeks filled with cake and candy and pickles, and the other half are provided by their mothers with money expressly for the purpose of keeping themselves supplied with sweetmeats and confectionery. Many of them have never worn flannel undergarments of any kind; to many of them the idea that a rubber shoe is a suitable protection for a thinly-clad foot on a rainy day is entirely new. You would hardly think that a mother would send her daughter away to school for a year with neither rubbers, waterproof, nor umbrella; but what are we to infer from the fact that almost every catalogue of a girls' school expressly requires pupils to be provided with these three articles?

Now, what is a teacher with a health theory to do? Every suggestion in regard to hygienic conduct is met by the reply, "Why, mother has never required me to do this." "Why, mother has never done it herself, and she is a perfectly healthy woman." (I have clung to a belief in future punishment for the sake of the women who will get their feet wet and will not take cold after it.) It is not only embarrassing—it is dangerous—to attempt to prove to a young girl that her mother is a very foolish woman. Her chief fault is that she already feels too little respect for her mother and everybody else; but she is not altogether deficient in logic, and you cannot convince her by physiological arguments that the way in which her mother has brought her up is all wrong without doing her a serious injury. Of course, to subject her to rules without convincing her is to do a temporary service to her health where you might do a permanent one.

I have often been tempted to re-echo the wish of an English educator that the parent might be exterminated, or at least reduced to a mere check-signing machine. TEACHER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It may have been that Molière was justified in never bringing a physician upon the stage except for purposes of ridicule. The profession of teacher seems to be undergoing the same treatment now at the hands of the editors, who assume always that teachers are simply looking out for their own immediate pecuniary interest, and who semi-annually deliver lectures to them to tell them what they ought and ought not to do. I have not read the letters of "School-Hunter," but a copy of the *Nation* containing an editorial on the subject was sent to me from your office.

There are *all* sorts of girls' schools in New York, as there are all sorts of shops and manufactories, and as a rule parents can obtain what they want if they will seek for it in the right way. It *is* true, as you say, that parents are to blame if the schools are what they should not be. I think it is fair to say that the majority of principals of the large girls' schools in New York City are more anxious to do what is best by their pupils than a majority of parents are anxious to have the best done.

The parents demand all sorts of things—what to their inconsiderate thought seems desirable, or what some neighbor or friend suggests as desirable; and if the teacher is not in a position to say, "Either trust your child to my guidance in my own line of work or take her to some other school in which you have more confidence," she tries to satisfy the demand for the sake of obtaining or retaining the pupil. This process, being repeated as many times as there are parents, makes of the school a sort of hodge-podge, where in attempting to satisfy everybody the usual result of universal dissatisfaction is obtained, and this dissatisfaction then voices itself in letters written for the papers, and editorials based on them, which suggest specifics without number.

I must disclaim all desire to have "School-Hunter's" daughters, if he has any, for pupils; but if he will take the time to spend an hour in my school some morning next year—any day after October 6—I can show him specimens such as he says he wants to see—*i.e.*, girls who are physically well, who have a genuine relish for knowledge and a clear consciousness of their own ignorance. I am thinking particularly of two of my girls whom I have had in school for five years, and whose influences *at home* have been healthful, their homes simple and free from excitement. There is scarcely a teacher in New York, I will venture to say, who is not daily annoyed by seeing how the home influences tend to break up all real mental development.

I did not mean to say so much; for what I intended first of all to say was that any theory of education which is based on the idea that a woman is to be simply a medium for the transference of desirable qualities from father to son is of necessity a false one. I should like to have some one tell us exactly what he means when he talks about "educating girls to be mothers." A woman has at least as much right to her own fullest development as her sons have. Give our girls that, and the motherhood and wifehood in them will take care of themselves without any special fostering.

Special education, where it is possible, is a good thing when it follows and is based on a general training; but where it is not, it gives us people who, being thrown out of one employment, find it impossible to assume another, and hence become burdens to society and themselves.

Women are no more frivolous and foolish than men, but they are as much so.

Do not say that physical health is the one thing necessary for good mothers. In the first place, a woman is to be something for *herself* as well as for her husband and children, or she will be not much to them. If physical health be all she is to transmit to her children, we do not need

civilization to enable her to do that. But, as I have said, she is not simply a medium of transmission. Give her a chance under wise training for free play of *all* her faculties and she will have a desire for self-possession and self-respect which will make her at home in any position.

I cannot imagine any woman of genuine self-respect as feeling chagrin because her friends happen to come in unexpectedly to any dinner which she had ordered as proper and suitable for herself, though I question whether any very carefully educated mother would select corned beef and cabbage for her children's food.

Reform the home influences and the schools will be better than they are. But a teacher whose profession has been a life-study will not, if she takes charge of a child's education, vary her careful plans at the request of a parent who has probably never thought at all comprehensively on the subject. When your child is sick you *select a physician* and then trust the case to him. When parents who are not teachers do the same in the matter of education they will be better satisfied, and till they do they have no right to complain.

I beg your pardon for this long intrusion.—Truly, A. B. C.

August 31, 1878.

[Parents and editors "assume" no more about teachers than about lawyers and doctors, viz.: that their pecuniary interest is a leading consideration with them, and it is a very respectable consideration. There is nothing disrespectful in saying to a lawyer, If you practice in that way you will not get clients, or to a doctor, You must do differently or you will not get patients. Moreover, parents, however despicable and stupid a body they may be, have after all to perform the indispensable duty of choosing the school to which their children are to go; we take it for granted that no teacher would ask for the teaching profession the power of seizing children and educating them without regard to the parents' judgment. The enlightenment of the parents' judgment by discussion, and by criticism of existing schools, is, therefore, not only proper but necessary work.

We do not know who first used the phrase "educating girls to be mothers," but we fancy it is quite as capable of explanation as the phrase "woman's fullest development." Educating a girl to be a mother, we presume, means very much the same thing as educating a boy to be a father. A boy is educated to be a father by preparing him to earn a living in some honest calling—or, in other words, to support a family in comfort, and behave well in all respects as the head of a family. But such an education has to have in view the calling he will probably pursue, and not any vague thing called his "fullest development." If a boy is going to be a mechanical engineer, it is not educating him to be a father to occupy a large portion of his time in his learning years with music and the classics. He would doubtless, as a father, be the better of music and the classics, just as every hotel-waiter would be the better of a university education and foreign travel, but in education, as in other things, the limitations of human life, of human capacity, and of the labor market have to be taken into account. So, also, in educating a woman to rear children and manage a household, you educate her for the calling which eighty per cent. of her sex follow. It may be a small or mean calling, as most callings are, full of drudgery and containing little chance for "fullest development," but it is a tremendous fact from which there is no escape. The truth is that the passion for "development" and impatience of inevitable daily duties is one of the great causes of the social troubles through which we are passing. It is at the bottom of the Kearney insanity. If one sifts his ravings, one finds that, in so far as he represents anything, he represents the widespread desire to abandon dull labor and begin "developing." His way of accomplishing his object is to sit down and issue "city scrip" for the supply of his wants, which is, of course, childish; but wiser and more intelligent people than he are touched by this madness. The best cure for it is the thorough indoctrination of the young with the belief that the prime object of education is preparation not for an ideal sphere but for the duties which, in all probability, the pupil will in life have to perform, however lowly they may be; and no worse injury can be done to a young person than by sneering at them as something unworthy of his or her highest powers.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

A SERIES of books suitable for counting-house libraries, and to be called the "Business Library Series," has been undertaken by Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger, Philadelphia. The two volumes already announced, 'Common Sense in Business' and 'Home Comforts,' do not enable us to judge what will be the execution of a certainly good idea.——Mr. E. Steiger has issued the 'Year-book of Education for 1878,' edited, like the 'Cyclopædia of Education,' which it supplements, by Messrs. Henry Kiddle and Alexander J. Schem. The body of this work is compiled after the 'Cyclopædia,' and will be found rich in information as to the progress of States and foreign countries in education. There is also a long descriptive list of educational institutions in the United States, with statistics of the colleges and universities, a list of educational publications during the year, and a catalogue (laboriously compiled by Mr. Steiger himself) of American and foreign works on education and general philology, in the broadest sense of the terms, which is extremely valuable for reference and suggestion. The 'Year-book' will be issued regularly. ——Robert Clarke & Co. have published a 'Bibliotheca Medica,' or classified medical catalogue, which has been edited in their careful and thorough manner and completed with an index of authors.——The sixth annual report of the Boston Board of Health still leaves an unfavorable impression of the sanitary condition of that city. Accompanying it is a map which we commend for imitation to New-Yorkers engaged in the crusade against preventable stenches. It shows in red "the sources of some of the offensive odors perceived in Boston," the districts raked by them being indicated by wind-arrows.——The Thames at Windsor and at Greenwich is the subject of two new etchings now in progress for the Fine Art Society, 148 New Bond Street, London, of which Mr. Seymour Haden is the artist. They will be his largest works, Calais Pier excepted, and will cost subscribers not more than eight guineas each.——The first number of the *Zeitschrift* of the German *Palaestina-Verein* comes to us from B. Westermann & Co. This association, the latest to enter a field in which the English and Americans have become most active, was founded last year under very favorable auspices. The cause and manner of its organization are related by Prof. Kautzsch in this number of the journal; there is also news from Jerusalem concerning rock-tombs discovered south of Jerusalem on the Hill of Evil Counsel, illustrated by plates, and a summary of the freshest literature pertaining to Palestine by Prof. Socin.——Mr. B. L. Farjeon, the English novelist on whose shoulders the mantle of Dickens has been thought to have dropped, has carried the resemblance one step further by reading from his own productions in this country. It is announced that he will return here in October, to begin a more general series of readings from 'Blade-o'-Grass' alone.

—The following are some of the more important works to be issued by English publishers during the autumn. H. B. Cotterill's 'Researches and Adventures among the Lakes and Mountains of Eastern Africa,' from the journals of the late Capt. F. Elton, is complementary to the journals of Livingstone and Stanley, especially for the region lying between lakes Nyassa and Tanganyika. Sir J. D. Hooker's illustrated 'Journal of a Tour in Morocco' will also have something new to contribute to our knowledge of Africa. The East gives occasion to Capt. C. J. F. S. Forbes's 'Sketches of the Natives of Burmah, with a General View of the Country'; William Digby's authoritative 'Indian Famine Campaign of 1876–78'; D. C. Boulger's 'Life of Yakoob Beg,' the late redoubtable ruler of Kashgar, of which the history will be traced from the earliest times to its recent reincorporation with China; 'Natural History, Sport, and Travel,' by Edward Lockwood, of the Bengal Civil Service; and 'Fifty Years of the Career of a Missionary and Philanthropist in the East (Rev. John Wilson, D.D., of Bombay),' by Dr. George Smith. 'A New Concordance to the Bible,' by Dr. Robert Young, of Edinburgh, will be published by Longmans; by Chapman & Hall a first series of 'Critical Miscellanies,' by John Morley; and by W. Blackwood & Sons a new series of the Essays of "Shirley" (John Skelton), called 'Essays in Romance and Studies from Life.' Miss C. M. Yonge adds another volume to the Golden Treasury Series, 'Story of the Christians and Moors of Spain,' and Mr. Smiles continues his useful biographies with 'Robert Dick, Geologist and Botanist.' We mention also: 'The Past, Present,

and Future of the English Tongue,' by William Marshall; 'A Treatise on Versification,' with reference chiefly to the mechanism of English verse; 'Economics for Beginners,' by Henry Dunning Macleod; 'Water,' its properties, sources, distribution, and sanitary and engineering uses, by Prof. D. P. Ansted; and 'A Summer in Normandy with my Children,' by Mrs. Charles Ellis.

—Mr. Gladstone's article in the last *North American* under its rather sibylline title, "Kin beyond Sea," groups much interesting information and some sentiments and opinions which, in the light of Mr. Gladstone's despair of the Republic during the civil war, have something of the color of the *amende honorable*. He prophesies, and it is characteristic that this passage is what the daily press has for the most part singled out, that America will wrest the commercial primacy from England, and become "the head servant in the household of the world, the employer of all employed"; and he has no inclination to murmur at the prospect since the change comes in consequence of our service being "the most and ablest." He gives us great praise, also, for the good fortune in which the slavery struggle ended, in comparison with the British emancipation in Jamaica, and the sentence in which he states it is good reading for the unreconciled Blaines and Conklings, though they will certainly believe that the writer is accurately characterized as a "sophistical rhetorician." "We emancipated," he says, "a million negroes by peaceful legislation; America liberated four or five millions by a bloody civil war; yet the industry and exports of the Southern States are maintained, while those of our negro colonies have dwindled; the South enjoys all its franchises, but we have, *proh pudor!* found no better method of providing for peace and order in Jamaica, the chief of our islands, than by the hard and vulgar, even where needful, expedient of abolishing entirely its representative institutions." There is good reading for Gail Hamilton, also, in what is said of our own and the English civil service. But it is by no means all rose-color in the article; there are plenty of subordinate limitations and outspoken differences of opinion to save the writer from the charge of indiscriminate praise. He frankly avows that he shares the prejudice of most Britishers in not contemplating "the great Republic in the spirit of mere optimism"; he evidently prefers the home system of Cabinet and Parliament to the American stated terms of office and theoretic independence of the executive and legislative branches of Government. His account of the actual working of the Cabinet and its internal relations is very clear, full, and instructive; and his objection to our system, while modest, is pointed. He touches lightly "the proposal to tamper with the true monetary creed, which the Tempter lately presented to the nation in the Silver Bill," and assigns our corruption to individuals rather than the mass of the people; but he warns us that "the pompous detail of material triumphs is worse than idle unless the men of the two countries shall remain, or shall become, greater than the mere things they produce, and shall know how to regard these things simply as tools and materials for the attainment of the highest purposes of their being." Mr. Gladstone has earned the gratitude of American readers for these and like limitations of his praise, no less than for that praise itself.

—The other articles do not need such attention. Mr. John Jay's "Civil-Service Reform" is brief, but clears up ex-Collector Arthur's fallacies and misstatements very effectively. Mr. Julian seems to stand in some personal fear that somehow on Herbert Spencer's theory the world could get along without him, and he indignantly points to all the reforms now known to show that he must still remain in his place and fight; but what does he mean by talking about "the crouching tenantry, toiling under absentee landlords," in Massachusetts? Admiral Porter's "Torpedo Warfare" is interesting in connection with Ericsson's late invention, and Mr. Harris's "Readjustment of Vocations" is worth reading for what it says about migration. The article on "Alfred de Musset" is weak, and the Symposium on "Inspiration," with all respect to the venerable gentlemen who take part in it, has no more resemblance to a feast than the rattling of dry bones; it is useful only as another sign of the weakening hold of old doctrines, even in the theological mind; as in the discussion of future punishment, the views of the last generation have no advocate whose heart is in the matter.

—The announcement last week that Mr. Theodore Thomas had accepted an invitation to make his home in Cincinnati and assume the directorship of a new musical college, equal in its aims and appointments to the best European conservatories, was an undeniable shock to the lovers of music in this city. There was something very unmetropolitan in the idea of having the best music hall, the largest organ, the best musical instruction, the best-trained, and perhaps eventually the largest, orchestra *west* of the Alleghanies; but, desirable as the reverse might be, it could only be had by a display of public spirit and popular enthusiasm for music such as it appears Cincinnati was ready for and New York was not. The wealthy citizens of Cincinnati have erected there many worthy monuments of their liberality, and there is no reason for surprise at their having considered music a proper object of endowment. There is the less reason because the people of Cincinnati, of all classes, have shown by their attendance at concerts and musical festivals a widely-diffused fondness for the art, and this would naturally have suggested the gratification of it to those whose means gave them the power to provide the necessary facilities. Mr. Thomas's removal involves also that of some of his chief performers, and it will be some time before we can estimate Cincinnati's gain by an exact measure of our own loss.

—The purchase of "Olivia" by Miss Davenport for the Union Square Theatre appears to be what is known in the world of theatrical advertisements as a "positive success." In other words, the play has run for four weeks in the middle of summer to fair houses, and promises to run longer. That this is in great measure due to Miss Davenport's acting of the principal part need hardly be said. The play has little in it to attract except the scenery, which is exceptionally good. Why it should have occurred to Mr. Wills to dramatize the least dramatic and most idyllic of all English prose classics we do not know, unless it be, what may be shrewdly suspected, that he is ready to dramatize anything. In this case it may be said in his defence that he has kept very little of Goldsmith in his play, and wherever there was anything dramatic in the characters he has studiously omitted it. The *Vicar* he has reduced to a heavy walking parson; *Moses*, whose sole right to exist is in the humor of the character, dwindles in the hands of Mr. Wills to the proportions of an addle-pated supernumerary, while, incredible as it may seem, the ruin of the Primrose family, which one would have expected him to make the most of, is not put to any use whatever, the family remaining in the most comfortable condition all through the play, owing to the kindness of friends. To have the worthy vicar lamenting his miserable estate in the midst of luxury is an offence to our intelligence. Mr. Wills, however, has merely made use of Goldsmith to furnish a plot. The play is his own. The central figure is *Olivia*, whom we have first in her father's house, having her fortune told by the gipsy, then running away with *Thornhill*, then reduced to despair at the discovery of his perfidy, and finally at home again, reconciled to her family and lawfully united to the *Squire* after all. The part is one depending altogether on acting to carry it off, and Miss Davenport's acting is certainly very good, though the part has not enough action for her. Mr. Stevenson's *Squire* does not help the play much, as his wonderful mastery of his countenance enables him to conceal his emotions perfectly from the beginning to the end. Rage, love, hate, remorse are all one to Mr. Stevenson, so far as expression goes, and the singular impassive innocence of his face combined with the extraordinary baseness of his actions and sentiments makes him altogether as remarkable a villain as we remember on any stage. Mr. Price as *Burchill*, is very good; and Mr. Fisher, as the *Vicar*, does what he can with the part.

—The dramatization of novels has become such a trade that we may expect to see almost any work of fiction converted or adapted in this way. "Clarissa Harlowe," which is to be produced at Wallack's next week, is the last attempt, and we shall look forward with some interest to the result. We are strongly inclined to think, though we may be mistaken, that the real secret of the production of both of these plays is that the plot in both cases turns upon what is supposed to be a highly interesting relation between a man and a woman. But attempted seduction has not an essentially dramatic interest, and the character of Clarissa and of Olivia and the incidents of the two stories, furnish better materials for the novelist than for the dramatist. We can hardly recall an instance of a thoroughly successful novel making also a thoroughly successful play. And we are inclined to think that there is an essential reason why it is not to be expected. The novelist who creates a character has at his command far wider resources than a dramatist. He has not only dialogue, but description and narration with which to make his picture more vivid, and he has almost unlimited space. The result is that any character he creates is far more alive and real than the same character reproduced in a play. Sam Weller or Becky Sharp as they exist for our imaginations are the Sam Weller and Becky Sharp of 'Pickwick' and 'Vanity Fair.' We know them as we know real people. It is difficult to conceive any play in which they would not almost necessarily seem mere dim copies of these originals. If this be not the true reason there must be some other,

for it is quite certain that the characters which are most real and perfect in English fiction have never been put on the stage with success. To take a single instance: there is no writer of fiction who so continually suggests dramatization as Dickens; yet his novels on the stage have generally been lamentable failures. Of course a novel devoid of character and full of plot would not be open to the objection we have suggested, and hence the tales of Wilkie Collins, or at least one of them, has been found to do very well as a sensational play. Again, if playwrights are, like Mr. Wills, bold enough to take merely the names of well-known characters from a well-known novel and manufacture a play out of the whole cloth, there is no saying what may be the result, and what has actually been done with "Clarissa Harlowe" we have yet to learn. In fact, if Mr. Wills's plan is to be followed, we see no reason why the whole body of English fiction should not be utilized. There are, for instance, Miss Edgeworth's charming stories; why should we not have these on the stage? In Mr. Wills's hands no one can say what dramatic possibilities might not be discovered in 'Frank,' or why there should not be a good run in 'Sanford and Merton.'

—An English antiquary in the last *Athenæum*, not without a sense of the ungraciousness of his unromantic task, suggests that the bodies found at Mycenæ, instead of being the actual form and feature of Homeric heroes, once belonged to some of the barbaric Gothic chiefs who overran Greece in the Christian era, and he brings a long array of reasons: 1. The style of ornamentation of many of the gold objects belongs to the north. 2. The layers of pebbles under and over the bodies are another northern feature. 3. The sword-hilt lying across the loins, according to barbaric custom, and not on the right shoulder, as a Greek would have worn it. The absence of greaves and the enormous length of the swords, and the fact that one of them had a wooden sheath, are northern peculiarities. 4. The resemblance of the ornamented tombstones to the sculptured stones of Scotland. 5. The shape of the chariot-wheels, identical with those sculptured in tombstones from Kivik in Sweden. 6. Obsidian arrow-heads of marked Scandinavian type. 7. Iron keys. 8. The similarity in shape of the gold crowns to the bronze diadems of North Germany. 9. The presence of crystal, not used for ornamentation until late Roman times. 10. Gold signet-rings of a degraded rather than a primitive art. The author's theory is that some Gothic chiefs, slain in the invasions, were buried here with their plundered treasures, as Alaric was buried in the Busento. Some objects would thus be Gothic, and others the plunder of conquered cities. This view accounts for the absence of coins and inscriptions. The undoubted early Greek pottery would be the rubbish disturbed in digging the grave. The theory also accounts satisfactorily for some other anomalous facts.

—'The Earl of Beaconsfield, K.G., in upwards of One Hundred Cartoons from the collection of Mr. Punch,' is at once one of the most curious and the most valuable of documents for the study of the personified Asian Mystery who rules Great Britain that can well be imagined. *Mr. Punch* began his career almost simultaneously with Mr. Disraeli's actual entrance upon political life, and every step this adventurer has taken has been put down in black-and-white by the caricaturist. One hundred and four of the full-page cartoons of *Punch*, drawn by Leech, Doyle, or Tenniel, are here reprinted without other comment than a brief list of the events of Earl Beaconsfield's life prefixed to the collection, and the addition to each picture of the date of issue and of a succinct statement of the facts which called forth the cartoon. These brief statements of fact are passionless and without party feeling, and they let the drawings speak for themselves. The series begins with a vignette, which shows Coningsby, an infant Hercules, strangling both the Whig and Tory serpents, and ends with the grand double breakdown danced a few weeks ago by the two newly-made Knights of the Garter. In 1847 Mr. John Leech gives a picture of "The Rising Generation—in Parliament." Peel asks, "Well, my little man, what are you going to do this session, eh?" and D——li the Juvenile answers: "Why—aw—aw—I've made arrangements—aw—to—smash—aw—everybody." In 1852 *Mr. Punch* presents a medal, "The Calculating Boy gets the prize for Arithmetic"; the brief note informs us that "Mr. Disraeli produced his first Budget, which was favorably received." A little later the Political Topsy dances around amid Free Trade and Protection: "I'spects nobody can't do nothin' with me!" Nearly a quarter of a century after appears another African: "Mr. Disraeli extorted the admiration of the country by purchasing . . . the shares in the Suez Canal held by the Khedive of Egypt": the cartoon shows a Semitic premier winking at the Sphinx, who winks back—and the legend is simply "Mosé in Egitto!!!" This both in idea and execution is one of the best caricatures which ever appeared in *Punch*, although it is almost equalled by two of the more recent drawings. In June of this year, for instance, appeared "Façon de Parler!" Lord Beaconsfield, opening the door of the Conference, stops suddenly and whispers to Prince Bismark: "Oh, I say! By-the-bye! what's the French for 'compromise'?" And before the next week the existence of the Anglo-Russian agreement was revealed, and Lord Beaconsfield exhibits "A 'Happy Family' at Berlin," and as showman cries, "The British Lion and the Rooshian Bear will now embrace!" (*Aside*) "It's all right, ladies and gentlemen, this effect has been *well rehearsed!*" It is noticeable how often Mr. Disraeli appears in connection with what Artemus Ward called the "show biz." In 1852, and again in 1857, he is figured as a street acrobat; in 1866 he is the "property man" of a country theatre; in 1867 he performs the egg dance, then he is *Mr. Puff* in a scene from the "Critic," then a country *Hamlet*, then back again in a music hall as "Leotard," then in rapid succession *Jeremy Diddler*, a circus rider, a juggler, a performer of the rope-tying feat, and a dancer on the tight-rope. And even outside of the show he often makes but little better appearance. He is a poacher, a costermonger, a jockey, the "simple countryman" confederate of a thimble-rigger (No. 78) or a confidence operator himself (No. 96). Mr. Gladstone certainly can turn over the leaves of the volume without displeasure; he appears several times by the side of his adversary, and the contrast is always to his advantage. They are frequently paired, and never more amusingly than when, standing before a bookstall, on which are displayed 'Juventus Mundi' and 'Lothair,' each of the "Critics" (as the cartoon is called) is scanning the other's book. Mr. G-d-s-t-ne says, "H'm! Flippant!" and Mr. D-s-r-li says, "Ha! Prosy!" In another picture we see "The Two Augurs." *Disralius:* "I always wonder, brother, how we chief augurs can meet on the opening day without laughing!" *Gladstonius:* "I have never felt any temptation to the hilarity you suggest, brother; and the remark savors of flippancy." Later, only a year ago, Mr. Gladstone attends Lord Beaconsfield in "The Turkish Bath," and asks him how he feels. *Lord B., aside:* "Lost some weight, I fancy. You made it so confoundedly hot for me!" These direct and simple drawings are excellent specimens of the highest school of political caricature; but it must be said that no better subject for the caricaturist than Lord Beaconsfield has been evident anywhere of late.

THE BATTLE OF MOBILE BAY.*

FOURTEEN years ago in August this battle was fought. It was the last and greatest exploit of America's greatest admiral. It was an action memorable on many accounts, not only in the history of the Rebellion, but in the naval warfare of the world. Over two years before, the fight between the *Monitor* and *Merrimack* in Hampton Roads had inaugurated the new era of iron-clads. The battle in Mobile Bay established the system of defence of harbors against the new sea-monsters, even in deep water. It was the principal if not the only instance where vessels of the old school and the new—wood and iron-clad—were fairly pitted against each other under favorable conditions for each in a sustained fight. It was also a brilliant though not so novel an example of forcing the passage of a channel. It differed from the famous passage of the forts at the mouth of the Mississippi in being carried through in broad daylight and without any previous weakening of the defences and their garrisons.

The blockade of Mobile had been established at the beginning of the Rebellion. Month in and month out the blockaders had pitched and rolled outside of the bar, with the low white sand shores, crowned with beach-grass or stunted yellow pines, before them. Sometimes the monotony was broken by the arrival of a supply-steamer with the mails, fresh beef, and ice. Sometimes it was enlivened by the chase—not always successful—of a coming or going blockade-runner. Gradually the fleet increased. Bold reconnoissances were made in row-boats at night inside the forts to test the channel and examine the obstructions. Still the inactivity and monotony began to tell. Men's judgments wavered and their imaginations ran riot. Strange rumors floated about and grew. The Confederacy had been acknowledged by England. An irresistible fleet of iron-clads, bought by the Confederacy in England, was on its way. The harbor was full of floating and fixed torpedoes. A fleet was building at Mobile with which to raise the blockade. Young officers declared that even in the rigging they had felt torpedoes grate along the

* 'The Battle of Mobile Bay. By Commodore Foxhall A. Parker, U.S.N.' Boston: A. Williams & Co. 1878.

hull as they were carried out by the tide. A natural dread of this new and invisible destroyer might well have had an effect on the firmest courage analogous to the continued exposure to assassination. The sentence in the brave old sailor's report on this head is full of suggestion: "Regular discipline will bring men to any amount of endurance, but there is a natural fear of hidden dangers, particularly when so awfully destructive of human life as the torpedo, which requires more than discipline to overcome." The tone of feeling induced caused no wavering in resolution among the brave men concerned; but it must have brought an additional strain on their courage and taken from their buoyant confidence when disaster impended. It certainly bore its fruit in the fight.

The secret of the date fixed on for the attack was better kept than usually happened in military operations in the Gulf. It was communicated to General Gordon Granger, commanding the land forces, and by him to a few of his most trusted staff officers, two of whom he sent ashore the evening before to make proper dispositions of the army for investing Fort Gaines, keeping down its fire, and confining its large garrison. After an oppressive night, with some rain, the chosen day dawned fair and propitious, with the peculiar peaceful serenity of a still, hot morning at the sea-shore. The sea had a smooth, leaden surface, without a ripple, but with a long, easy swell outside the bar. It was a Friday; but the sailors probably transferred the evil augury, about which they are sometimes so superstitious, to their Confederate opponents. About 4 A.M. the fleet was in motion. The ships took their positions with great regularity, and stood up the main channel by Sand Island with the stately sluggishness characteristic of our men-of-war under steam. The *Brooklyn* led; her sister ships, the *Hartford*, carrying Admiral Farragut, and the *Richmond*, with their consorts, coming second and third. The four monitors were in column to the east, the *Tecumseh* leading. The spectacle was an impressive one, but it soon became tedious, and the time seemed long to anxiety and excitement. At about 6.45 A.M. the ill-fated *Tecumseh* discharged her guns once for the last time for the purpose of scaling them, and reloaded with steel shot for the *Tennessee*, never to be discharged. Fifteen minutes later the fort began to fire very slowly at the leading vessels, and the shot threw up large jets of spray as they fell harmlessly into the water. Soon the *Brooklyn* answered from her bow guns, and as she and the other ships got within range the cannonade constantly increased, till it became very heavy and furious. The channel led within about six hundred yards of the fort. When the ships got near enough to pour in their tremendous fire of grape and canister, the low guns of the water batteries on shore were in effect silenced, and the fire of the fort itself much slackened. Evidently, from the commotion in the water, a large proportion of the projectiles from the fort, as is always the case, was wasted. In the heat of the action, just as the *Tecumseh* had got by the fort and was heading for her special antagonist, the *Tennessee*, suddenly she was observed to lurch heavily to port, and, without once righting, to founder directly and disappear from sight. The confined air and steam in her continued to throw up spouts of water for some seconds, which seemed like the last gasps of the vital breath of some living creature. The sight was one of sickening dismay. The mind had hardly time to take it in or the eye to turn away when it was suddenly apparent that there was trouble with the *Brooklyn*. She came to a full stop in the narrow channel, close under the guns of the fort, and swung round. Suddenly, like the bursting of a rocket, the gay colors of the signal code floated out from her rigging. It was evident to any observer that her action threatened ruin and failure to the whole fleet. If she was unmanageable from a torpedo, or from a shot, or an accident to her machinery, the fate of the fleet was desperate. The fort saw its advantage, remanned its guns, and revived its fire with the utmost fury. The sea fairly seethed with the storm of shot around the leading ships.

Never did the genius and bravery of the admiral assert themselves more happily. It was no time to exchange signals or "swap jack-knives." On the instant he resolved to take the lead, and push by the *Brooklyn*. He called for "four bells," or extreme speed. The *Hartford*, the admiring naval author tells us, "bounded forwards like a thing of life," adding, as a check to our imaginations, that she reached a rate of nine miles an hour. To pass the *Brooklyn* she had to disobey the sailing orders for the fleet, and sail over ground where the line of torpedoes was believed to lie. There can be only one opinion of the gallantry of this heroic act, but if the line of torpedoes had been where it was supposed to be, and in effective condition, the admiral's life would have been many years shorter, and he would have died a victim in disaster instead of a victor in honor. As it turned out, either the information was wrong, or the explosion under the *Tecumseh* had disarranged the system, or the water had injured it. At all events the *Hartford* passed the fatal buoy in safety, the *Brooklyn* recovered from her nightmare, and the *Richmond* and the rest of the fleet kept on as if nothing had happened at the head of the column. For the rest of the day, as well as in more than one engagement before and after, Captain Alden gave abundant proof of his personal bravery and gallantry. His momentary wavering in a peculiarly trying position only showed that his nerve and head were not quite those of his commander. This was the turning-point in the fight. After this all the column ran the gauntlet with varying loss but essential success, the *Oneida*, which brought up the rear, having one boiler burst and losing heavily.

As soon as the fleet was past the fort it was attacked by the iron-clad *Tennessee* and three wooden gunboats. The former, after inflicting great damage, ran in under the guns of the fort for examination and a fresh start. In an hour's time one of the other gunboats was taken, and the other two driven off. One of these had to be destroyed; the other escaped to Mobile the next night. The action was apparently over. The victory was gratifying and brilliant. The high-strung suspense and excitement were merging into the indolent sense of perfect satisfaction when, at 8.45 A.M., the *Tennessee* was observed to be in motion, heading for the *Hartford*. The fight that ensued was unprecedented. The unusual sound of heavy broadsides of shotted nine-inch guns sufficiently attested its character. Besides the violent cannonading, the vessels with a full head of steam all did their best to run down the *Tennessee*, and in the collisions that ensued suffered far more injury than they inflicted. In the confusion the *Lackawanna* missed her second blow and rammed the *Hartford* instead, cutting her down to within two feet of the water-line, and opening a yawning chasm in her side, whereas her first blow had done no harm to the *Tennessee*. The monitors, however, with their eleven and fifteen-inch guns were more effective. Lieut.-Com. Perkins of the *Chickasaw* had been ordered North, but asked for and received permission to wait till he had carried his monitor through the expected fight. Though one of the youngest officers in command of a ship, he had the sagacity to reflect that, in a strange harbor full of torpedoes, he should be safest alongside of an enemy's vessel, which, for its own safety, might be expected to keep clear of obstructions. Accordingly he kept close under the stern of the *Tennessee*, and would not be thrown off, and pounded away at close quarters with his eleven-inch guns. He succeeded in jamming one of her ports and opening a breach for his shells to her interior; and to him Commodore Parker awards the praise of giving the vital wound which compelled her surrender.

This ended the fight by ten o'clock. The victory was now complete. The fleet anchored. Boats came and went in it with reports and congratulations. There was nothing to check the prevailing joy and pride and thankfulness but the thought of the inevitable losses. These were large for a naval engagement, but under the circumstances they seem astonishingly small. Out of some 2,700 men in the fleet 52 are reported killed and 170 wounded. Of these 36 were killed and 71 were wounded in the two leading ships, the *Hartford* and the *Brooklyn*. Admiral Farragut's report says far more of these losses were due to the Confederate fleet than to the fort. The *Richmond* escaped with none killed and two slightly wounded. These three ships were of about the same size, viz., 225 feet long and perhaps 20 feet of hull above water. The channel brought them within a few hundred yards of the guns of the fort, which they passed very slowly. It seems as if it would not need Capt. Bogardus or Dr. Carver to hit such a mark at such a distance with every shot. A circumstance that occurred at the end of the passage of the fort shows that the explanation lies not in the want of markmanship of the garrison, but in the difference between aiming under a hot fire and in safe target-practice. After the fleet was by, the little despatch-steamer *Philippi*, intoxicated by success and heedless of changed circumstances, attempted to follow it. The fort, having then nothing better to do, soon stopped it and made it try to turn round to beat a hasty retreat. In doing this it grounded on the flats at three times the distance at which the fleet had passed. Small as it was, the fort put shell after shell into it, and it was soon set on fire and destroyed. The extraordinary immunity of the *Richmond*, which played her full part gallantly in the action, while exposing a surface half that of a block of ten city houses, was also largely due to the skill and energy of her commander, Capt. Jenkins, and his able young executive officer, Lieut.-Com. Terry. She was stripped even of her top-masts and yards, and showed nothing above her spar-deck but three stumps of masts, with their extra shrouds and guys, and her smoke-stack. In this guise she looked more like a wrecked coal-barge

than a crack sloop-of-war ; but she was as well prepared for her duty as an oiled athlete in the Grecian games.

This is the outline of the story which Commodore Parker tells with much clearness and directness. His pleasant pride and confidence in his profession are attractive. He makes a cordial claim for the prowess of both sides in the fight as the common heritage of a reunited nation. With the same impartiality he gives the reports of the commanders on both sides. It is not simply sectional partiality that sees how much grander and more noble one is than the other. Two good maps accompany the account, which would be better if they contained their scale.

The youngest men who witnessed these stirring scenes in Mobile Bay have now reached middle age. A generation is already on the stage to which they are as much matter of written history as the encounters between Admirals Blake and Van Tromp. In the rapid changes of our times the means and methods of this fight will soon be as strange as the evolutions of Nelson's liners. To those of us who lived through this war, who remember how great seemed the stakes for which we played, with what keen interest we followed every success and reverse, who can recall our sacrifices, exertions, and emotions—to us the story of those years can never grow old, no interest can surpass it, no excitement in our lives can replace it. To us this minute account of one important episode will be a most welcome record of facts once familiar. To those who shall live long it may become a valuable check on the inaccurate garrulity of age.

SAYCE'S LECTURES ON ASSYRIAN.*

THE book before us embodies the substance of lectures delivered in the spring of 1875 and in that of 1876 in the rooms of the Society of Biblical Archæology. The first lecture is introductory ; the three following are devoted to the syllabary and its propagation ; the fifth treats of Assyrian phonology ; the sixth, of the pronouns ; the seventh, of the verb ; the eighth, of syntax ; and the ninth and last, of affinities of Assyrian and the origin of Semitic culture. All abound in information valuable not only to students of the Assyrian language, beginners as well as advanced scholars, but also to every friend of Semitic studies or of comparative philology in general. The Assyrian language is so closely akin to Hebrew that the knowledge of the latter, and especially of the history of its development, is extended by every discovery made on the field of the former. How diligently this new field has already been cultivated, among many others by the author himself, is apparent from every page of the book ; and how deeply interesting Assyrian research must soon become to Biblical scholars, the following, partly incidental, remarks may show :

"The relative pronoun *sa* . . . has the same origin as the demonstrative *sâsu* and the third personal pronoun *su ;* and it is found in Phœnician inscriptions, in the northern and later Hebrew of the Song of Solomon and the books of Judges and Ecclesiastes [*sha* and *she* in *shakkamti*, Judg. v. 7 ; *shallamah*, Cant. i. 5 ; *shehayah*, etc., Eccl. i. 9, etc., etc.], and in Rabbinic Hebrew. You will find traces of it also in some of the proper names of the Old Testament ; among the antediluvian patriarchs, for instance, *Methu-sa-el* is a purely Assyrian formation which would appear in the inscriptions as *mutu-sa-ili*, 'man of God.' I may observe, by the way, that many of the obscure names that occur in the early chapters of Genesis are likely to receive their explanation from the Assyrian monuments ; thus Abel, as M. Oppert long ago pointed out, is the Assyrian *'abilu*, 'a son,' and Noah seems to be referable to the same root as *Anu*."

That the results of Assyriological science are still to be received with a great deal of caution, and that the science itself is still exposed to attacks of a chilling scepticism, our readers need hardly be told. Such are the difficulties of deciphering Assyrian cuneiform inscriptions, owing chiefly to the use of signs—ideographic and phonetic, and including a large number of polyphones—borrowed from a people belonging to a non-Semitic race, that, according to our author himself, "accurate and trustworthy decisions upon delicate questions of pronunciation can only be reached after long and laborious induction," and "upon some points, indeed, it is almost hopeless ever to expect a thoroughly satisfactory conclusion." "A knowledge of the grammar and lexicon, as well as the structure of the language, is indispensable towards settling the reading of a word"—towards deciding, for instance, whether a certain combination of signs is to be read "*mur*, *ein*, or *khar*." To aid "in the choice of one out of many possible values assignable to a character," Prof. Sayce lays down, in his third lecture, nine chief rules, which practical students of Assyrian will probably find to form one of the most important parts of his work.

The non-Semitic people, the "Turanian" Accadians, from whom the Assyrians borrowed their system of writing—by them modified into four distinct forms, the archaic, hieratic, Babylonian, and Assyrian, properly so-called—are treated by Prof. Sayce with the fondness which subjects of latest discovery are always apt to elicit. Whether fully established or not, the historical position assigned to the people of Accad becomes highly interesting to the student of Biblical antiquities. To the Accadian inhabitants of the alluvial plain of Southeastern Babylonia, whose capital was Ur, now represented by the mounds of Mugheir, the Semitic conquerors of the Euphrates and Tigris regions, the masters of Nineveh and Babylon, owed all their civilization. "The Assyrian had received his arts, his science, his theology, and his culture from the agglutinative Accadian ; his literature was founded on the libraries of the latter ; and he grew up under the cramping influences of this dead language like the literary classes of mediæval Europe under the shadow of Latin." The hieroglyphic system of writing developed by the Accadians had existed before they descended from the mountains of Elam or Susiana, their original home ; the cradle of their race was pre-Aryan Media, the dialect of whose aboriginal Turanian inhabitants, the Proto-Medic, was also spoken by the neighboring Amandi.

The name Accadians (*Accadai*) Prof. Sayce considers to designate "highlanders," while he would connect the Old-Testament word Casdim "with the common Assyrian *casadu*, 'to possess' or 'conquer.' The Casdim would, accordingly, be the Assyrian *casidi*, or conquerors, who first made their appearance in Sumir or Shinar—that is to say, Northwestern Chaldea—at some unknown period before the second millennium B.C." These Biblical Casdim (the Chaldees of the English version) he regards as having no connection with the Caldai of the inscriptions or the *χαλδαῖοι* of the Greeks, since "the land of Kaldu or Caldu is first mentioned by Assur-natsir-pal in B.C. 878, and in B.C. 850 his son Shalmaneser speaks of the district as lying below Babylonia on the Persian Gulf" ; and "it was not till a later period that the Caldai occupied Babylonia, and under Merodach-Baladan made themselves so important and integral a part of its population as to give their name to the whole country." But as it is only these later Chaldees and their country that are so often spoken of under the name of Casdim in the Old Testament (in Isaiah, Jeremiah, Ezekiel, Habakkuk, and Daniel), and the name Ur Casdim, connected with the history of Abraham (in a narrative of late origin), points towards the southern land of the Caldai, while a form *Cald* is as entirely unknown to the Hebrew or Aramæan as *Casd* is to the Greek, the identity of the Biblical Casdim, the classical Chaldeans, and the Caldai of the inscriptions seems to us to be too firmly established to be "disposed of" on the ground of a phonetic difficulty.

There are other points in the 'Lectures' which we cannot but regard as boldly conjectural. Such is, for instance, the statement that *'ir*, the Hebrew word for *city*, "probably forms part of the name of Jeru-salem," "and under another form, that of *eri*, or rather *ëri*, must have been borrowed by the ancestors of the Hebrews and Aramæans, before their migration to the west," from the Semites who occupied the Euphrates Valley, whose "*Uru* [the Ur of Genesis] meant simply 'the city.'" The identification of *'ir* with *kir*, wall, walled place, is easy enough, just as *ar'a*, the earth, in Aramaic, is identical with *arka ;* and there is no necessity for finding either *'ir* or any other word denoting city in the first component part of "Jerusalem." We do not, however, mean to say that the conjectural identification of *'ir* and *yeru* with the Assyrian *ur* is not worth stating with some reserve.

The Commonwealth Reconstructed. By Charles C. P. Clark, M.D. (New York : A. S. Barnes & Co. 1878.)—Dr. Clark is a zealous and public-spirited student of the evils which beset the body politic of the United States, and his *nova instauratio reipublicæ* will be read with interest. With much of what he says as to our political condition no one will quarrel. With this condition no one, he declares, but "the successful politician, the fanatic partisan, or the patriot fool" is contented. The right of governing the country is shared by two great parties, neither of which has much claim or hold upon public confidence. Rotation in office ensures great activity in office-seeking and brokerage, and nothing else. The selection of public servants has passed into the hands of rings or combinations of politicians, who leave the people nothing to do but to endorse their nominations, while sometimes, by means of false election returns, they save them the trouble even of this. Venality has become common. Public men have become incompetent. Taxation is almost unbearable. Worse than all, things are deteriorating, instead of improving.

This black picture is fortified by many unquestionable facts and cita-

* 'Lectures upon the Assyrian Language and Syllabary : delivered to the Students of the Archaic Classes. By Rev. A. H. Sayce, M.A., Deputy Professor of Comparative Philology, Oxford.' London : Samuel Bagster & Sons ; New York : John Wiley & Sons. 4to, pp. 157.

tions from authorities. At the same time we must confess, though pessimism and despair of the Republic are almost as fashionable now as optimism was ten years ago, that Dr. Clark's pessimism is a shade too black for the times. He is not content, by any means, with pessimistic views as to his own country. A survey of the whole field of government suggests nothing hopeful or reassuring to him. The student of history is forced, he says (p. 9), to doubt whether the art of government is really making much progress. In all that concerns "political construction and administration" the devices of the present age are little more than "scholia on the methods of antiquity." In municipal business, for instance, would it not be hardihood to deny that "Rome or Carthage was better watered, drained, and paved, considering the mechanical attainments of its era, than any modern metropolis?" This saving clause is so broad that it would be difficult to answer this enquiry without more knowledge about the Carthaginian public works than we possess. But certainly we are inclined to think that some little progress in politics has been made since the time of the Punic wars. Perhaps the best test, on the whole, of the progress of good government, taking in a view of a long period of time, is material prosperity, because we know that whenever government is, on the whole, deteriorating, it must sooner or later diminish the profits of business, make capital timid, and so sap the sources of prosperity. Now, not to go back to the time of Hannibal, the civilized world has within the last two hundred years made enormous progress in material wealth, in peace, prosperity, and the pursuit of happiness. Consequently that government should have been getting steadily worse during that period seems highly improbable.

But Dr. Clark is fond of sweeping statements. Though much that he says is exaggerated, the facts out of which his exaggerations have grown are bad enough, and it is unfair to dwell upon these, as his main object in calling attention to our woful plight is not to lament it, but to offer what he considers a practical plan for its relief. His plan is certainly novel and thoroughgoing. It is, he says, generally agreed among intelligent observers, and is beyond dispute (p. 60), that the chief immediate cause of the difficulties which we have to meet is "the domination in our affairs of organizations of politicians." This he traces by a simple chain of reasoning to the operation of the direct popular vote. The direct popular vote, he says, works well in small constituencies and badly in large ones. In the latter its failure is to be attributed to three causes: 1st, "to the actual and necessary ignorance of the great majority of voters, both as to whom they are voting for and what they are voting about"; 2d, "to their utter inability to unite, of and among themselves, upon representative candidates for office"; and, 3d, "to political organization, which, started to help the people in this embarrassment, has, by the logic of the situation, become their corrupt and corrupting master." Thence he concludes that, if any improvement is to be made, it must be by such a change in machinery as will obviate the bad effects of this direct popular vote. Therefore it will be necessary in any new system of representation, 1st, to bring the business of the voter within the limits of his probable acquaintance with the man he votes for; 2d, of his comprehension of the duties that his candidate, if elected, will have to discharge; and, 3d, of his practical ability to unite with his fellows at the polls in the pursuit of a common object without calling the politicians in to help him. He therefore proposes that in every town, ward, or other civil division having a certain number of inhabitants, say 2,000, the registered voters shall be divided by lot into a number of bodies of three or four hundred, like jury-panels. Each of these panels is to be the primary electoral constituency. Each of them is to be called together as soon as convenient to choose a representative, who thereafter, until his authority is revoked, transacts the politics of the constituency for it. All the electors of the city or town united together will constitute an electoral college which will elect the town or city officers. The primary colleges will choose secondary electors, who will select members of the State legislature and of the House of Representatives. In like manner the secondary colleges in each Assembly District will appoint electors for the choice of governors, judges, senators, and Presidential electors.

The essential feature of the plan, it will be seen, is that it reduces the direct popular action to the lowest possible point. The "people," instead of having a hand in the selection of all officers, vote directly for only one; the theory being that they will, if confined to this one act, perform it in a proper and judicious way. This accomplished, all the rest is plain sailing, for if the result of the primary elections is to give a body of good electors, it necessarily follows that all the subsequent steps which depend upon the action of these electors must be good too. The objections to the plan are, of course, numerous. It has never been tried, and nothing is more certain than that it is in politics extremely difficult to predict how any plan will work until it is tried. The history of our Presidential Electoral College is a constantly recurring proof of this. Again, it involves the abdication of power by the people and the politicians; and neither people nor politicians have ever shown any liking for plans which involve such an abdication. If Dr. Clark could find some fresh community, unbound to tradition, and anxious to find out the true path to political perfection, guided by leaders who only care for the people's good, and composed of people who are not accustomed to look upon suffrage as a fetish, he might get it introduced. But in the present condition of public opinion we hardly know where he would find room for his experiment.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Carpenter (F. De Y.), Geographical Surveying, bds.	(D. Van Nostrand)	50
Conant (Rev. T. J.), Index to the American Cyclopædia	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Hassard (J. R. G.), School History of the United States	(Cath. Pub. Soc.)	
Hawthorne (J.), Mrs. Gainsborough's Diamonds, swd.	(D. Appleton & Co.)	20
Pattou (A. A.), The Voice as an Instrument	(Edward Schuberth & Co.)	
Ponce de Leon: The Rise of the Argentine Republic: a Tale	(Chapman & Hall)	
Reid (Christian), A Summer Idyl, swd.	(D. Appleton & Co.)	30
Richardson (C. F.), Primer of American Literature	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	50
Stanley (H. M.), Through the Dark Continent, 2 vols.	(Harper & Bros.)	
Smith (B. P.), History of Dartmouth College	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	5 00
Thomas Tusser's Five Hundred Pointes of Good Husbandrie, swd.	(Trübner & Co.)	

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 12, 1878.

The Week.

THE election in Maine has proved a victory for the Greenback party, which has out-voted the Democrats and now holds the second place as the formidable rival of the Republicans. There is no choice for Governor, and the election now goes to the Legislature, where the House, which chooses two candidates, one of whom the Senate must elect, is in the hands of the united Democrats and Greenbackers. Three of the Congressional Districts are carried by the Republicans; but the Fourth District, where the Republican candidate was extremely unpopular, returns a Greenback-Democrat, and in the Fifth District Mr. Eugene Hale appears to have lost his seat to Murch, an ignorant stonemason. Disorganization was greatest among the Democrats, who lost half their vote to the Greenbackers, while the Republican loss was not quite one-sixth of the party strength. The Democrats throughout the country have attempted to save their party organization by affiliation with the Greenbackers who threaten its integrity; but the result in Maine has made it clear that such affiliation does not mean compromise, but surrender, and an absorption of the old into the new party. The Republicans have, however, lost heavily, and indeed nothing else but demoralization upon financial issues could be expected to result from the vacillation of the party hitherto in regard to these issues, its tampering with the public faith in the silver movement, and its unwillingness to take honest and open ground. The Maine Republicans showed definite and active hostility to the financial heresies, and trusted to the intelligence and honesty of the people to give them votes, rather than to their too-frequent policy in the past of attempting to "catch votes" by avoiding and obscuring issues, and the result shows that it is only by this course that the party can preserve itself. Otherwise it will meet with the same ruin which has overtaken the Democrats.

The Vermont Republicans elected their State ticket by a majority of twenty thousand votes, and also two representatives to Congress. In the third district the bolting Republican and Greenback candidate, Mr. Barlow, a man who was connected with a post-office Ring the corruption of which was shown up by a committee of the House, received upwards of eight thousand votes; but as this is something less than a clear majority of all votes cast, according to the Vermont rule, a new election must be held. An analysis of the vote shows that the Democratic attendance at the polls was better than that of the Republicans, and that Barlow drew about equally from both parties, obtaining nearly fifty per cent. of the strength of each as shown in the last election. The Republicans ascribe their defeat to the apathy of the party, lack of documents and speeches, and the use of money freely by Barlow. But whatever explanation be offered, the positive favoring of financial heresies by Republicans, and the indifference to them shown by the willingness of Republicans to disregard them on account of the personal popularity of such a man as Barlow, are equally fatal. It is conceded that Barlow will be returned in the new election, and he is now said to be anxious to reunite with his old party. The bolting Republicans of the Third District have, therefore, at a most critical time in national affairs, secured a seat in Congress for a man whose only business will be to trade votes, and have thus given the weight of their influence to the fostering of one of the worst evils incident to representative government when it may bear most disastrous results in legislation. If, as is alleged, it is the result of "apathy," so much the more disgrace adheres to the party.

Butler's canvass in Massachusetts is plainly more formidable than was at first supposed and than good people desire, and he is likely to be a good deal helped by the Maine election. No better speeches for the purpose of influencing ignorance and greed could well be delivered than his are. He invents the great bulk of his facts, but this makes no difference to his audiences, and he introduces them with great skill as if they were mere commonplaces with which everybody was familiar. He plays, too, with great power on the widely-diffused belief of the laboring class, which the silver agitators did so much to strengthen last winter, that people with invested savings all belong to "Rings" or conspiracies engaged in grinding the poor in some manner, either through the Government or through banks and other corporations. Then he is very successful in posing as a lifelong friend of the poor man who is now on his last legs, or "fading away," as he expresses it, and who must, therefore, be used quickly or not at all. That he will draw heavily on the Democrats, in spite of the efforts of the managers to repudiate all connection with him, there is little doubt, and he will carry with him the whole of the nondescripts who find the times hard, and have been made familiar by the Republicans during the last twelve years with the idea that "Ben" is a man of infinite resource, and believe, therefore, that if he were governor he would, by some device or other, make each quart pot hold two quarts. A suggestion has been made by one Republican paper that a large part of the fifty thousand signatures, which he says he has received to the petition asking him to run for the governorship, are forged or copied out of the directory, and this is why he does not publish them. But is not this a shocking charge to make against "a public man." If the "iron-handed soldier" forged names to a petition, where should we turn, whom could we trust? The reason he gives for not publishing them is that if he did so he would expose the poor to dismissal from employment by the capitalists. How much kinder and more charitable, and therefore improving, it is to believe this than the forgery theory!

The Treasury has in quick succession issued two orders respecting the 412½-grain silver dollar. The first was that these dollars ($10,000,000) would be furnished to any applicant for not less than $1,000 nor more than $10,000 who would agree that they should not be used for the payment of custom-house dues, the dollars to be exchanged for U.S. legal-tender notes or bank notes in equal amount. The second order, which followed on Saturday, was that after the 16th instant the 412½-grain silver dollars would be given for paper currency in any amount and without regard to the use to which they might be put. This latter order opens the door fully to the payment of import duties with silver, or with legal-tender notes exchanged for silver. Accordingly gold is no longer wanted for that purpose, and the withdrawal of this demand for it has reduced the premium from ½ to ⅛, or the price from 100⅛ to 100⅛. In the meantime the market for sterling exchange has been weak and the rates have fallen from 4.84 to 4.82 for 60-day bills and from 4.88¼ to 4.86½. The London market for silver has been weak, and the price has fallen from 52⅛*d.* per oz. to 51¼*d.* per oz., and at the close here the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar was only $0.8739; the bullion value of the 420-grain trade dollar was $0.8898 gold. The popular demand for U.S. 4 per cent. bonds continues large, and another $5,000,000 of 5-20's were called in during the week to be redeemed with the proceeds of sales of fours. There have been since May 1 enough 4 per cents sold to redeem $75,000,000 of 5-20 6 per cents.

Secretary Sherman has played his last card in the silver business. He began by denouncing remonetization as a most mischievous move, which would prevent resumption. He next said that it was a very useful move that would greatly help resumption, and that $50,000,000 of silver could be floated at par. He then said the coinage of silver should be restricted or we should lose our gold; and he now offers silver for greenbacks to all comers, having previously refused to part with it except for gold. In other words, he offers

it at a slight discount, and will be able to say on Monday next that he has "resumed in silver." Those who will pay greenbacks for silver at present are the importers who want it for custom duties—that is, who know of a place where they can sell what they draw at a slight advance. It is difficult to see what motive any other class could have for availing themselves of the Secretary's offer. The story that this was going to help resumption in gold by drawing in greenbacks seems to be disposed of by the other story that all greenbacks so received will be immediately reissued in the ordinary course of business. The story that the Secretary thinks he will be able to maintain silver, gold, and greenbacks on an equality in the market is still too vague to be worth commenting on, and, in fact, all silver stories had better now be received with caution.

Secretary Schurz has reaffirmed his decision, upon which the Pacific Railroad companies had asked a rehearing, concerning the right of preëmptors to enter the unsold lands of those companies at $1 25 per acre. In addition to the points presented in his former decision he shows that, under the laws of the several States and Territories where these lands are situated, a trust-deed or mortgage does not pass the title to lands; hence, in his opinion, there has been no disposition of the unsold lands which can operate to defeat the rights of preëmptors under the Act of July 1, 1862. Instructions have, accordingly, been issued to the registers and receivers of land offices within the prescribed territory to allow entries to be made in the usual way upon these lands for cash. The companies intend, it is said, to contest the decision in the courts, as they have the right to do. Meanwhile it is doubtful whether the lands will be sold in any considerable amount by either method until a judicial decision is reached, since settlers will no longer pay the company's price for the lands if it exceeds $1 25 per acre, and on the other hand will hesitate to risk the improvements which they must necessarily make upon a questionable title. If any considerable bodies should settle in the same neighborhood or district it would probably be found, as in other cases of contest between railroad companies and squatters, that no money could be made by attempting to eject them. The decision applies to the unsold lands of the Kansas Pacific, Union Pacific, Central Pacific, Western Pacific, Denver Pacific, Central Branch, and Sioux City & Pacific companies.

The removal of Postmaster Filley, of St. Louis, has been, in its own sphere, as exciting an event as that of Collector Arthur. Filley was the Republican "Boss" of the State of Missouri, and his violation of the President's order has long been notorious. Indeed, it was supposed that he would be removed at the last session of Congress, and Mr. Samuel Hays, who now succeeds him, was actually encouraged to present himself and his credentials at Washington to await the sending in of his own name to the Senate. To the surprise of those who thought themselves well informed, and to Mr. Hays's mortification, Filley was renominated and confirmed. His open interference in local politics had compelled an investigation on two separate occasions, and though the Assistant Postmaster-General had appointed the agents, and he was whitewashed in the first instance, in the second enough truth was told to make his renomination seem impossible. Since it did not prevent it, the latest investigation was doubtless a surprise to the Boss, especially as the agent in this case was not commissioned by the Post-Office Department, but by the President. Mr. Hays, who is highly spoken of on all sides, replaces a vulgar and tyrannical "machinist," who had the hearty ill-will of his own party.

We understand that Mr. Hewitt's Committee will shortly go to Boston and sit there for a week or two for the examination of manufacturers and others actually engaged in the leading branches of New England industry, with regard to the condition of their business and the nature of the difficulties experienced by them in finding a market for their goods. This, as we suggested a fortnight ago, is really the proper work of the Committee, and work of which far too little is done. In fact Mr. Wells's reports may be said to be almost the only thing of the kind we have had, although it is the only solid basis of legislation on economical questions. We believe the Committee does not intend to give any hearing to the Insane of Boston, partly on the ground that it has no time for it, and partly that a good many of them came on to New York and were heard here. We cannot help regretting this decision, because no adequate presentation of their views can have been made in New York, and because no more influential and respectable body of the kind is to be found in any city of the Union. In number and variety of inventions for the regeneration of society we believe their New York brethren cannot hold a candle to them.

The yellow fever continues unabated in old localities, and daily makes its appearance in some new village of the infected districts. The charity of Northern cities is not exhausted, but each day money and supplies are forwarded in large amounts. The need of help is not so forcibly illustrated, however, by descriptions and statistics of the plague itself as by the facts presented in an appeal for aid sent from Washington, which make the number of workingmen thrown out of employ by the laying-up of steamers and the paralyzation of the four great railroads aggregate 27,000. The support of these for the fifty days that this state of affairs will probably continue, at a low estimate, will cost something over a million dollars. Funds and supplies cannot, therefore, become superfluous, and it will take the most persistent effort to meet the demand at all adequately. The fever is now raging in New Orleans, Vicksburg, Memphis, Grenada, Port Eads, Canton, Greenville, Port Gibson, Ocean Springs, Holly Springs, Plaquemine, Baton Rouge, Morgan City, and Hickman.

Those English Liberals who are most active in setting up the caucus in the boroughs are defending themselves bravely against their assailants by the "Well-are-the-Democrats-any-better?" argument with which we are so familiar here. In other words, they say that the Conservatives began it by arming the committees both in London and in the provinces with full caucus powers, and allowing them to supply candidates for all vacancies in the most arbitrary fashion, without the slightest consideration of local preferences. They even allege that in some places where the Conservatives have a majority in the Town Council the political committee has been in the habit of filling all vacancies in the municipal service by the mere formality of sending in the names to the Council. The Liberal plan of meeting these tactics of the adversary, however, is very like that of compensating yourself for the depredations of highwaymen by organizing a band of your own.

The Turks have been very slow in comprehending what it was they agreed to in signing the Treaty of Berlin, and apparently did not suppose at the time that it was in any proper sense a definitive arrangement, so they hesitated about evacuating Shumla and Varna and Batum, and have only surrendered the last within the last week, on finding that the Russians would not leave the neighborhood of Constantinople until they did so. In like manner they opened negotiations with Austria about the occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, as if the "mandate" of the Congress was not seriously meant, and have compelled Austria to seize the provinces by force. Safvet Pasha has also written a long despatch containing what the Turkish plenipotentiaries ought to have said at the Congress but did not, by way of showing that Greece ought not to have the increase of territory which the Powers say she ought to have, and indicating pretty clearly that no attention will be paid to their recommendation until force is threatened in some shape. The chances are that this threat will come from Italy and France in the shape of an intimation that the Turkish fleet will not be allowed to bombard the Greek coasts. Probably the most amusing illustration of the Turks' belief in their ability to escape in some way in the last resort from European dictation is the announcement to the British, after having agreed to reform Asia Minor, that reforms cost money, and they have no money—something which apparently did not occur to them in the beginning.

The best of the joke is that the English Tories are now using all this recalcitrancy as a proof that Lord Beaconsfield was right in not doing anything for the Greeks; for, say they, the resistance Turkey is making shows she is not as weak or humble as you thought her, and that if we had pressed her too hard she would have resisted still further and given a world of trouble.

There appears to be no doubt that the Bulgarians have been committing shocking outrages on the Mussulmans in Rumelia, and that the Russians, if not guilty of winking at it, have done nothing to stop it. The Commission, composed of representatives of the various Powers, sent up to enquire into it, have lighted on plenty of horrible facts, but they cannot agree on a common report, so each of them is going to make one for himself. The trouble is that they all, or nearly all, want to make "capital" out of it, and especially the English, who, headed by Sir Austin Layard, have been much troubled by the Turkish massacres of Bulgarians in 1876, and have long wished to show that the Bulgarians were just as bad, and perhaps deserved all they got. The melancholy truth is that the Bulgarians are doing what the natural and unregenerate man does everywhere when he gets a chance, and exactly what the Greeks did to the Turk when they rose on him in 1821 in the Morea. In April of that year Finlay says the greater part of 20,000 men, women, and children living peacefully in Greece "were murdered without mercy or remorse."

The Bulgarians have, however, borne far more than the Greeks. After the awful massacres at Batak and elsewhere in 1876 the Turkish military men seem to have reached the conclusion that by hanging plenty of Bulgarian peasants the Russians would somehow be retarded in their onward march. Their hero, Suleiman Pasha, who is now on trial by court-martial for treason and incompetency, is supposed to have hanged three thousand while he lay in front of the Balkans, and the Circassians and bashi-bazuks, who are simply Turkish farmers and shop-keepers serving as volunteers, helped in the good work by rape, massacre, and pillage in every direction. The turn of the Bulgarians has now come, and a year and a half of rape, massacre, and pillage has naturally soured their tempers and "embittered their sentiments." Sir Austin Layard and Hobart Pasha think they ought to rejoice in the opportunity now afforded them of settling down as neighbors and friends with their old enemies, and so they would if they were as gentle, kindly, and forbearing as Tory gentlemen; but being what they are they do to the Turks what Englishmen did in India to the wretches who were suspected of complicity in the Cawnpore and other massacres—shoot, hunt, and despoil them, and try to make the country too hot to hold them. It is horrible, but true, that there is no race or people but the Jews who have lived under the Turks to whom the Turk is not as a mad dog, to be slaughtered without mercy if the chance offers itself of doing so with impunity.

The events in the disturbed provinces of Turkey have been altogether stirring during the week. The occupation of Herzegovina was completed on Saturday by the entrance of the Austrians into Trebinye, and the retirement of the Turkish regulars, who had loyally hastened the surrender by threatening to open fire on the insurgents from the citadel unless they gave up their arms. In Bosnia General Philippovitch appears content to remain in Serayevo, though an engagement to the eastward, at Kadinoselo, in which a thousand of the enemy were beaten and thirty killed, is said to have taken place on the 3d. The communications with the capital are still the chief concern of this army, and the operations in the north have not been relaxed. In the extreme west General Zach undertook the assault of Bihatch, and succeeded in carrying two of the most important outworks; but on his left wing he could make no headway, and was forced to abandon what he had taken and retreat with a loss of upwards of four hundred, including several officers. From Banyaluka southward an attempt is making to clear the country of insurgents, and Kliutch was taken on Sunday, after a stubborn resistance, by the Thirty-sixth Austrian Division. Even General Szapáry was able on the 4th to send out a force to seize the road to Maglai, and on the 5th inst. to attack the force which has been virtually besieging him and drive it back upon Tuzla, not, however, without a loss as large as that of General Zach's.

The Albanians, who, both by their mode of fighting and from the character of their country, are formidable rebels, have risen with the Bosnian Begs against the Porte (who has been asked to cede part of their territory to the Montenegrins), Austria, and in fact the civilized world, or any part of it that seems likely to meddle with them. They have formed a league, to be called "the Albanian League," the government of which is to be installed at Prisrend, and is to be composed of delegates from each of the Sandyakates, and is to raise an army with elected officers and direct the military operations. They expected, when last heard from, to raise 160,000 men, of whom 30,000 were to be sent into Herzegovina and 20,000 down to Novi-Bazar. It was to deal with this movement that Mehemet Ali Pasha was sent to Diakova, where the insurgents are reported to have risen on him and killed him in pitched battle. His prominence in the latter part of the war as commander-in-chief for a short period, and as Turkish plenipotentiary at Berlin, has made his history well known. He was a German by birth, and reached Constantinople as a cabin-boy on a trading vessel. There he attracted the favor of a pasha, who got him into the military school, and at the time of the Crimean war he came into notice as a promising captain on the staff, whose knowledge of French and German made him very useful. For the repute he recently acquired as a strategist there was really no solid foundation; it was got up for him by the Jingo press in London, which brought forward a new Turkish hero every week to annihilate the Russians. He was a well-meaning and genial man, who tried hard to believe in the Turks, as all renegades do, and would, under a civilized government, have been a very valuable officer.

The armed resistance to the troops by the Nihilists at Odessa, following close upon the assassination of General Mezentsoff, the chief of the "Third Section of the Imperial Chancellory"—or, in other words, of the detested secret police—has called forth another departure from the quasi-constitutional régime in the matter of criminal practice established some years ago by the present Emperor as one of his reforms. The Vera Zassulitch affair led to the withdrawal of a large class of cases from trial by jury and an increase in the force of the rural police. The assassination of General Mezentsoff has now drawn forth a ukase which consigns to the jurisdiction of courts-martial "all crimes against the state, and acts of insubordination or revolt against the constituted authorities, or attacks on the person of public functionaries," and makes them punishable by martial law. If the disease be what it is said to be, the growth of a profoundly revolutionary and anti-social spirit, stimulated by the revelations of corruption and maladministration made by the war, the remedy is, of course, ludicrously inadequate; but then it is hard to say what other the Government for the moment could apply.

A turn has taken place in Afghan affairs favorable to England, and probably unfavorable to Russia, through the death of Shir Ali's younger son, Abdullah Jan, and the one whom he had selected as his heir, to the exclusion of his eldest, Yakub Khan, who had, through his military talents, won the throne for him in 1869, but whom his father has since kept shut up in close prison. Abdullah Jan was a youth of no character, and his death will probably lead to Yakub's release and reappearance on the scene. He is a very able man and a friend of the English. The Russian embassy has, however, it is said, reached Cabul, while the English mission is waiting at the frontier to hear from Shir Ali. The latest Russian story about the expedition to Balkh is, that it was ordered when war with England was thought likely, but has been countermanded since then; but this does not receive the credit its authors would like.

THE SILVER QUESTION IN EUROPE.

TWO very interesting articles on the Silver Question have reached this country during the past week, one on the bi-metallic side by M. Laveleye, the well-known Belgian economist, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and the other by M. Feer-Herzog, the Swiss delegate to the late Monetary Conference, in the *Journal des Economistes*. M. Laveleye, who suffers seriously, apparently, from want of knowledge of American men and affairs (taking Mr. William D. Kelley, for instance, and Mr. Bogy, of Missouri, as weighty financial authorities, and treating the Congressional proceedings on the Silver Bill as solemn debates of a scientific question), accepts in the fullest way the views of our leading inflationists, that abundance of money and the rise of prices through abundance of money are essential conditions of business activity and prosperity. His theory is that as population increases the number of commercial transactions increase, and an increasing quantity of coin is therefore needed, either for actual use in buying and selling or to furnish the means of squaring accounts which have been run up on credit. Now, the supply of gold from all fields of production is, he says, inadequate for this purpose already, and it is, according to the calculations of the best judges, likely to become smaller; the same thing is true, in a less degree, of silver. Therefore we need in circulation not only all the gold we can lay hands on, but all the silver, in order to prevent the terrible suffering which marks periods of declining prices, and we should keep them both in circulation together, so that when one becomes scarce the other may rush in to fill up its place. He takes it for granted that the present commercial depression in this country is due to the contraction of the currency. He acknowledges that "the theorists of mathematical economy" are right in saying that "the quantity of the currency is of no consequence, and that the work of exchange can be done with a little as well as with much metal," when things are already settled on that basis, as in Russia or Japan; but the coming down to that basis of countries like France and England would, he thinks, cause frightful disaster. He winds up by urging the United States to offer at the Conference to adopt the 15½ to 1 relation between gold and silver, and thus get into monetary harmony with the leading nations of Europe.

M. Feer-Herzog's article is his report to the Swiss Industrial and Commercial Union on the questions likely to be raised before the Monetary Conference, at which he was the Swiss representative. He has been long known as a master on the monetary question, and his paper, if read in connection with M. Laveleye's, will serve to illustrate admirably to the simplest reader the difference between the mono-metallic and the bi-metallic mode of treatment, and it is this: The bi-metallist, though he deals a good deal in statistics, is before all things a prophet. His arguments consist almost entirely of predictions; of experience he makes little or no use. The mono-metallist, on the other hand, relies almost entirely on experience, and refuses to predict, or to base legislation on prophecy. For instance, to the prediction that unless we adopt a double standard the civilized world will be unable to find enough metallic money for its transactions, seeing that the supply of gold and silver will probably continue to decline, M. Feer-Herzog replies that all history shows that the double standard cannot be made to work; that there is no way of preserving in commerce the fixed legal relation of the two metals, and that any departure from it has always been followed by the flight of one of them; that, therefore, the periods during which bi-metallists say there was a double standard were really periods of *one* standard and *two* legal tenders. He maintains, moreover, that the decline of silver does not depend simply on the law of supply and demand; that it is a phenomenon "due to the progressive march of civilization, and of which the effects have been felt from the discovery of America down to our own day, in spite of some oscillations, and is the result of the fact that the more intercourse and exchange increase and become perfected the more civilized nations feel the inconveniences of the heavier metal." In short, the bi-metallic theory has been long tried, and has broken down utterly everywhere, partly owing to the working of the laws of trade and partly owing to the growing unfitness of one of the metals to the needs of a highly complex commerce. A striking illustration of this last circumstance is to be found in the fact that the fall of silver has been accelerated instead of being retarded by the prodigious industrial growth of the civilized world within the last twenty years, and it has continued since 1875, in spite of the increase of the English exports of silver to India, from $55,000,000 in 1876 to $85,000,000 in 1877; in spite of the passage of the Silver Bill here providing for a coinage of $4,000,000 a month. The price still stands at less than 52½ on the London market; to support the relation of 15½ to 1 it ought to stand at 60⅝. The product of this country goes to China and Japan, and is coined here; the German and Mexican and South American silver which goes to London—$95,000,000 in 1877—is sent to India, and yet silver does not rise. If this does not mean that people do not want to use silver in their transactions in our day, what does it mean?

The silver nations composing the Latin Union have been unwilling to give up silver, but they have all been driven by the course of the metal market into suspending or ceasing the coinage of it. France resumed specie payments on the 1st of January, 1878. The Bank has now a metallic reserve of $422,000,000, an enormous sum, which makes the resources of our Treasury seem trifling. Of this about $160,000,000 is silver, and it is doing its best to get rid of it, just as our Treasury is, by sending out its five-franc pieces, in which its stock of silver largely consists, to all its branches in the provinces, with instructions to the managers to be "friendly to silver," as our Western papers say, and get them into circulation in every way in their power. The experiment thus far has proved a total failure. For every piece it pays out two come back. The public does not want them. When people want more than small change for their pockets, for daily use, they prefer paper; when they want to settle large balances they prefer paper or gold. In short, the silver reserve of the Bank is seriously increasing, and the gold reserve is in some danger—an exact parallel to the situation of our Treasury. France accordingly proposed to the members of the Latin Union in the beginning of the present year that they should all abstain from coining any silver until the next meeting of their Convention in October, and this was agreed to. What she will do then does not yet appear, but it seems probable that she will refuse to renew the Convention of 1865, and, if she does not abandon silver altogether, wait in her present attitude to see what is going to happen.

Of the American proposals at the Monetary Conference M. Feer-Herzog disposes very summarily. He says the plan of a "cosmopolitan legal relation between gold and silver" is "an economic absurdity," and he cites the experience of our Treasury as showing, like that of France, that modern commercial communities will not use silver money if they can help it. "The universal 15½" of M. Cernuschi is, he says, "better fitted for a theatrical vaudeville than serious discussion," and he brutally ascribes our silver craze to the desire of Utah and Colorado mine-owners to get rid of their wares, and to that of San Francisco stock speculators to send up their shares, and of the West to lighten its debts to the East and Europe, and adds that it is these things which gave the Bland Bill its large majorities in Congress; so that we fear the eloquence of Messrs. Fenton and Groesbeck has not influenced him. He closes with a sneer at "the dollar of the fathers," and, in fact, shows himself throughout a "Shylock," a "gold-bug," and a "tool of the money kings."

OUR RECENT DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS WITH MEXICO.

WE have recently shown; not only that depredations from Mexico have been at least equalled by those from Texas, and that their amount and character have been so insignificant as to render ridiculous any invocation of the "right of self-preservation" put forth by publicists as alone warranting invasion of foreign territory, but also that there was no practical difficulty in the armed pursuit at will of all depredators by the citizens and forces of this country so long as its national Administration refrained from openly offend-

ing a natural susceptibility intensified by constantly menaced independence. When seeking to explain why the Administration has lately assumed with great publicity and formality the right to do what had long and continuously been done by the courtesy of Mexico, it is necessary to examine the diplomatic relations of the two countries.

In January, 1877, Secretary Fish instructed Minister Foster that as the Government of General Diaz seemed well established, and as the United States could only receive the first instalment of the Mexican awards, then nearly due, from a government with which we held official relations, he should recognize the Diaz Government. This action was delayed by Mr. Foster for reasons never made public. Mexico paid the money without waiting for recognition, and there is a long hiatus in the despatches, leaving a suspicion that the whole subject was, perhaps by request, as is known to be true about some domestic questions, left open for the action of the present executive. The next appearance of diplomacy is in the use made by our State Department of an ordinary, and by no means important, military report by a subordinate officer in the usual course of duty. Lieutenant-Colonel Shafter, on March 9, 1877, reported to his department commander, in regard to some raids, that the robbers were followed about one hundred and fifty miles into Mexico, not alleging any international difficulties, but adding, apparently as an axiomatic proposition, "full authority to operate in Mexico as we choose is the only way in which life and property can be made secure on this frontier." This report, promptly forwarded to Washington, was transmitted to Mr. Foster, March 31, with the following comments of Secretary Evarts:

"The opinion of Colonel Shafter that the only way to check these atrocities is to follow the delinquents into Mexico and there attack them in their lairs is probably well founded. As the authorities of that country seem to be unable or unwilling to check the depredations, the President may soon have to take into serious consideration the expediency of acting pursuant to Colonel Shafter's opinion. Undoubtedly it would be preferable to enter Mexican territory, for the purpose indicated, with the consent or with the acquiescence of the government of that republic. If, however, these should be refused and the outrages persisted in, this Government may deem itself warranted in punishing the wrong-doers wherever they may be found. It may not be amiss for you, informally, to intimate these views to persons of importance at the capital."

Mr. Evarts seemed wholly unaware of the fact that the very expedient mentioned as a desperate alternative had been habitually adopted, as was shown from the same report transmitted, in which Colonel Shafter spoke of such pursuit as a matter of course, and of his intention to repeat it. Mr. Foster replied, April 24, that Sr. Vallarta, the Mexican Minister for Foreign Affairs, before whom he had laid Mr. Evarts's despatch, "said that it appeared important that an understanding be arrived at whereby the American and Mexican military authorities might be able to co-operate in their movements against the Indians and other raiders and outlaws, and that such an agreement should be made by or have the approval of both governments, and that the non-existence of official relations stood in the way of such an understanding." Immediately upon the receipt of this, Assistant-Secretary Seward, on May 16, 1877, wrote to Mr. Foster, directing the further suspension of recognition until it should appear that General Diaz's election (which the Mexican Congress had declared on the 5th) was approved by the Mexican people; this on the ground of the moral responsibility of the United States towards other Powers, which, it was assumed, would await our action before recognizing (an unwarranted assumption, as Spain, Italy, and Germany recognized Diaz soon after), and for the further reason that the United States must have assurances of the willingness and ability of Diaz to protect its interests. This direction might be interpreted to mean that, as the non-recognition of Diaz was the only obstacle to the settlement of the troubles, that obstacle should be continued, and was followed up by a despatch of Mr. Evarts to Mr. Foster on May 28, when, after announcing his view that the Gadsden treaty imposed upon Mexico responsibility for Indian depredations while releasing the United States therefrom, he concluded: "We may be compelled in self-defence to disregard the boundary in seeking for and punishing those bandits." On June 1, four days afterwards, Secretary McCrary issued the now celebrated order, which was at once given to the press, authorizing General Ord, in his discretion, to cross the Rio Grande on a fresh trail, punish marauders, and retake stolen property.

This order created the wildest excitement in Mexico, and on the 18th of June the Mexican Minister of War issued an order to General Treviño at Piedras Negras, directing him to use all zeal for punishment of marauders of both sides, to co-operate with American commanders, but not to permit American troops to cross the frontier, as such authority could only be granted by the Mexican Congress. At the same time the movement of regular Mexican troops to the frontier, which had begun under the previously expressed policy of Diaz, was continued more rapidly.

The next event of importance was the 4th of July speech of Mr. Blaine, in which he charged the Administration with seeking a war with Mexico. Whether or not affected by the newspaper clamor upon that speech, on July 14 Mr. McCrary's order was modified to the effect that when our troops should meet a Mexican force authorized to intercept raiders, they should retire and leave the work to the Mexicans. This order remains in force, unless its tenor has been made more violent by lately rumored instructions to be hereafter mentioned, and has been carried out many times, not always with the greatest discretion. All our military officers examined very sensibly testify that good relations depend mainly upon the character of those officers on the frontier. General Sheridan answered the question: "Then the peace between the two countries in the present emergency depends upon the prudence of the respective commanders?" "Yes, sir; I mean to say that if parties cross the river, either from Mexico to our side or from our side to Mexico, even on a fresh trail, there is danger of a collision. It might not come from the regular troops making expeditions, but sometimes serious consequences follow the firing of even an accidental shot with the best regulated forces." General Ord replied to a similar query: "That depends entirely upon the disposition of the commanding officers who should happen to meet each other, and upon the good will which may have been cultivated." There is, however, testimony to the effect that some of our officers have evinced over-anxiety and impetuosity, if not absolute hostility, towards Mexico. Lieut.-Col. Shafter appears to have expressed a "hope soon to get a chance to cross, and no doubt that it will soon occur either by Indians or Mexicans." The major of the Tenth Infantry, commanding at Fort McKavett, while unfortunate in the premature publication last week of his application to the Governor of Ohio for a colonelcy of volunteers, has not been more ambitious than others of his military brethren operating on the border. War-talk in our camps has run extremely high, and there is even evidence from the collector of Brownsville and our consul at Matamoros that a naval officer in command of a gunboat on the Rio Grande, operating in conjunction with the military, proposed that parties should be sent across the river to fire on his vessel, and give him a pretext for attacking, and that he thought he was thus carrying out the purposes for which he had been sent to the boundary river with his gunboat.

The Mexican order, before mentioned as issued under excitement, remains a dead-letter. The objectionable General Cortina was recalled from the frontier, arrested, and is now in prison. All our officers testify to the good disposition of the Mexican troops and of the Diaz Government both before and since their order was promulgated. General Sherman said: "I believe that the Mexican officials are anxious to prevent any such complications, but they have no more control over their people than we have over ours." Colonel Shafter testified that the troops of Diaz had, in every instance in which he had requested it, shown a willingness to assist in recovering property belonging to Americans, claimed to have been taken by raiders from Mexico, and "they have joined forces with us in pursuit of raiders, and that but a few days ago"—that is, but a few months now past. Our chief of commissioned raiders, General Mackenzie, has made a similar acknowledgment to the civil authorities within a fortnight.

When Congress last assembled, the Committees on Foreign and Military Affairs of the House, and a special committee of the Senate, commenced the investigation of Mexican affairs, and a resolution was introduced by Mr. Cox, of New York, favoring recognition. Minister Foster was summoned to Washington, and in March last returned to Mexico with instructions to recognize Diaz on account of his good disposition to observe treaties, protect the frontier, and pay the awards, of which the second instalment had been paid. He was also instructed to invite negotiations for the "permanent means for the preservation of peace and the punishment of bandits on the frontier." The recognition was made in April. As a result of this action the Mexican Senate, just before its adjournment on May 30 last, was induced to grant, at the request of President Diaz, the necessary authority for our troops to cross the frontier. Thus, after the tardy, grudging, and compelled recognition by our Administration, there seemed to be no difficulty in the way of a perfect settlement through the negotiations invited by it, beyond the withdrawal for a few days, pending them, of the offensive and wholly unnecessary order of our War Department. That small salvo might readily have been allowed by a magnanimous or even just nation to the remains of Castilian pride in a sister republic, but this sole remaining cause of irritation has apparently been carefully preserved. On the 15th of June General Mackenzie crossed the river with a large force, captured over fifty cattle claimed by Mexicans as their property, and destroyed crops. The same month was marked by the crossing of Escobedo's expedition organized in Texas with notoriety to overthrow Diaz. If the strong nation of the United States, with telegraphic advice and railroad facilities, was, in fact, unable to arrest that long-bruited invasion it can hardly make a point upon more secret and less serious Mexican incursions.

The Mexican Government naturally declined to pursue the negotiations under the standing menace of the order and the sword of General Mackenzie. General Ord was called to Washington, to return with a renewal of his instructions, and General Mackenzie again crossed a few days ago with a still larger display of infantry, cavalry, and artillery. We are thus placed in the attitude of insisting upon breaking down by armed force a door which was before informally held open to us, and the key of which Mexico shows entire willingness to tender with all diplomatic solemnity.

PARLIAMENTARY PROCEDURE.

AT first view there is a good deal of force in the assertion that autocratic government is much simpler and more systematic than the representative method is. A British Parliament or an American Congress *is*, in many respects, an unwieldy body, and the process of getting principle applied to legislation by such means seems often very bungling and unpromising. The "Home-Rulers" in the English House of Commons have been using the free representative's privilege of speaking against time, and so obstructing other business, with a purpose of forcing attention to their demands, and the majority of the House has, as was natural, taken to discussing the foundation of this right to obstruct public business, and a committee appointed last winter has brought in a report recommending some important changes in the rules of the House. It is both interesting and instructive to compare the difficulties our British brethren find in the practice of representative government with those which we meet on this side the ocean, and to which, so far as they relate to the organization and rules of our own House of Representatives, we called attention some months since. The smooth working of a representative legislature is so essential to anything like satisfactory success in republican government, that it is worth our while to take some pains to understand its conditions and to apply the force of intelligent public opinion to its improvement.

We should, however, at the very outset, dismiss the hope or expectation that popular government can ever be so satisfactory a *machine* in its organization and working as a despotism may be. The attempt to embody the will of a great people in its laws necessarily implies the agitation, the strife of parties, the parliamentary struggles, the interminable speech-making, perhaps even the obstructive filibustering of a minority, with which we are so familiar. The will of one man, backed by overwhelming force, makes the most noiseless and quiet working of all political contrivances—till the day of revolution and explosion comes. We must frankly accept, therefore, as the price of free government and of free progress for man, the chafing and the turmoil which are incident to the efforts of men to make their opinions the ruling ones, whether such opinions are those of the Home-Rulers in Ireland or the Kearneyites in America. But this acceptance must not be the indifferentism which shirks all labor; the duty of each citizen to be an active unit in forming the common sense, the public opinion, and the public will is as plainly one of the conditions of enduring freedom as is the acquiescence in the right of others to agitate and by every honest means to impress their ideas upon our legislation. Our problem is to reduce all unnecessary evils and all the disagreeable features of free government to the minimum, whilst scrupulously respecting everything, even apparent license, which is conducive to real progress. The question of parliamentary rules, like the more general one of which it is part, must be looked at from this stand-point. It is quite as important that the minority should have full and fair opportunity to urge its views and advocate its opinions as that business should move on without friction or jar; but a full and fair chance to advocate opinions does not mean a power to say that no business shall be done unless parties change places and the many submit to the few.

In several important particulars the British House of Commons has a better organization and system than our House of Representatives. The non-partisan character of the speaker, the responsibility of party leaders, and the active participation of the ministry in its proceedings are points in which we think its superiority as an instrument for republican government is manifest. The recent discussion there to which we have referred has, however, shown that in accordance with the fixed law of English progress, which reverentially preserves the old till its inconsistency with the new becomes practically intolerable, it has kept some things among its customs and rules which our experience shows the safety and advantage of abolishing.

It is curious to notice that the rules which are now found most troublesome and obstructive in practice are the outgrowth of the most warmly cherished principles of English freedom, viz., that the House of Commons has the right to present and discuss the grievances of the people before voting supplies to the crown, and that therefore the free speech of its members shall in no wise be destroyed or abridged. From the latter of these principles has come the aversion, now become practically hereditary, to any limitation of debate, either by calling the previous question or by any other method of closing it by vote of the House itself. From the former has come the rule which permits nearly every conceivable subject to be discussed under the form of amendments to the supply or appropriation bills. It is easy to see that in the absence of any limitation either to the length of a member's speech or to the whole debate it becomes practically impossible to tell at what time a vote may be reached, for night after night may be used up in the debate of wholly irrelevant amendments; or, amendments of which notice has been given may be withdrawn and a vote precipitately reached in the absence of many who had reckoned upon the time being used in discussion, and were away at other important work.

Another rule of the House of Commons which is now exciting opposition is one which determines by lot, at the beginning of the session, the order of precedence in which members shall have the right to introduce private bills and have action at the second and third readings of them afterward. This also had its origin in the sense of fairness which held that every borough and constituency should have an equal chance to a hearing upon local measures, but the growth of business in so great an empire has made an absurd obstruction to important business out of what was originally equitable and satisfactory. Bills in which the public feel no interest, and which are of not the slightest consequence, often crowd the calendar towards the close of a session, to the destruction of every chance for action upon measures of real moment.

These are the principal points which, together with the question of the manner in which the House may deal with a refractory or disturbing member, have during the past session been the subject of examination by a parliamentary committee. One of the minority of the Committee, Mr. Knatchbull-Hugessen, has also presented his views to the public in the columns of *Macmillan's Magazine*, in an article which most men of experience in this country will agree with.

The discipline of members of a legislative body always presents a mixed question of the right of a legislature to protect itself and preserve order, and the right of a constituency to be represented and to be heard through its member. The boundaries of these rights are necessarily so

vague that it has been found practically wise in this country as elsewhere to attempt no sharply-drawn definition of them, but to leave the matter to the responsible discretion of the House itself. An expulsion, or even a censure, of a member, under circumstances which showed partisan injustice or the purpose of silencing an agitator's voice or preventing an opponent's vote, is so nearly certain to prove mischievous to the party which does it that in any country like England or America there is very little danger of it, and the punishment, if it is done, is pretty adequately meted out by the constituencies at the next election. But if a member is proved to be morally unfit to associate with gentlemen, by the commission of crime, or by frauds, or gross immorality in his conduct of his public duty, the constituency must take the penalty of electing so unfit a person in a temporary loss of representation. Each case must stand on its own merits, the public is the tribunal before which it is tried, and the results hitherto justify us in leaving the remedy where it is, and the rule in its present vagueness. In this country the anti-slavery cause profited by the expulsion of Giddings and the attempt to censure John Quincy Adams. In England it is well settled that the unseating of John Wilkes, vile as he was, was a great mistake.

The English method of distributing the introduction and reading of bills by lot strikes an American as absurdly impractical. Our representatives select their seats in the hall by lot, because the matter is only one of personal comfort and convenience; but it should be a fundamental principle of legislation that the order of business and the passage of measures should in all respects be removed as far as possible from the realm of chance. Our system of reading a bill the first and second time by title, unless a member demands a full reading, and of referring it to an appropriate committee as a matter of course, is as nearly right as a system can well be made. Our weak point, as we have heretofore shown, is in the composition of our committees and our method of selecting them.

In our method of considering amendments to appropriation bills we also have a great advantage of the House of Commons. Our rules require that the amendments shall be germain to the subject-matter of the bill, and that none which change existing law shall be in order, except they retrench expenditure. The last of these conditions is frequently abused and is of very doubtful use in any case; but the others are very valuable by preventing "tacking" and by confining the bill to its proper subject. All such bills must be first considered in Committee of the Whole, where, after a fair amount of debate under the "one-hour" rule has been had, the House is always ready to limit debate to five-minute speeches under the rule made for that purpose, and when even this becomes wearisome, the Committee may rise for the purpose of having the House in ordinary session fix the time to close the debate. We think no one familiar with legislative work in this country will deny that this method is as good a one as could well be adopted. The only objection having much weight which could (so far as we are aware) be urged against it is that which will apply to all forms of limiting debate by the "previous question" or other similar rule. We believe that the British Commons could adopt it with real advantage to their conduct of business, and without any consequent disadvantage which need be feared. As Mr. Knatchbull-Hugessen points out, the old formula of "grievances before supply" is become an empty thing, since the discussion of grievances, in the new conditions of society, is conducted without cessation or intermission in the press, on the platform, everywhere and at all times, so that it would be ridiculous to imagine that any "palladium of liberty" is thrown away.

The question of the right of the majority to close debate by the "previous question," or some similar rule, is one on which there is more room for debate. We think the history of legislation in this country fully sustains the advisability of the rule, though it might be modified in some respects so as to work with greater equity and with more general satisfaction. Such modifications, however, would not affect the general principle. In every contest of opinion a time arrives when argument is practically exhausted, and debate means no longer an effort to convince, but only to obstruct the passage of a measure. That the discussion should then close is dictated by common sense and by every rule for the real progress of business. The rules of the House of Representatives provide that any member may move the previous question, and the majority may decide that it shall be put, the member making the motion having then one hour for the closing discussion of the measure. Custom, which has the force of rule, further makes it the duty of the Speaker to recognize the member in charge of the measure as the first to make the motion, and it is common for this member to divide his hour into brief portions distributed to both sides of the House.

Inexperienced persons are most apt to object to the closing of debate by a mere majority vote, and to suggest that two-thirds, or some other larger proportion, be required. When, however, it is remembered that in all cases of serious contest a minority can make use of dilatory motions to prevent immediate action, and have in this way a means of giving strength to their negotiations for time in debate, we think the weight of argument is in favor of leaving the power with the numerical majority. When the previous question is moved after a really full discussion, everybody recognizes the propriety of it. It is, however, in the severe application of the rule to prevent all debate that its abuse is found, and a reasonable limitation of its force in this respect would be just and proper. If the rule provided that the motion for the previous question, when adopted, should still leave two hours for debate under the five-minute rule, all the necessities of reasonable discussion would seem to be harmonized with reasonable despatch of business; and under the custom which allows one who obtains the floor to yield his time to another, a speaker who is making telling points could extend his remarks by the courtesy of those who agree with him in opinion. In this way the passage of bills without discussion would be in great degree prevented, and yet the waste of time would also be avoided.

In regard to one form of closing debate allowed in the House of Representatives, viz., suspension of the rules, other legislatures may take warning from our example. The Mondays of Congress, on which such motions can be made, are nearly ruined for work by the dread of *ad captandum* resolutions and bills, which may then be passed without discussion by a two-thirds vote. Under the decisions of the Speakers the motion "to suspend the rules and pass" is not divisible, and must be put as one motion, and it consequently is made the political thumb-screw of parties, by which opponents are forced to "make a record" upon cunningly-devised, disingenuous propositions, to support or oppose which may be equally embarrassing to a public man. The sting would be taken from the rule if the question was made divisible, for many a man could vote without embarrassment against suspending the rules who would hesitate in regard to the rest of the motion; and occasions will arise when the power of a two-thirds majority to suspend the rules may be properly used.

We notice that Mr. Knatchbull-Hugessen favors something like the session for debate only which is held in Congress at times when the regular business of the House is adjourned. Such sessions should not be regarded as in any sense meetings of the House. As a matter of fact, no one attends them but the members who have prepared a speech for circulation among their constituents, and there is not even the pretence of such speeches being part of the business debates. The same result would no doubt follow the adoption of any similar custom in the House of Commons. It would be incomparably more sensible for Congressmen or Members of Parliament to issue their pamphlet in the form of a printed address to their constituents, and avoid the sham of a pretended part in a debate which never took place. An explanation of a vote, or an elucidation of a proposition, would be a respectable and useful thing in the form we have suggested; and if the people do not already know, it would afford a good opportunity to tell them that not every representative can possibly be heard even upon measures in respect to which he thinks he has something to say.

The conduct of legislative business is of so great importance to free peoples that no apology should be necessary for discussing a subject in which technicalities can hardly be avoided. It is well that the people should understand the methods which their legislative bodies adopt, and the reasons for keeping or changing existing rules. We are glad, therefore, to see in the English magazine a presentation of the need of parliamentary reform from the pen of an able man practically familiar with proceedings in the House of Commons, and could hope that a comparison of the experiences of both countries might help the public men of both to perfect their systems of procedure, so that the best intelligence and noblest purposes of the nations may find most certain and ready expression in their laws.

FRANCE AND ITALY AT BERLIN.

PARIS, August 23, 1878.

IT would be difficult to analyze exactly the feelings which have been excited in France by the Treaty of Berlin. The nation has been kept in a singular state of ignorance about foreign affairs and the long development of the Eastern Question. It is only a year since the whole country was convulsed by the electoral agitation which followed the 16th May. It is not astonishing if in the period which followed the dissolution little

attention was paid to the distant battles of the Turks and the Russians. France only began to *realize* the Eastern Question when she was summoned to a European Congress. The Republicans, who had achieved a great electoral success, who were in power, in the full and quiet possession of every post, who were trying to convince not only all the French Conservatives but all the foreign princes and potentates of their own harmlessness—the Republicans of the *République aimable* had only seen through a veil the events of the East. They knew not the bloody flags of Plevna ; they only knew the gay and omnicolored flags which have adorned Paris since the Exposition opened. Their honeyed mouths can only pronounce the words of peace and progress. We keep an army of 400,000 men ; we have large *corps d'armée* and staffs innumerable ; we have autumn manœuvres and grand reviews, but we are all for "pain et travail." During the great fête which the Republic offered itself some time ago there were I don't remember how many devices of this sort. Our democracy is proud of its pacific character. This great fête, which was a sort of spontaneous generation of flags and of Venetian lamps all over Paris, was, so to speak, the Apotheosis of the Exposition, the sublime scene which in the London pantomimes is called the Transformation, the scene in which everything is volatilized and electrified.

Then came, a few days afterwards, the news of the settlement of Berlin. It acted like a shower-bath on the heated imaginations. Nothing is more curious to study than the sudden impulses of the Parisian mind. Our versatile imagination does not like to grasp facts very long, and to digest them, but our perception is wonderfully quick. The French understood in an instant that *something* was wrong, that the Treaty of Berlin was a very significant event ; and they began to doubt what they had been carefully taught to believe by the parties in power. The study of geography is not as popular among us as it is at Gotha ; few people two years ago knew exactly where Bosnia was, or Herzegovina, and the name of the peninsula of the Balkans seemed almost a mystery. The newspaper which has kept a sort of traditional reputation for its treatment of foreign affairs, the diplomatic *Journal des Débats*, quoted by all the other papers, had been since the origin of the Eastern difficulties directed by persons who were, above all, anti-Russian. If I said that they were Poles I should not be far from the truth. Surely the word is one which I would only pronounce with respect ; but my sympathy for an unhappy people would not lead me so far as to give the control of public opinion in European matters to a born enemy of Russia. The *Journal des Débats* has never been written with more *éclat*, more wit, more real knowledge of men and things than it has been for the last two years ; but it could not see the truth ; it was blinded. It would not believe in war at first ; then it could not believe in the triumph of the Russian arms ; then it could not believe in a common and harmonious action of the three Chancellors and of their sovereigns ; then it could not and would not believe that England would prefer a share in the spoils to a quixotic war in favor of undefinable European rights, and of an indefensible integrity of the Ottoman Empire.

Public opinion had been gradually and slowly moulded by clever writers who struggled constantly against facts ; this phenomenon could only be well compared to what happened in England during the American Rebellion. To the very end, public opinion, notwithstanding the progress of the Northern arms, was led to believe in the impossibility of the Union. Public opinion in France was much more indifferent about Eastern affairs ; the résumé of the vulgar opinion was this : "We need not trouble ourselves much about the matter ; the Russians and the Turks will fight without much result ; as for the three Emperors, their union is a farce : Austria hates Russia, and Italy backed by Prussia will never allow Austria to gain anything in the East." This is exactly what was currently thought and said. These trivialities were a sort of *fonds* on which every imagination built fantastic notions. "J'ai fait mon siège," said the historian Vertot, to a friend who told him that the siege had not taken place at all. When the Congress was called to meet at Berlin, it was natural to think that Berlin would have a paramount influence in it ; the Treaty of Paris, made after the Crimean war, was in reality the work of Napoleon III. It was impossible that the German Chancellor, who was the president of the new Congress, should not have a leading part in the new diplomatic work. But on this point again public opinion was very confident ; the Republican press since the triumph of the Republican party in the last general elections had been repeating over and over again that Prince Bismarck was well satisfied with the state of things in France. M. de Gontaut-Biron, whom the Prince is said not to have regarded with favor, as he was too much connected with his own enemies, had been obliged to make room for M. de Saint-Vallier, and M. de Saint-Vallier was described as a *persona grata :* he enjoyed the full confidence, even the friendship, of the German Chancellor. Our public expected, therefore, that our plenipotentiaries would be in the very best position at Berlin, as France asked nothing for herself. They would become the disinterested arbiters of peace : they would be the real peacemakers. Very high-sounding phrases were made on this theme, and they would have been very harmless if they had not persuaded many people that we really, in virtue of our republican character, and in consequence of our neutrality, would play the most important part in the settlement of the Eastern difficulty. The Russian, the Austrian, the German plenipotentiaries did nothing to dispel this illusion : France awoke from her dream at the voice of Lord Beaconsfield. The treaty between Turkey and England was the revelation ; it is well known now that this important Convention, which gives Cyprus to England, and which divides, as it were, the dominion of Asia between Russia and England, was perfectly well known in Berlin, in Vienna, and in St. Petersburg before it was announced to the world.

In France and in Italy the surprise was very genuine. We had been told over and over again that England was ready to go to the last extremities in order to defend the Treaties ; that she was disinterested ; that she had refused all the offers of Artaxerxes ; she would continue for ever to do what Lord Palmerston did when the Emperor Nicholas offered Egypt to Sir Hamilton Seymour ; she would never go to the Sick Man and knock him on the head. Now, it was perfectly clear that if Lord Beaconsfield and Lord Salisbury had begun to play the part of Lord Palmerston, they did not intend to play it to the end of the drama. Old treaties, integrity of the Turkish Empire, abuses of Russian ambition—this was all for the first chapters ; the last chapter was an arrangement with all the Powers (for the Convention was known of *all* the Powers) and a new partition of Poland. Lord Beaconsfield objects to the word partition ; he will have it that Turkey has only been concentrated. We will not dispute about words. In one of Balzac's novels there is a *peau de chagrin* which contracts and concentrates itself till it vanishes.

There was much surprise felt in France at this sudden termination of the struggle between Russia and England ; "Perfide Albion!" was on all lips. There was even some anger felt against the Prince of Wales, who since the opening of the Exposition had been spending so much time in Paris. Suspicious people whispered that he had himself played a part—perhaps an unconscious part—in the great plot of the sovereigns. He had *enguirlandé* Gambetta, to use a favorite Russian expression, and Gambetta roared furiously for a couple of days after the secret Convention was made public. This effervescence of anger was not of long duration in the press. Perhaps our conductors of opinion felt that it was undignified; they certainly felt it to be impolitic. After having attributed so much virtue and mystic power to the Republic, it was hard to confess before the whole world that the rulers of Europe had not yet wished to take us for their spiritual guides. England became a little uneasy at seeing how much our public men seemed disappointed; she excused herself, not formally, but indirectly. It was our fault if we had not gone in with her ; she would have much preferred to settle the Eastern Question with the Republic, as she had once done with Napoleon III. ; she had signed the Convention as a *pis-aller*. She had offered us all sorts of good things, even this island of Cyprus. We had always been deaf to all such entreaties ; we had been too correct, and now what could she have done ? She had nothing left but to choose between a terrible war and an annexation.

In Paris this emotion is almost forgotten. Our Parisians do not keep anything a long time in their minds ; they content themselves with a pleasantry. As Cyprus was devoted to Venus, they say that England has preferred Venus to Mars. I am told that in the provinces and in the army the impression is deeper and that it may last longer ; that the country has really suffered at the manner in which great European affairs have been conducted, as it were, over its head. The true patriots regret that we were at all represented in the Congress, since our presence could bring nothing to France, and might be interpreted as a tacit acceptance of *all* the present arrangements of Europe. Our absence would have been as dangerous as our presence. France had better shut her ear to all those who deceive her, in France or out of France, trust only in herself, be a witness and not an actor, till she can act as suits her name and her dignity. On the whole, it cannot be said that she has been wanting in dignity in the present circumstance. Poor Italy has forgotten herself ; she was the spoiled child of diplomacy, and she thought that this good luck would always continue. Has there been a single war since 1856 which did not give her a province ? She gained by victory, she gained by de-

feat; she gained by the defeat of others and by the victory of others. Was it possible that this huge Eastern Question, which was a horn of plenty for so many, should not drop in her lap the Trentino, or Trieste, or Tunis? Alas! Prince Bismarck is not as tender to Italy as Napoleon III.; *he* will never give away Trieste to a non-German Power. Nobody was interested in the fortune of Italy, and Italy came away from Berlin empty-handed. The Italians were thoroughly surprised, and they thought that perhaps if they complained very loud somebody would take pity on them. They began the "Italia irredenta" movement, but "Italia irredenta" did not find the feeblest echo in Europe. The Italian Government was informed that Europe did not wish to have the peace disturbed, and the tone of these declarations was so serious that the agitation subsided at once. We may, therefore, hope to have a few years of peace before us. Austria has met with some difficulties in Bosnia, but these difficulties will only contribute to give her a better hold of this province. The Eastern Question can only be rationally solved by the harmonious action of the most powerful nations of Europe.

THE OCCUPATION OF BOSNIA.

BERLIN, August 22, 1878.

A DAY or two before Baron Philippovitch crossed the Save into Bosnia I spent the evening with a party of officers, three Hungarians, one German, and one Bohemian, at a coffee-house in Brod. The conversation ranged over an easy variety of topics. Military matters were taken up, and vain efforts were made to translate the term Feldzeugmeister into any other civilized speech—a task which even the *Almanach de Gotha* gives up in despair. Vienna was once more compared with Berlin, the people along the beautiful blue Danube with those of the wild tempestuous Spree; and from such neutral subjects the discussion passed by an abrupt but patriotic transition to a famous debate in the English House of Lords. The reader will not have forgotten, but my military friends vividly remembered, the eventful speech in which Lord Derby, after his retirement from the Foreign Office, solemnly warned the English people against any policy that rested on the Austro-Hungarian alliance. The Imperial army, said he, is not to be trusted. What followed is but too well known. The representations of Count Beust, the official disclaimer of Lord Salisbury, and the further declaration of the *Daily Telegraph* that the Austro-Hungarian commonwealth was one of peculiar solidity, its army the best in Europe—all these incidents, all these soothing potions had not healed the wound left by Lord Derby's words. The Hungarians were specially vehement in repudiating the unflattering insinuations against their military loyalty, and pounded the table with their glasses as if it were the bald head of their candid critic. There was boisterous enthusiasm which not even a dispassionate recital could resist, and—what was the issue of it all? Before breaking up that evening all three of the Hungarians privately assured me that I was not to take their demonstration seriously, that they loathed the whole Bosnian business, that Andrássy was a treacherous courtier and Tisza but little better; the Bohemian had no heart for any enterprise which did not aim at the restoration of the Czech kingdom, and the German thought the army of General Philippovitch ought to occupy Pesth instead of Serayevo. This singular incident, of course, aroused my curiosity, but during the march in Bosnia I had repeated opportunities to learn that it was thoroughly characteristic. Not even the presence of the foe could overcome the perennial anarchy which raged beneath the surface of military discipline. The Hungarian officers went into action bravely because their professional honor was in question, and in the evening sat around their camp-fires sullen, discontented, almost mutinous; while on the Dalmatian side a Magyar regiment openly revolted, whatever the semi-official press may say to the contrary, and there are grave suspicions that the repulse of Count Szapáry was due to the disaffection of a part of his army.

Here is certainly an interesting state of things, but it faithfully mirrors the dissensions of the politicians themselves. The search of an observer after the real authors or sponsors of this Bosnian expedition is as laborious as that of Diogenes for an honest man in Athens, and for a long time only negative results are obtained. One runs over the different races, classes, or interests which make up the Austro-Hungarian monarchy. Is it, for instance, a German policy which Count Andrássy accepted at Berlin and is now carrying out in the Balkan Peninsula? Everybody knows that the Austrian Germans do not desire the acquisition of new territory in the south, but the recovery of lost territory, prestige, and influence at the north—in other words, at the expense of the new German Empire. Is it a Bohemian policy? Even less, for the Czechs not only disavow any interest in the common Empire, but have also a peculiar dislike and jealousy of their kinsmen, the southern Slavs. That it is not a Magyar enterprise which the Magyars, Andrássy, and Tisza are conducting, scarcely needs to be said. We come finally to the Slavonic provinces—Croatia, Slavonia, and Dalmatia—and here, if anywhere, the real supporters of the occupation ought to be found. And yet even here there is only a half-hearted, qualified, grumbling assent. The occupation ought to have taken place earlier; the Magyars, its enemies, play too active a part in it; the result will be another subject Slav province, instead of a reunion of all the race, and the restoration of the autonomy; and behind all these is the religious difference between the Serb and Croat, or Greek Catholic and Roman Catholic, which paralyzes any policy that they undertake in common. It would seem in fact, if my observations do not deceive, that in its actual form the occupation is not heartily supported by a single one of the nationalities which compose the Austro-Hungarian monarchy. But the process of elimination must be carried even one step farther. It is necessary to repress promptly and firmly any lingering belief in the reality or sincerity of the so-called "European Mandate," and to purge the mind once for all of the theory that that part of the proceedings of the Berlin Congress was anything else than a monstrous comedy, in which the augurs hardly pretended to restrain their laughter. Having thus cleared the ground, one may try to get at the real secret of the "occupation."

In the first place, the enterprise is peculiarly a dynastic one. It is a singular circumstance that, notwithstanding the ability and prominence of the several statesmen engaged in the new "settlement" of the Eastern Question, there has hardly been a great diplomatic movement since the Holy Alliance in which the preferences and prejudices of constitutional and irresponsible monarchs have had so great and so direct an influence. The active and passionate support which the Queen has given to Lord Beaconsfield is notoriously one of the scandals in the Whig *salons* of London. The Emperor William has encouraged his nephew the Czar in a style which made the jurists as well as the statesmen uneasy. In the same way the head of the Hapsburg house had his favorite idea, which he held as vigorously two years as one month ago, and has only been persuaded with the greatest difficulty to wait until the present time for its fulfilment or realization. The plan of a Bosnian occupation or annexation was his; the delay alone and the "Mandate" are Andrássy's work. Now, Count Andrássy is a clever courtier, with now and then some ingenious impulses; but he is not a great statesman, who looks far ahead and controls the influences by which he is surrounded. His hap-hazard adventures are his happiest, although they may half the time end disastrously; but foresight, caution, prudence, reflection in him, as in all such men, rapidly degenerate into pedantry. Thus the Bosnian scheme, when broached two years ago by the court and military party at the Hofburg, ought to have revolted both his instincts as a statesman and as a Hungarian; but although he was too weak or too vain to decline the part assigned to him, he saved his feelings by giving to the scheme a coloring of his own, and this was the "European Mandate." The Congress and the Mandate were the clumsy contrivances of a gallant hussar trying the delicate tools of diplomacy. They were to put the enterprise under the sanction of the public law of Europe, to debar Russia from tardy opposition, to disarm the Porte, to lull the scruples of the Magyars, and—gravest delusion of all—to ensure a hospitable reception for the troops themselves in Bosnia. But everybody at Vienna, I repeat, knows that all this was the most flippant of comedies. The invasion having been a pet project of the Emperor himself, and of the military party which rallies around the Archduke Albert, as early as two years ago, has since been only a question of time, which Count Andrássy settled by getting Lord Beaconsfield in his solemn manner to whitewash it with a European mandate. Lord Beaconsfield and Prince Bismarck must have enjoyed the joke greatly. Prince Gortchakoff was of course delighted, for it was he, or Ignatieff, who called Bosnia the "mouse-trap." Count Andrássy not only led Austro-Hungary into the trap, but even insisted on baiting it with the food which he knew would be most acceptable to his countrymen.

The military party were in favor of the measure because it would give a chance to try the new mobilization scheme, because it would add to the territory which they practically administer, and last, but not least, because the Slav interest is predominant in the army. Look at the chief officers—Mollinari, Radich, the two Philippovitchs, Jovanovitch—all Slavs

and South Slavs, men who have the Emperor's ear and control the councils of the Hofburg. The personal fancy of his Majesty, who wished some active enterprise not hostile to the Triple Alliance, was thus encouraged by these advisers. They urged that dualism was a frail system which could not long survive, that the Hungarians would soon become fractious and uncontrollable, that the Germans were too few and too indolent to afford security, and that in a near future the Hapsburg dynasty, if it would sustain itself, must take refuge with the Slavs. There is no little truth in this reasoning, and it was confirmed by such ingenuous friends as Bismarck and Gortchakoff. The former has over and over again declared that the maintenance of the Austro-Hungarian state was an object very important to German policy, and even to Europe, if Europe understood its own interests. It follows, therefore, if the advice of the German Chancellor be sincere, that the occupation of Bosnia will contribute to the stability of Austria and to the welfare of Europe.

Now, I am not one of those persons who are always seeking some hidden and treacherous purpose in Prince Bismarck's words or acts. Quite the contrary. I believe the Chancellor is rather more sincere in his diplomacy than Prince Gortchakoff, or Lord Beaconsfield, or Count Andrássy, and that his present policy toward his neighbors is singularly free from *arrières pensées*. One may undoubtedly say as an immediate proposition that the disorders in Bosnia and Herzegovina are a source of danger to the Austro-Hungarian monarchy which the occupation or annexation of those provinces will for the time avert, or, in that particular form, end. But this enterprise will not be finished with the capture of Serayevo and the execution of half a dozen insurrectionary Begs. The military problem is really the simplest because the rudest. The real difficulties will come when the soldier is superseded by the gendarme, the court-martial by the civil tribunal, when the tax-gatherer begins to distrain the property of the Begs, and when the attempt is made to give the province some degree or form of self-administration. But by this time the affair will have assumed a more serious form in the eyes of the people at home. Already the Magyars, who feel themselves tricked by the credit of six millions, are beginning to cry out against the singular policy which always gives Hungarian regiments the post of danger ; and it is as certain as any political calculation that before the two new provinces assume their place in the system a terrible domestic convulsion must take place. No one knows this better than those accomplished Slav generals who are preparing a refuge for themselves and their prince. No one ought to know it better than the members of that dynasty, who have never been indifferent to their own interests. The next great European catastrophe will almost certainly see the Hapsburgs swung violently around towards the southern Slavs, with or without the loss of their German subjects, and a redistribution of power in this sense throughout the Balkan Peninsula.

And what will become of the Magyars ? The Magyars are a stubborn, gallant, and chivalrous people. They are extremely forward and self-asserting, and are commonly supposed to be very tenacious of life. And yet the Magyars are evidently dying out I believe this can be statistically demonstrated, but moral proof, at least, is offered in abundance to any one who, like myself, has lived among Hungarian soldiers, or made even the most hasty observations in Hungary and the countries which it governs. The personality of a people is intimately wrapped up with its language, and the Magyar tongue is sealed to foreigners. The Hungarians speak German and Slav, but neither the Viennese nor the Croats learn Hungarian. Nay, in Styria, where originally German was spoken, Magyar has made no converts whatever, while Slavonic is gradually becoming the prevailing dialect, especially of the peasants. As administrators the Hungarians are ludicrously incompetent ; and their rule in Croatia and Slavonia is not only the fruit of an infamous political bargain, but it is also in method and character a scandal to Europe. If we could all visit those regions and observe for ourselves how Hungary governs those two Slavonic provinces, we should all feel very foolish at the thought of the enthusiasm which we showed for the cause of "oppressed Hungary," and of the applause which we showered upon the glittering generalities of Kossuth. I have spoken above of the loss of Magyar influence in the army, and the supremacy of Slavs. It seems to me, in short, that the peculiar, almost brutal energy, which the Magyars show from time to time, is a sign not of health and vigor, but of declining, consciously declining, powers; that the more ambitious of them, like Andrássy, are hastening to secure their places at court against the next convulsion; and that the Magyars, as a people and a force, will ultimately cease to vex the politics of Europe.

Correspondence.

THE KIMPTON CASE.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : The absolute necessity of mutual support among the States of the Union in bringing offenders to justice makes the soundness of the position taken by the authorities of Massachusetts in Kimpton's case a matter of deep national interest.

The Attorney-General of the State advised Mr. Rice that, as Governor of the Commonwealth, he was bound to exercise a discretion in regard to the rendition of fugitives from justice from other States; that in the discharge of this duty he was bound not only to make enquiry as to the technical accuracy of the proceedings, the sufficiency of the offence charged, and whether the alleged offender was not already held to answer for some crime before the courts of Massachusetts, but also that he was furthermore to satisfy himself that the requisition was not issued for any purpose other and different from that which appeared upon its face. In the present case he advised his Excellency that the requisition was in due form of law; that Kimpton was held to answer for no crime in Massachusetts; but, as he was satisfied the indictment was procured for some other purpose than that of trying him for any supposed crime against the State of South Carolina, he deemed it inexpedient to comply with the request of Governor Hampton. Upon this advice Mr. Rice acted.

For support of his opinion Mr. Train relied upon the statute and custom of Massachusetts, and upon the case of Tailor *v.* Taintor, 16 Wallace, 366, which he cited as the controlling authority.

So far as the statute of Massachusetts is concerned (even admitting Mr. Train's construction thereof to be correct) but few words are necessary. Requisitions are not made under State laws, but under the Constitution of the United States and the Act of Congress passed in conformity therewith. Since the war of the Rebellion there seems no need to argue that the Constitution of the United States and the laws made in pursuance thereof are the supreme law of the land, anything in the constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding (M'Culloch *v.* Maryland, 4 Wheaton, 316). Upon this head there appears to be nothing more to say. What relation Tailor *v.* Taintor bears to the question will be shown presently.

The issue is thus narrowed to the true meaning of Article IV., Section 2, of the Constitution of the United States and Section 5,278 of the Revised Statutes of the United States; and, so far as judicial construction, apart from an authoritative decision, can settle anything, this too is settled.

"With respect to fugitives from justice," says Chancellor Kent, "from one State to another, charged with treason, felony, or other crime, the Constitution of the United States (Art. IV., Sec. 2) provides that they shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which they fled, be delivered up to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime. The act of Congress of 12 Feb., 1793, c. vii., sec. 1 [now Sec. 5,278 R. S. U. S.], has made provision for the case, and declared that the demand shall be accompanied with a copy of the indictment, etc., . . . and in that case it is declared to be the duty of the executive magistrate of the State to which the person has fled to cause the person to be arrested and . . . surrendered to the executive authority making the demand. . . . I should apprehend that on the demand being made and the documents exhibited, no discretion remained to the executive of the State to which the fugitive had fled, and that it was his duty to cause the fugitive to be arrested and surrendered. But if the executive on whom the requisition is made should think proper to exercise his discretion, and refuse to cause the fugitive to be arrested and surrendered (as has been done in one or more instances), I do not know of any power under the authority of the United States by which he could be coerced to perform the duty" (2 Kent's Com., p. 32, note *h*).

This opinion of the great New York jurist has been fully sustained by the courts. The question came squarely before the Supreme Court of the United States in 1860, in Kentucky *v.* Dennison (24 Howard, 66), in which, after great deliberation, Chief-Justice Taney delivered the unanimous opinion of the judges, declaring emphatically that the statesmen who framed the Constitution were fully sensible that nothing would be more likely to disturb the peace of the Union and produce discord than permitting an offender in one State, by passing over the line which divides it from another, to defy its process, and, under the protection of the latter, to stand ready to repeat the offence. He held that the duty of rendition of fugitives was, when the demand was formally correct, "merely ministerial, such as every marshal or sheriff must perform when process, either criminal or civil, is placed in his hands to be served on the person named

in it." He held, however, that the court had no power to coerce the governor of a State and compel him to do his duty. The decision thus becomes in a degree extra-judicial.

Nor have the State courts been less explicit in laying down the law. Matter of Clark, 9 Wendell (N. Y.), 221. But the most thoroughly considered and the strongest of these cases is probably matter of Voorhees, 32 New Jersey, 141, decided in 1867. There the New Jersey Court of Errors say: "An idea has undoubtedly prevailed to a considerable extent that such a duty in some respects was one resting in discretion. But this is altogether an error. If the demand be made in due form, and the requisite documents exhibited showing that the fugitive is charged with crime, the duty to surrender becomes merely a ministerial one."

We have now come to Tailor *v.* Taintor, which is supposed to overthrow this mass of authority and to establish a new rule of law. The facts of that case were these: One McGuire, arrested in Connecticut and released on bail, went to New York; while there he was again arrested on a requisition from the governor of Maine. He was sent to Maine, tried for burglary, convicted and imprisoned. In consequence of his imprisonment he failed to appear in Connecticut. The recognizance was forfeited by his non-appearance, and suit was begun against his sureties. The defence was that performance was made impossible by act of law. The Supreme Court, however, by a bare majority of the judges present, held the sureties liable because they were to blame for letting McGuire go to New York. "If McGuire" (said Swayne, J., delivering the opinion of the court) "had remained in Connecticut he would probably not have been delivered over to the authorities of Maine, and would not, therefore, have been disabled to fulfil the condition of his obligation. If the demand had been made upon the governor of Connecticut, he might properly have declined to comply until the criminal justice of his own State had been satisfied." That is the whole case.

There is nowhere one word of dissent from Kentucky *v.* Dennison; on the contrary, it is twice cited by Mr. Justice Swayne as a leading and unquestioned authority. The cases do not conflict in any degree, nor are they upon the same point. Moreover, the law laid down in Tailor *v.* Taintor is not new. A similar decision was made in New Jersey in Matter of Troutman, 4 Zabriskie, 634, in 1854, six years before Kentucky *v.* Dennison, and thirteen years before the same court decided Voorhees' case. In Voorhees' case Troutman's case is not even mentioned. No one suggested any conflict between them, because no conflict existed. Neither Chief-Justice Taney nor the judges of the Court of Errors of New Jersey dreamed that their decisions upon the discretion of the executive in rendition of fugitives trenched upon the common-sense rule of justice, that where a man is indicted in two jurisdictions for different crimes that jurisdiction tries him first which first catches him. The citation of such an authority for such a purpose is surprising, coming as it does from a lawyer of Mr. Train's high reputation, but no better illustration could be found of the weakness of his case. Thus laws having only a moral sanction fall into contempt, for it is safe to say that no such opinion would ever have been given or such action taken had the Supreme Court been at hand to enforce what it held to be a governor's duty in the position in which Mr. Rice stood.

Doubtless Kimpton was set free for political reasons, but the decision of this case practically makes the surrender of fugitives from justice dependent on the pleasure of each governor in the Union, and thus any State may at any moment, to gratify feelings of spite or anger, make itself an asylum for criminals. The remedy lies, however, with Congress. "The judicial power of the United States extends to all cases in law and equity arising under the Constitution, and the courts and judges of the United States within the State to which the fugitive has fled are the fittest tribunals to be clothed with the exercise of this power, so that the claimant might, on due application, with the requisite proof, cause the fugitive to be arrested and removed, or surrendered by the marshal of the district" (2 Kent's Com., 32, note *h*). That such a plan is open to grave objections is obvious, but the danger of entrusting this great power to the United States seems less serious than to leave the safety of society at the mercy of timid or feeble men whose political fears master their sense of duty.

BROOKS ADAMS.

BOSTON, September 7, 1878.

Notes.

ROBERTS BROTHERS' fall list includes several novels: 'Under the Lilacs,' by Louisa M. Alcott; 'Nelly's Silver Mine,' a story of Colorado life, by "H. H."; and 'A Story or Two from an Old Dutch Town,' by Robert Lowell, author of 'The New Priest in Conception Bay.' In poetry they announce 'Songs of Italy,' by Joaquin Miller, and 'A Masque of Poets,' one of the "No Name" series. In art: Ruskin's 'Notes on the Turner Drawings,' illustrated with thirty-five photogravures; a new impression of Retzsch's 'Outlines to Shakespeare's Dramatic Works'; and 'Flowers: their Origin, Shapes, Perfumes, and Colors,' by J. E. Taylor, profusely illustrated. In biography: 'Modern Frenchmen,' by Philip Gilbert Hamerton; 'Memoirs of the Life of Anna Jameson,' by her niece, Girardine Macpherson; and, most important of all, Prof. J. R. Seeley's 'Life and Times of Stein.'——G. P. Putnam's Sons will issue shortly 'The Bible of To-day,' by the Rev. John W. Chadwick; 'What is Our Bible?' by the Rev. J. T. Sunderland; and 'Catholicity in its Relations to Protestantism and Romanism,' by the Rev. F. C. Ewer.——Henry Holt & Co. promise the first volume of Taine's 'French Revolution'; 'Researches in the Early History of Mankind,' by E. B. Tylor; Matthew Arnold's selections from Dr. Johnson's 'Chief Lives of the Poets'; Lacombe's 'Petite Histoire du Peuple Français'; 'Grammarland,' a juvenile book; three volumes of their new Handbook series; Hardy's 'Return of the Native'; 'The First Violin,' by a "new novelist of extraordinary power"; and 'A Century of American Literature,' by Prof. Beers, of Yale, forming the hundredth volume of the "Leisure Hour Series."——'New Greece,' by Lewis Sergeant, is announced by Cassell, Petter & Galpin.——The Essex Institute, Salem, Mass., will celebrate on the 18th inst. the two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the landing of Governor Endicott. The oration will be by a descendant, Mr. Wm. C. Endicott.——Mr. William Still, 244 South Twelfth Street, Philadelphia, announces a reduction to three dollars of the price of his 'Underground Railroad,' which is now in its tenth thousand.——Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, has issued a new and good-sized map of Cyprus, by Dr. Kiepert, compiled from a great variety of sources, some of them recondite. The designations of natural features and the descriptive text are in English, while the ancient names of places are subjoined to the modern (New York: L. W. Schmidt). The authority of this map must be preferred to that of any other.——Mr. Christern sends us the prospectus of an enormous undertaking, a 'Universal History' in monographs, by a number of specialists under the direction of Prof. Dr. Wilhelm Oncken. It will fill about forty quarto volumes, and the publication will occupy six or seven years. The engravings in which it will abound will be of the useful kind aimed at by M. Duruy in his 'History of the Romans,' and, judging from the specimens given in the prospectus, will be of the highest order of art. We have only space to enumerate the subjects of Part III.: German Reformation (Otto Waltz); Philip II., Elizabeth, and Henri IV. (Martin Philippson); Period of the Thirty Years' War (B. Kugler); English Revolution (Alfred Stern); Time of the Peace of Westphalia (Bernhard Erdmannsdörffer); Time of Louis XIV. (Martin Philippson); Peter the Great (Alexander Brückner); Frederic the Great (W. Oncken). The American portion is as yet unassigned.——Students of Chinese should be interested in the review of Chalmers's 'Concise Dictionary of Chinese,' in the last number of the *China Review* (vi., 6, 386). Mr. E. H. Parker pronounces it "unmistakably the most scientific of all dictionaries, vocabularies, and hand-books yet produced by foreigners."——It is to be hoped we may soon have an opportunity of hearing Boito's opera of "Mefistofele." Signor Filippi, who heard it for a second time at Brescia, and who is an ardent admirer of Wagner, pronounces it superior as an interpretation of 'Faust' to the parallel works of Spohr, Schumann, Berlioz, or Gounod. The four hours that the performance lasted went "like a flash." The same critic bestows high praise on the *Margaret*, Signorina Borghi-Mamo——"as an actress a Rachel, a Ristori, a Marini," etc.——In the last number of the *Journal des Economistes* Professors F. A. Walker, Perry, and Dunbar are spoken of as "Walcker de Yale, Perry du Collége William, et Denham de Haward."

—Trübner & Co. send us the latest publications of the English Dialect Society, namely, the three parts of the Bibliographical List of printed works and MS. illustrative of the various dialects of English—the first two edited by Rev. Walter W. Skeat, the third by J. H. Nodal; A Glossary of Words and Phrases pertaining to the Dialect of Cumberland, by William Dickinson; and Thomas Tusser's 'Fiue Hundred Pointes of Good Husbandrie,' edited by W. Payne and Sidney G. Herrtage. The Bibliographical List is an indispensable guide to workers in the Society's field, whether for members or non-members. The arrangement is first by counties, and then under each the appropriate works are entered chronologically. The list does not profess to be exhaustive, though incomparably fuller than anything of the kind ever before attempted; nor critical,

though an abundance of notes furnish considerable aid to discrimination. The Scottish bibliography in Part III. is without a known precedent; a very short one of Ireland is added by William H. Patterson, of Belfast; Mr. Nodal follows this with a list of Cant and Slang works, beginning with John Awdeley's 'Fraternitye of Vacabondes' (1565). A list of books on Americanisms, beginning with John Witherspoon's Essays (1761), a list of books on the English Gypsy Dialect, the earliest bearing date of 1860, and an admirable index to the three parts, by William E. A. Axon, complete this brochure. This index contains some 3,000 references, and the compiler is liberal enough to make entries not only, *e. g.*, of "Bobbin, Tim," under *B*, but of "Tim Bobbin" under *T*, and, in short, leaves no excuse except downright ignorance or forgetfulness of title, subject, and author for not finding what one is in search of. In this Bibliography Cornwall and the northern counties of Cumberland, Northumberland, Lancashire, and Yorkshire easily surpass the rest in the number of works devoted to or incidentally illustrative of their respective dialects.

—The Cumbrian Glossary edited by Mr. Dickinson is a revised edition, with omissions and additions, of a glossary published in White Haven in 1859 that had fallen out of print. When such words as *abed*, *age* (to grow old), *ajar*, *angry* (inflamed), *topsy-turvy*, *tramp* (a vagabond), etc., are retained, it seems as if the omissions had been too sparing. *Argify*, *butter-finger't*, *dander*, and *yarbs* are familiar "Americanisms"; so is *ramshackle*, but not in the Cumbrian sense of "rude and vulgar." *Stangin'* expresses an American practice (riding on a rail) more compactly than we do. *Cowper hand*, 'the upper hand, the advantage of—as of a practised chapman,' has not with us enjoyed the survival of the fittest; nor, we believe, has *lift* in the sense of the example, 'What time do ye lift' (or start with the corpse ?), used at funerals. Mr. Dickinson gives several interesting lists in his introduction, including one called for by the remarkable "number of words and terms applied to beating and striking." These are accounted for by the old border-warfare; but almost any English wife-beater could match them with his domestic performances. The following remark is suggestive of race differences:

"A considerable portion of the laboring population [of Cumberland], occupied in mining, draining, and other earth-works, consists of Irishmen, who, with their families, make the western side of the county a permanent residence, or at least till the labor market tempts a removal to better-paid localities. And notwithstanding this influx, the Irishisms engrafted on the native dialect were singularly few, if indeed any. Their children reared here acquire the dialect as perfect as the natives, and soon use not a trace of their mother-tongue; and even the parents, in many instances, abandon their own idiom and learn to use the speech of their adopted country. It is somewhat different with the Scotch and the laborers from the borders, who nearly all retain the expressions and the peculiar inflexions of their national speech to their dying day. And some of their descendants are known to retain sufficient to distinguish their nationality over more than one generation."

—The appearance of each new volume of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' (ninth edition) strengthens, if it does not heighten, our estimation of the great merits of the work, as compared with similar publications in any language. Among the most important articles of the eighth volume just issued (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) are those referring to England ("Geography and Statistics," by Frederick Martin; "History," by E. A. Freeman and S. R. Gardiner; "Church of England," by Canon Perry; "English Bible," by Rev. J. H. Blunt; "English Language," by James A. H. Murray; "English Literature," by T. Arnold), collectively containing as much matter as would fill two 8vo volumes; "Electricity," by Professor Chrystal, a book in itself; "Embryology," "Energy," "Engraving," "Equation," "Ethics," "Etruria," "Europe," "Evaporation," "Evolution" (by Huxley and Sully), "Exchange," "Explosives," and "Eye." Of geographical articles, "Etna," by Rodwell, and "Euphrates," by Sir H. C. Rawlinson, also deserve to be mentioned. Among the more interesting biographies are those of Elizabeth of England, Epicurus, Erasmus, Eugene, Euripides, Eusebius of Cæsarea, and Everett (by Rev. Edward E. Hale). Theology and Biblical criticism are very well represented in learned articles devoted to Ephesians, episcopacy, eschatology, Esdras, Esther, the eucharist, Eve, Ezekiel, Ezra, and the books of Ezra and Nehemiah, most of them characterized by a spirit of moderate liberalism, equally tolerant toward what in England it is usual to stigmatize as German radicalism, and toward what in Germany would be called *crasser dogmatischer Unsinn*. The bibliography attached to the more exhaustive notices is generally very full, and correctly done; the maps are pretty and fresh. The map of Europe has Turkey, Rumania, Servia, and Montenegro as constituted by the treaty of Berlin, but in its spelling of East-European names it evinces the general carelessness of English and American map-makers. A glance shows us Czernowicz, Bielostock, Dneiper, Waluiki, Suchona, Jeletz, and similar mistakes. Nor are these the only inaccuracies of this kind which strike us in attentively turning over the pages. Under "Elijah" the name of the prophet in Hebrew is given as Elijahu instead of Eliyahu, which is attributable to the copying of Hebrew names from German books. For the same reason the father of Elias Levita (p. 133) is called Ascher Aschkenasi, though the writer of the respective notice must have known that *Ash*er and Ash*kenaz* are perfectly good English-Biblical names. For the same reason also the poet Emanuel (p. 157) is called "ben-Salomon," not ben-Solomon, as in English, or ben-Shelomoh, as in Hebrew. To oversight in revising the proofs are to be ascribed the words in Hebrew letters *yōs* and *khipper* (p. 806), instead of *yōm* and *kippēr*; "Ivanova" (p. 145), instead of Ivanovna; and "Skollis" (p. 139), instead of Scollis—compare "Lycæon," "Cyllene," etc., in the same notice. On the whole, however, both the orthography and the revision of the Encyclopædia are decidedly improving. The history of the work itself is given under "Encyclopædia." The same article says of the revised 'American Cyclopædia,' "It is, for its extent, one of the very best encyclopædias, particularly on American subjects."

—The 'American Cyclopædia' has just received an exceedingly valuable addition in a 'A General and Analytical Index' to it by the Rev. T. J. Conant, D.D., assisted by his daughter, Miss Blandina Conant. It forms a very handsome volume of upwards of eight hundred pages, conforming in size and style to the work which it completes. The 'Index' contains, in alphabetical order, all the titles of the 'Cyclopædia' in small capitals, and an almost equal number, in italics, of names of persons or objects not separately noticed in the 'Cyclopædia,' for information concerning which the reader is referred to one or more articles. Volume, page, column, and part of column are plainly indicated in the references. The pronunciation of foreign proper names is added, a feature which the 'Index' owes to Mr. Francis A. Teall, under whose supervision it passed through the press, and to whom "it is greatly indebted for its accuracy and completeness," as is also—as we happen to know—the whole of the 'Cyclopædia.' The 'Index' also supplements the 'Cyclopædia' by inserting the years of death under the names of persons who have died since the publication of the volumes in which they are noticed, and by similar brief additions. Thus we learn that Thiers, Lanfrey, Canaris, Tholuck, and Goldsborough died in 1877, and Victor Emanuel, Pius IX., Raspail, and Cruikshank in 1878. An omission we notice under "Veit," who died in 1877. Graver omissions are discoverable in the most important portion of the 'Index'—that which supplies the reader of the 'Cyclopædia' with information on subjects unnoticed under separate heads. There is, to cite a few instances, no title, "Valmy, Battle of," though the 'Cyclopædia' speaks of that important engagement in its notices of Dumouriez, Kellerman (Duke of Valmy), and the Duke of Brunswick; there is no "Five Forks," though the battle of that name, which led to the evacuation of Richmond, is spoken of in the articles "Grant," "Sheridan," and "United States," and described under "Petersburg, Siege of"; and there is no "Munda," though mentioned both under "Cæsar" and "Pompey" (II. and III.) In spite of such errors of omission, however, the 'Index,' comprehensive and elaborate as it is, immeasurably enhances the value of the 'American Cyclopædia' as a book of reference.

—The Contributors' Club of the last *Atlantic* has a few words about Daudet's picture of Félicia Ruys. The inconsistency of treatment, the cheapening of the whole character, has been the subject of pointed criticism from no less a person than Emile Zola himself. The monthly Paris letter of the St. Petersburg *Messenger of Europe* (*Viestnik Evropi*) is written by Zola, and a recent one was entirely devoted to an analysis of the 'Nabob' and of Daudet's characteristics as a writer. It was in this letter that Daudet's famous preface, disavowing the portraits, first appeared in advance of its issue in Paris. The whole letter is interesting, not merely for the judgment upon the 'Nabob,' but far more for the light it throws upon Zola's own methods and conceptions. Indeed, he frankly says that the criticisms which he proffers "proceed from his own individual temperament as a writer." He places Daudet unreservedly in the foremost rank, but his appreciation of the failure of the portrayal of Félicia is none the less discriminating. The paragraph is given verbatim from the Russian:

"One figure in the romance has produced upon me the most painful impression—Félicia Ruys. The author endows this woman with everything—beauty, intellect, even genius; and suddenly, neither for this nor that, he transforms her into the foulest character in the book. When he first makes us acquainted with her, he crowns her with light, portrays

her as intellectual and proud, rebelling against wrong, striving toward all excellence and virtue ; then he describes her course of conduct, one step after another. At the outset she dreams of marrying Jansoulet—she, the personification of all that is noble ; him, who has nothing whatever except money. Afterwards she gives herself to the Duc de Mora from weariness, from sheer vanity ; at last she falls even lower and gives herself to Jenkins, whom hitherto she has annihilated with her scorn. Nor does such an effect please me as is produced upon her by her despair at the attempt of Jenkins to dishonor her ; it turns her for ever against love, and henceforth life presents itself to her in the most sombre light. This seems to me very melodramatic. The purest young girl may be subjected to violence, but when she has defended herself and saved herself with such brave modesty as Félicia, then this leaves on her no stain whatever, and life spreads itself before her broad and happy. Without doubt the writer of the romance wished to study the effect of a bad education, the inevitable ruin awaiting all young girls brought up in the midst of the artist-Bohemia. But there can be no doubt that a child growing up like Félicia in her father's studio, without special oversight, having very early learned everything, left at last without support with the single passion for art, cannot live like a bourgeoise. But the mistake, it seems to me, lies in wishing to measure such a woman by the measure of other women. She is not only a woman, she is an artist, especially when the author has endowed her with genius. In such a case something altogether different is demanded of her. What matters it whether or not she has lovers if only she produces *chefs-d'œuvre !* I need not look for an example. Women are always judged by the productions about which everybody is in raptures ; their conduct is left one side. I should have liked Daudet to show greater love for Félicia, to bear himself towards her her as an artist, and not to offer her as a sacrifice to the maidens of the Joyeuse family."

—The production of "Jane Shore" at Booth's is an interesting dramatic event, and the audiences it has been drawing are a proof that a theatre devoted to serious drama is not out of place in New York. Mr. Wills, to judge by a comparison of this play with his "Olivia," is better in poetical than in prose plays. Certainly "Jane Shore" is much the better of the two. It is a play full of good opportunities for acting of the highest order, and if Mr. Wills could only have had hardness of heart enough to make it a tragedy, as Rowe, in the once famous play of the same name, did, it would be really excellent. To the second act, in which *Shore's* wife comes home repentant and implores forgiveness and is cast off by her husband, hardly an exception can be taken. The third, in which *Gloucester* tries to shake her resolution with bribes and threats, denounces her as a witch and pronounces her horrible doom, is effective ; while the fourth, where the starving woman with sheet and taper is hunted through the town to her death, is very powerful. But, after this climax, to be brought down to domestic life again, and witness a reconciliation between *Jane* and her husband and the reappearance of her lost child—this we might have been spared. The whole drift of the action is to a tragic termination. The character of the king's mistress, the incurable grief of her husband, the vile schemes and raging revenge of the baffled *Gloucester*, the sentence passed upon her—all point to death as the only climax in which the wild passions that have been called into action can spend themselves and become calm. This is the end, too, to which the exalted self-sacrifice and humiliation of *Jane* herself seem to point. To make it end with the appearance of *Master Henry Shore, jr.*, on the stage, and a loving embrace of the lost child by his fond mamma, makes the first four acts seem like a dream. With this drawback, however, Mr. Wills has produced a more than ordinarily good play—one that is not mere frothy dialogue nor sensational situation, but an historical drama of a sort nowadays rarely attempted at all, still less with any success. Little is actually known about Jane Shore's story, while a great deal is known of the doings of the court of which she at one time formed a part ; and the dramatist can make pretty much what use he pleases of the character (though here, too, tradition ought, it seems to us, to have counted for something and have secured us against a happy melodramatic termination of a career which popular belief brought to its end in a London ditch). The acting is fairly good throughout, and that of Miss Genevieve Ward extremely creditable. Miss Ward has great physical advantages in her favor. She has a fine, commanding figure, a good carriage, and a face in itself handsome, and perhaps rather improved by the trying lights of the theatre. Her voice has a good deal of compass, but is not sympathetic. To say that she did not succeed altogether in the rôle assigned to her is to say very little, for it is one for which the very highest powers would be none too great. Her acting showed careful study, and here and there had marks of feeling which showed a thorough-bred actress. In the scene with her husband, where, suddenly changing from the tone of an imploring wife to that of a distracted mother, she imperiously demands to know what has become of her child, she introduced a real touch of nature. Generally, however, her acting was too studied. But this is a fault to which, in the present condition of the American stage, we are disposed to be very lenient. There are so many actors and actresses who find themselves quite competent to act without study, that an actress who shows the results of study too much is almost a refreshing novelty. We are far more likely in the long run to get a really excellent actress through Miss Ward's method than by the opposite one.

—"Hurricanes" was played for the first time at the Park Theatre on the 3d of this month. It is a lively comedy of the farce order, and bears a strong family likeness in the plot to "Forbidden Fruit" and "Pink Dominoes." The fundamental idea which is at the bottom of all of them is decidedly French, and we can hardly imagine any one interested in the elevation of the drama and its utilization as a moral engine rejoicing over its popularity. In "Hurricanes" we have two married men and two bachelors who have been spending a night in town, as they pretend to their wives and sweethearts, on business, but in reality at a masked ball. They have all invented explanations of their absence, which would have proved amply sufficient for the satisfaction of the ladies' curiosity but for the unfortunate arrival of the mother-in-law of one of the two husbands, who discovers the secret, lays it bare, and estranges all the four couples. The men then agree upon a new story, by means of which they again allay the ladies' suspicions ; but it needs for complete success the co-operation and connivance of a lady who arrives at the wrong time, and, being ignorant of the part she is expected to play, makes everything worse than before. She, however, having a brilliant invention, suggests to the four delinquents that the best way out of their scrape is to tell the truth, and beg forgiveness. This they do, and, of course, are forgiven. Miss Sydney Cowell as the providential friend, Mrs. Gilbert as the mother-in-law, and Mr. James Lewis as *General Compton*, were very good, and the play is full of life and spirit. It must be said that it is vulgar, as all plays of this school seem doomed to be. Mr. Bronson Howard was hardly the man to redeem them from this taint. He has, however, made use of his materials with a good deal of cleverness. The mother-in-law is a character not new to the stage ; her inquisitiveness, her commiseration of her daughter's unhappy lot, her suspicion of the latter's unworthy husband, and the comical contrast between her coolness to the one and her proportionately exaggerated affection for the other—these have been part of the farce-writer's stock-in-trade for many generations. A dramatist who makes use of this character does so at his peril. He must make it amusing or it is nothing, and if there was nothing else in "Hurricanes" there certainly would be a very amusing mother-in-law. The author has shown some originality, too, in his variation of a well-worn plot. Instead of having the action consist of the adventures of the two husbands in search of amusement and pursued by their wives, he makes it take place on the next day, when they have returned to the bosom of their families ; and he has added four new characters—the two unmarried men and the two young ladies to whom they are engaged—besides the mother-in-law.

—The collection of caricatures of Lord Beaconsfield which have appeared in *Punch* during the last thirty years, recently published by that journal, and which we noticed last week, has excited a great deal of attention, as indicating the popular estimate of the man during his long career. The most striking feature in that estimate is the absence of any confidence in his sincerity. He is always ridiculed as a humbug of some sort, or as, to use the *Spectator's* language, "an impudent mountebank." That *Punch* has not changed its opinion of him has been frequently shown since the beginning of the late troubles with Russia ; but its last cartoon is probably the most biting of all. It is entitled "St. George and the Dragon," and the legend is a quotation from the news of the day —that Lord Beaconsfield had gone down to Hughenden Manor for a few days' rest. His lordship is sitting wearily in a chair, having just taken off his spurs, one of his boots, and some pieces of tin armor. In front of him is the Dragon standing upright, with some of the scales thrown off, and out of them peers the well-known face of Gortchakoff, who is raising a pot of beer to his lips, and is smiling on the knight. The pair are, in fact, behind the scenes refreshing themselves after the performance. The hostility of *Punch* would be significant even if it were not shared by nearly all the leading papers in England. The *Times* and *Saturday Review* are the only really weighty journals which do not treat the Cabinet and its triumphs with unmixed contempt. The *Pall Mall Gazette*, which has all along been the fiercest enemy of Russia, can hardly find words to express its disgust with the performances of the Government at Berlin; the *Economist*, one of the fairest and soberest journals in the world, does

not hesitate to apply the term "imposture" to the Anglo-Turkish convention. It seems difficult, with these signs before us, to avoid the conclusion that the Ministry must come to grief before long; the thing to be most feared is that the premier will have quitted the scene before he is thoroughly found out; but this is probably what he himself looks for.

—In the latest number (iv. 2, 3) of the *Anzeiger für deutsches Alterthum* is a valuable résumé of the services rendered to German letters by the well-known Leipsic publisher, Salomon Hirzel. Especially interesting is the account of Hirzel's devotion to the study of Goethe, the growth of his collection of Goetheana, and the generosity with which he permitted its free use, even to other publishers. Hirzel was not merely a successful publisher; he was also a thorough literary connoisseur, and associated freely with such scholars as Dahlmann, Grimm, Moritz Haupt, Mommsen, etc. The chief literary work of his life was the 'Verzeichniss einer Goethe-Bibliothek,' of which the third edition appeared in 1874. His private copy, found among his papers, is full of corrections and additions, evincing the zealous patience with which he continued his labors up to the moment of death. 'Der junge Goethe,' noticed by us in No. 563, was also his work, Professor Bernays merely furnishing the introduction. Probably no other scholar did more to encourage and elevate the study of Goethe than Hirzel. In fact, the present Goethe revival in Germany owes its impetus chiefly to him. It is gratifying to learn that his unique collection will not be scattered, but has been incorporated, by the testator's bequest, in the university library of Leipsic.

THORNTON'S HORACE.*

IT is a piece of the good fortune of the English nation that this book has something characteristic in its appearance and authorship. It is dedicated to the Marquis of Salisbury. Its composition was the amusement in leisure moments of a man of affairs, known also as an able writer on topics of political economy. One sometimes sighs that our "statesmen" are not capable of such recreation, not merely because the occupation would keep them out of mischief, but because men who take their recreation in such a form are not likely to do mischief when seriously employed. The late Lord Derby's translation of the 'Iliad,' Mr. Gladstone's dissertations on Homer, may not be the final achievements of poetry or of scholarship, but they are something which poets and scholars may approve, and which a nation may gratefully applaud. They mark an apparently hopeless distinction between the public men of this country and of England—a distinction which, with the qualities it naturally accompanies, guaranties to the people of England a long immunity from "Silver Bills" and "Granger legislation"; they mark, in short, the prevalence of culture in high places. From Horace to "Poker" the step is immense and discouraging.

Yet we have among us, as in England, in what are termed "unofficial circles," many gentlemen who, in the intervals of graver occupations, maintain the tastes of their youth; many a lover of Horace, too, whose affection for the poet survives his familiarity with the language in which he writes; who remembers how in youth he tried his hand at versifying the ode to Pyrrha, or Glycera, or Chloe, and who is still able to air some favorite passages or to catch with tolerable ease the point of some apt quotation. To such a public of amateurs, perhaps, more than to the general reader or to professed scholars, does Mr. Thornton's volume appeal. It bases its claims to tolerance on a greater fidelity to the original than previous translators have attempted. It presents the Latin and the English on opposite pages, and furnishes for each ode an introduction, neatly and often gracefully expressed. It offers, therefore, to the class of readers whom we have described, at once the necessary help and the satisfaction of watching the solution of a problem which they themselves have endeavored to solve. One who reads the work in this spirit will receive from it genuine enjoyment. He will feel, undoubtedly, that Mr. Thornton has complicated the problem by imposing on himself the condition of literal fidelity; yet he will admit that the fetters are carried with dexterity and, at times, even with grace. He will say of many passages in most of the odes, "This is cleverly done"; he will notice that not merely the words, but the pauses, in many stanzas, have been reproduced with wonderful accuracy; and he will dwell with delight on felicitous terms, such as:

> "Let him of obduracy plain;
> You not less obdurate remain";

which represents

> "Et te sæpe vocanti
> Duram difficilis mane" (Bk. iii. 7);

or upon the epigrammatic version of "Et peccare nefas, aut pretium est mori" by the line "And sin is shame, and wage of sin is death." More rarely, he will be pleased with the rendering of entire poems, such as the 26th of the 3d book, which we forbear to quote because its merits can be appreciated only by comparison with the Latin, but which follows with surprising closeness the language, the pauses, the lines, and even the order of words in the original.

Possibly, too, an amateur in the classics may enjoy the experiments in Sapphic metre, so-called, which abound in this volume. The author, who has wisely refrained from essaying an imitation of the other Horatian metres, thinks that in this he has succeeded "in making verses of a structure not differing more from the verses of Horace than his do from that of his own Greek models." The stanza of which this opinion is quoted has the same general rhythm as that of Canning's "Knife-Grinder." It is really a burlesque of the Sapphic rhythm, which would, we dare say, have amazed the ear of either Sappho or Horace, but which answers very well in humorous verse. In serious poetry it is doubly out of place; it misrepresents the movement of the original, and it can only perplex or irritate a delicate English ear. Mr. Thornton has struggled with its difficulties vigorously and ingeniously, but naturally without success. How often has this imitation of the classic metres proved a snare and a delusion? How many years and how much genius have been spent in naturalizing the hexameter, and yet how clearly have Kingsley and Clough and Mr. Longfellow, after all their labors, left it still an alien to the English ear and tongue? How useful the lesson that may be learned from the failure of the "Merope" and the "Empedocles"; from the success of great poets like Shelley and Mr. Browning, who, with all the resources of the craft at their command, have seen fit to render the Greek choruses into familiar rhythmical forms. But the dilettante treads fearlessly where Mr. Swinburne would hesitate and Mr. Matthew Arnold failed.

Mr. Thornton is at his best in the graver series of political odes in the third book, and in others of a similar character. He has rendered these in a metre and with a dignity which recall Dryden's Elegy on Cromwell. Elsewhere what one misses most, perhaps, in his version is the poetry of Horace. If he has forgotten anything, it is that the Horatian ode is a "thing of beauty," that it has a certain charm of form and expression, and that its equivalent in any language must be not merely accurate but fascinating to the ear and the poetic sense. True, it is much to ask for this. The lyric mood comes rarely, and rarer still must be the moments when the soul of the ancient bard visits his translator and consents to a metempsychosis. Sometimes the miracle does take place, and the result is a poem like Father Prout's version of the Leuconoë. But without demanding miracles, we may fairly look for more inspiration and continuous good taste than are here displayed. We may look for something better than the rugged and unmusical diction of the "Lydia die per omnes." We may be disappointed to see the drinking song which mentions Soracte turned into the heroic verse and style of the political odes, and to find the polished epigrams of the "Rectius vives, Licini, neque altum" reproduced in the manner of an improvisation; to encounter bald prose in the version of the Phocian Xanthias (Bk. ii. 4), or the ballad movement and vulgarity of

> "There are whose one employment is to celebrate the city
> Of Pallas the immaculate with never-ending ditty";

or, finally, to light upon such lapses as *proterva fronte* rendered "with wanton *gait*," and upon the treacherous fidelity of such phrases as "the *superjective* flood" and "Thick bile my burning liver swells." Such instances prove that, notwithstanding his carefulness and his occasional felicities of expression, Mr. Thornton too often does not hit the tone of particular passages and odes, that he is sometimes slipshod where he means to be easy, jaunty where he should be playful, diffuse where he should be concise and polished, and that he is most at fault in handling those airy trifles which are nothing if not graceful, and which require the touch of the born poet.

As to this last declaration, we shall seem to refute ourselves in the single poem which we extract. It is only fair to the translator to add his introduction:

> "TO LIGURINE. [Bk. iv. 10.]
>
> "Here, as also in the first Ode of this Book, I have assumed the person addressed to be a young lady, whose name I have changed into Ligurine, treating, however, her English name as a four-syllabled word, instead of reducing it, as in the preceding case, into a trisyllable.
>
> "Oh, still so obdurate, and in the gifts of Venus wealthy,
> When o'er your bloom unwished-for plume has crept with footstep stealthy,
> And fallen are the ringlets now adown your shoulders flowing,
> And colors brightlier than the flower of damask roses glowing

* 'Word for Word from Horace: The Odes literally versified. By William Thomas Thornton, C.B., author of a 'Treatise on Labor.'' London: Macmillan & Co. 1878.

Exchanged for a bewrinkled face shall. Ligurine, be,
'Ah!' you will cry, as in the glass your other self you see,
'Why, as a girl I felt, do I not feel to-day again?
Or why, since thus I feel, are not my cheeks the same as then?'"

A Popular History of the United States, from the first discovery of the Western Hemisphere by the Northmen to the end of the first century of the Union of the States. Preceded by a sketch of the pre-historic period and the age of the mound-builders. By William Cullen Bryant and Sydney Howard Gay. Vol. ii. Fully illustrated. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1878. 8vo, pp. 634.)—The remarks that we made upon the first volume of Bryant's history (see the *Nation*, No. 592) will apply very well to the second, which has just appeared. It is equally elegant in its externals, although cumbrous in its form; the illustrations are equally numerous and attractive, but as a whole not so good as in the first volume, by which we do not mean good as works of art, but as conveying historical information. We suppose the materials for genuine illustrations are scantier for this period; but surely there might have been more portraits, more maps and plans, and more reproductions of old pictures, like that on page 510. As a piece of literary work the first volume was good, and this seems even better. The prospect of getting the work within the four volumes promised cannot be said to have improved; whereas, according to the previous announcement, the present volume was to come to the Revolution, and the third to about 1840, this volume in fact hardly finishes the seventeenth century, and the next is now announced to reach only to the establishment of the Federal Government.

There is nothing, we think, in this volume, unless it is the four chapters by Mr. E. E. Hale upon the extreme South and West, equal in novelty and attractiveness to the accounts of the discoveries and colonization in the first volume. The persecutions and the witchcraft delusion in New England are fully and graphically told, and these make perhaps the most prominent feature in the volume. The Rhode Island affairs are also narrated at length, and make an important episode. It is curious that while in general the end of the century may be regarded as the limit of the volume the history of New York ends in 1674; so that Leisler's rebellion, which properly goes with the overthrow of Andros, is left for the next volume. Mr. Hale's chapters, on the other hand, overrun this limit here and there. Indeed, it is not always easy to understand within what limits the work was intended to be confined; perhaps it is that its growing dimensions have made it necessary to exclude from this volume subjects that were embraced in the first. For the early period we had the voyages of discovery in Canada; but here Canada is so far excluded that—except in Mr. Hale's chapters—Count Frontenac is mentioned only incidentally, or alluded to (p. 446) as "the Governor of Canada."

On the whole, the period covered is a very natural one, from the close of the first colonizing enterprises to the commencement of the great colonial wars, "Queen Anne's War" beginning very soon after the commencement of the new century. During this period came the second group of colonies—the Carolinas, the Jerseys, and Pennsylvania—with the transference of New Amsterdam to the English crown, which was equivalent to the founding of a new colony. The treatment of this period properly falls, therefore, under two distinct heads—the civic life of the old colonies (in the two groups, of New England and Maryland and Virginia) and the founding of new ones. And we think the authors would have succeeded better in solving the difficult problem of giving unity and continuity to this period if they had grouped their chapters according to this scheme: New England, ten chapters; Virginia, two; Maryland, two; the Middle States, four (there should have been a fifth, to embrace Leisler's rebellion), and the Carolinas two, each group being continuous. As a matter of fact, these chapters are scattered along in no very intelligible order, for chronological sequence is by no means strictly observed.

A printed slip informs us that the volume was wholly in type two months before Mr. Bryant's lamented death, and adds that "that event will make no difference in the progress of the work." Neither will it, we suppose, make any material difference in the composition of the work, as it is understood that this has been entrusted to Mr. Gay, Mr. Bryant's share—apart from the preparation of the general plan—having been chiefly in the way of supervision and criticism. The preface says that he "has given to every line—read in proof before printing—the benefit of his careful criticism, his ripe judgment, and his candid discrimination. The title of the work implies that it has passed already a far more rigid censorship, both for its matter and its manner, than any other reader is ever likely to exercise." These remarks lead to a consideration of the plan of composition adopted by Mr. Bryant. This is not his work in the sense in which Mr. Bancroft's and Mr. Prescott's histories are theirs; he is not an historian in the sense in which they are. He has not merely, as those historians have done, employed assistants to make researches and collect materials for him, but has thrown the work of composition likewise upon an associate, confining himself to general direction and criticism in detail. He is responsible for the work, therefore, as a history, but not as a literary composition; a perfectly legitimate thing, so long as it is done above-board, as in this case. Still it is not in this way that great works of literature are produced. It is style that lies at the foundation of literary excellence, and style is something that cannot be borrowed. The most minute and painstaking revision by Mr. Bryant cannot impart his style to the book; it is Mr. Gay who wrote it, and his are its positive excellences and defects. It is therefore as a well-written compendium of historical facts, rather than as a history in the highest sense of the term, that this work is to be regarded. As such it deserves the high commendation and wide circulation which it has received.

Natural History of Commerce, etc. By John Yates, LL.D. New Edition. 4 vols. (New York: Scribner, Welford & Co. 1878.)—This series belongs to the class known in Germany as *Fortbildungs-Bücher*, or books for the carrying on of one's education beyond the point at which the school leaves it. It is the result of several years of labor on the part of the editor and his coadjutors, and there is some inequality in the dates to which the several volumes and even chapters are brought down, the year 1872 being the latest. The first volume treats of raw products; the second, on the 'Technical History of Commerce,' presents a view of the rise and development of the industrial arts, chronologically by nations, and also by crafts, and of the state of modern industries; the third, on the 'Growth and Vicissitudes of Commerce, 1500–1789,' explains itself by its title, and is again divided into ancient, mediæval, and modern; and the fourth and last volume, 'Recent and Existing Commerce,' supplements the foregoing. In vol. i. there are appended a useful vocabulary of natural products in the principal European and Oriental languages, and a glossary of the principal technical and scientific terms. In vol. iii. will be found a chart showing the relative commercial importance of the nations of the earth at various periods, accompanied by a good summary description; also, a map of ancient caravan routes corresponding to one of modern in vol. iv. In the last two volumes valuable lists are given of works to be consulted, and vol. iv. is particularly instructive on account of its politico-economic information, in which slavery and the slave-trade, the English poor-laws and corn-laws, the general question of protection and free-trade, commercial crises, banking and currency, find a place. A thorough study of the whole series will end in a decided addition to one's knowledge of the history of civilization.

The author is not always as felicitous in expression as when (iv. 253) he says: "An issue of paper currency has been mistaken for a creation of wealth. As well might we mistake an invoice for the goods detailed therein." His disquisitions are needlessly long, rather dry, and sometimes *naïf*. In defining the causes of our civil war he still cherishes the old British delusion that the rebellion was as much on behalf of free-trade as of slavery. But an American will naturally find the references to his own country less adequate than they might be. We shall point out some particulars in which this appears, partly owing to the industrial and commercial changes since the inception of the work, partly to originally insufficient knowledge. The silver production of the United States is overlooked, and the statement (i. 111) that in North America "Mexico alone produces silver, tin, and quicksilver," contains two errors. Only half the cotton States are enumerated, and no mention is made of the culture of tobacco in New England. The fortieth parallel is made the northern limit of maize, instead of the forty-fifth. The transportation of fresh meat from America to Europe, still a desideratum (i. 286) when this work was written, is now an accomplished fact. Canned meats are not mentioned (ii. 226) among the successful industries of the United States. Notice is taken (ii. 298) of a French shoemaking machine in the World's Fair of 1851, but none of the United States machines of the present day. American watches and the decline of the Swiss manufacture remain to be discussed in some future edition. St. Thomas, we are told (iv. 200), "was sold to the United States for £1,500,000, the latter power making it a 'territory,' and securing it as a naval station for the West Indies." This is at least premature, while to speak of the German Zollverein as still existing is certainly antiquated. Peru had no railroads, Van Diemen's Land no tin, and South Africa no diamonds, when the author closed his survey.

In spite of these defects this series has a permanent capacity to instruct not only "youthful readers," whom the author has chiefly in

mind, but also adults ; and we wish they could find a place in stores and counting-rooms, which too often furnish the melancholy spectacle of able-bodied men having nothing to do but to sit smoking, or to stand with their hands in their pockets looking out of the window.

L'Art. Tome XIII. (Paris : A. Ballue ; New York : J. W. Bouton.) —The pleasure of commending unstintedly is not so frequently granted the reviewer but that he will embrace it with eagerness when occasionally it comes. The periodical conducted by M. Ballue, and which appears in large folios of some 340 pages four times a year, corresponds in technical importance with the great British quarterlies, but literature has never had a critical organ of the sumptuousness of this commentary on the fine arts ; neither has music, neither has science. Only one nation could produce, as the mere running journalism which records a special phase of human achievement, a series of criticisms and illustrations like those composing *L'Art*. We are rather disconcerted when we contemplate the infinitude of the resources upon which such a journal must draw. If the record alone of a nation's collections and exhibitions and general *virtuosité* is so imposing, what must be the extent of the art-production, the art-accumulation, the actual sources of which it forms the index ? Impossible as it would be to prepare such a review and venture such an enterprise in any country but France, the public of other nations is not without an honorable connection with its success, in simply accepting the privilege of helping to support it. We had nothing so admirable to help support four years ago. This spread of appreciation beyond the confines of race and language is made particularly easy in the case of M. Ballue's periodical because it shows a lively desire —a desire which does not seem at all French—to trace the progress of art all over the world. *L'Art* has a London editor (Mr. J. Comyns Carr), and American correspondents, together with reporters in Italy, Austria, and Spain. The English news in the present volume is very full. A fluent and genial article on the London stage, by Walter Herries Pollock, introduces good English sketches, as different as possible from the Mora photograph, of such actors as Arthur Cecil in "Doctor Downward" and Hare in "The Quiet Rubber" ; a patient statistical chronicle by Wedmore of the life and labors of Constable gives the French some human conception of the father of modern landscape as a man, with personal details which heretofore they have not much cared to know ; Mr. Comyns Carr sends an account of the exhibition of old drawings at the Grosvenor Gallery, including Lady Roseberry's valuable book of sketches by Mantegna; and Professor Colvin, transferring to *L'Art* the studies on engravers of Dürer's time which he began in the *Portfolio*, contributes a couple of papers on "the Master who illustrated Boccaccio." This anonymous Dutch engraver, one of whose plates, with a portrait of Boccaccio, is shown in a photogravure, and whose style reveals an almost Italian elegance, is now for the first time given a date and local habitation ; his plates are associated with an edition of Boccaccio's *De Casibus*, Bruges, 1476, to be found in Lord Lothian's library at Newbattle. Among the illustrations to these English subjects, the etchings by Park of Constable's National Gallery pictures of the "Cornfield" and "Romantic House," are high-flavored and voluptuous, conveying a sense of that impasto which Leslie used to feel out with his eyes shut, at the points of his fingers.

A French etcher, Gaucherel, dealing with Harpignies' "Walnut-Tree," in the last Salon, gives a very different example of extreme breadth combined with feathery lightness. In the reproduction of landscape, however, the palm must go at present to the wood-engravers ; the imitation of crayon and charcoal drawings after landscapes in the Salon, as presented by Yon and Langeval, would be a curiosity in photography itself, and is a marvellous result to produce on a block of wood. The effects proper to box are haughtily, almost insultingly, thrown aside ; but as an effort of determined will, the fidelity to the broad broken touch of the pencil is astonishing. As another sort of attempt, M. Gaujean's effort to express the thin sharpness and jewelled flash of water-color is quite successful in his aqua-fortis after Moreau's "Apparition"—one of the few modern water-colors, by-the-by, which attempt to deal with a solemn sort of theme, a kind of Salome tragedy. M. Moreau, in this Exposition picture, presents us with almost the only Biblical aquarelle since the cartoons of Raphael. While on the etchings of this number of *L'Art*, we must speak in high praise of those representing two portraits by Rubens, acquired of late by Etienne Le Roy for the Brussels Museum ; the aristocratic faces of Jean Charles de Cordes and his noble wife, as etched by Waltner, enhance the strength of Rubens with an elegance that might be borrowed from Vandyck, and justify the claim of etching to give warmer impressions of great canvas than is possible to the deliberate calculation of line-engraving. To give Rubens the advantage, however, of the line-engraver's long watches and possible corrections, *L'Art* inserts a German plate of his own portrait at Vienna, made up of the most decorous cross-hatches and parallel lines; while, not to deprive the great Fleming of the most skilful interpretation that the etcher's art can anywhere produce, it includes a study by Unger of Rubens's "Virgin under the Apple-Tree," also at Vienna, in which the needle runs a brilliant race with the dancing raptures of the brush, and in which particularly the figure of the Holy Babe, though one of Unger's slightest sketches, gives the most fruitful possible hint of flesh-painting, all revelling in blond and carnation. Another etching we are glad to notice is that of the bronze of "Tiberius and Caius Gracchus," the group by Guillaume, newly-installed director of the Fine Arts. No statue in the Luxembourg makes a stronger moral impression than this, with its sentiment of mingled fraternity and patriotism—the idea of the state sustained by the family idea, like some eloquent chapter in M. Coulanges' book. It is true the sculptor overleaps the nine years' disparity of age, and gives the notion of a pair of twins; but the conception is monumental. Tiberius, with a sense of early martyrdom in his bowed head and eyes, laying his hand restrainingly on that of the more ardent Caius, who crushes the scroll of the Agrarian Law. This illustration of an old work is made in compliment to M. Guillaume, whose selection as director is highly approved by the editor.

The retirement of M. de Chennevières is celebrated with a fusilade of amenities directed at that departing figure, throughout the course of an elaborate article called a "funeral oration," and constituting about the only editorial paper in all the volumes of *L'Art* that is not signed. The retiring marquis is bitterly reproached for his inefficiency and backwardness, and the point is especially made against him of not causing to be represented at the Exposition the lately deceased artists of France; Diaz and Millet are both excluded, and of Courbet there is but one example, the "Vague," bought this present year for the Luxembourg collection for 20,000 francs. Other amenities there are in the course of the volume such as are never wanting in the conduct and succession of articles in *L'Art*, and which give the journal its accent, its individuality, and its flush of life. The long sentence early pronounced against Cabanel is continued. His Saint-Louis subjects in the Exposition are an "empty, icy composition," an "interminable college exercise"; "the ladies have made him what he is"; and finally, at the conclusion of an article, the painter of the Florentine Poet and of the St. Louis of the Luxembourg finds preferred to him none other than Edouard Dubufe, author of Mr. Stewart's appalling acquisition, that "Prodigal Son" which the enamored flames lately carried off from a world which too gladly bore the loss. On another page *L'Art* neatly convicts the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts* of having too hastily attributed the subject of one of Novelli's engravings from Mantegna to Countess Roseberry's album, where the particular design is not to be found. But competition in art-journalism is the demonstration of vitality. We may parenthetically signalize our own by pointing out that *L'Art* quotes the attribution of a design on one of the Castellani basins to Giulio Romano, and calls its subject St. Mark, whereas the *Nation* rather carefully demonstrated last year that it was not St. Mark and not by Giulio, and gave a photographic print of the St. Jerome from which it was traced.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Adams (Rev. C. C.), Life of our Lord Jesus Christ	(Chas. F. Roper) $2 50
Blaisdell (A. F.), Outlines for the Study of English Classics	(New England Pub. Co.)
Farra (Rev. F. W.), Saintly Workers	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 25
Gréville (H.), Savéli's Expiation : a Tale, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 50
Sonia : a Tale, swd	" " 50
Heyse (P.), In Paradise : a Tale, 2 vols	(D. Appleton & Co.) 2 00
Hill (Prof. D. J.), Elements of Rhetoric and Composition	(Sheldon & Co.)
Horton (S. D.), The Monetary Situation, swd	(Robert Clarke & Co.)
Hotze (C. L.), Questions and Problems in Elementary Physics	(Central Pub. Co.) 75
Johnston (W. P.), Life of Gen. Albert Sidney Johnston	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Jones (R. W.), Money is Power	(Bryan, Brand & Co.) 1 50
Joynes-Otto Introductory French Lessons	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 25
Kent (J.), Sibyl Spencer : a Tale	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
Kiddle (H.) and Schem (A. J.), Year-Book of Education for 1878	(E. Steiger)
Lindau (R.), Liquidated : The Seer, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.) 25
Murray (E. C. G.), Round About France	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 00
Perry (Prof. A. L.), Elements of Political Economy, new ed.	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 2 50
Personal Narratives of the Battles of the Rebellion, Nos. 1, 2, 3, swd	(Sidney S. Rider)
Rhode Island Historical Tracts, Nos. 1, 2, 3, swd	" "
Scudder (M. L., jr.), Almost an Englishman : a Tale	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 00
Ware (Prof. W. R.), Hand-books of Decorative Form : I. Greek Ornament, swd	(S. W. Tilton & Co.) 1 00

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 19, 1878.

The Week.

THE frantic mob which nominated Butler for Governor of Massachusetts at Worcester, on Tuesday, was repudiated by the Democratic State Committee, and was not a convention of the machine, but it was made up of undoubted Democrats, representing Democratic constituencies, and probably comprised a majority of the regularly-elected delegates, and if so was a real convention of the party. The attempt of the State Committee to pass upon credentials with reference to whom the delegates were to vote for, rather than to whom they represented, was a desperate resort to defeat the will of the majority of the party, and cannot be defended. This trick, characteristic of machine politics, was met by one not less characteristic of the burly Essex statesman; his adherents early forced the doors of the hall of the Convention or scrambled up ladders at the rear windows, and held possession against the threats and entreaties of the mayor, who feebly reported to the State Committee that the hall could not be cleared without danger of bloodshed. The Committee thereupon, unable to obtain another hall, voted to postpone the Convention until September 25, and hold it in Faneuil Hall. Butler, therefore, remained master of the field and has secured the real nomination of the party, whatever "the aristocrats" may attempt at Boston. His course may alienate some votes, but he has succeeded in making a wide breach between the rowdy element and their respectable leaders, and attaching the former to his cause. The platform contained no financial plank, but a very strong one upon the "Great Fraud," and denounced the practice of making the poor man prove his right to vote at the polls. The whole interest centres in Butler himself, and the platform is a mere adjunct. The ceremonies appropriately closed with an address by Kearney in the evening.

One of the most trenchant and thorough exposures of Butler as a political charlatan appeared in the Boston *Advertiser* on Saturday from the pen of Mr. William Endicott. Most of the letter is devoted to State politics, but the close deals with Butler's position on national questions. By way of illustrating the injustice of not taxing the Government bonds, which were such excellent security as compared with business enterprises that were heavily taxed, the General told one of his audiences that he was "the foolish proprietor" of a mill which had "to squeeze down the laborer" in order to make 10 per cent. on the capital invested. Mr. Endicott shows that the old patriot has actually received an average of 26¾ per cent. per annum from his mill during the last sixteen years, pocketing 11 per cent. in 1877. He also shows that he voted against the taxation of District of Columbia bonds, of which he is, or was, a large holder; that he voted and spoke (June 13, 1870) in favor of making the four per cents payable in coin, and at the same time said that he thought the greenbacks should be paid in gold. Mr. Endicott ought to have remarked here that this was a retreat from Butler's greenback position of 1868, which he found did not take well. In June, 1870, he also explained lucidly the theory on which the bonds were exempt from taxation, saying:

"By exempting these bonds from taxation *we discount our taxes in our interest.* We say, as we have a right to say, If you will lend us money we *will agree* that no authority under the Government shall tax the income or the interest or the principal of the money loaned. And that *enters into the contract;* it is a part of the consideration. *That holds us, and ought to do so.*"

If it be asked how a man with a political history of this kind can face audiences with the doctrines he now preaches, the answer is that a large body of the voters do not seem any longer to care anything about consistency or character as long as the candidate seems likely, from whatever motive, to be able and willing to carry out all their wishes, and protect what they believe to be their interests. Nothing in Butler's career, for instance, surpasses in brass Mr. W. D. Kelley's going about exposing the fraud and secrecy of the Demonetization Act of 1873, which he had himself examined and reported on as Chairman of Committee and had supported as demonetization in a speech; or Mr. Sherman's behavior, who put the bill through in the Senate, and knew all about it and kept silent about it during the agitation. The fact is, that the silver movement of last year was as good a school as the most rascally and crazy Greenbacker could have got his education in. It gave him his morality and his political economy all ready for use. Mr. Murat Halstead has, as we suggested, very properly gone to Europe, and will probably remain until the present trouble blows over; but Mr. Medill is still here, and if he remains will have double work to do trying to get the inflationists to be satisfied with the "Fathers' Dollar."

The Massachusetts Greenback Convention, which met on Wednesday week, showed the existence of a full-grown party under more skilful leadership than has yet been evinced in Greenback canvasses. There was a machine which turned out organization nomination, and platform, not, it is true, without some rattling and vigorous opposition from those who wished their own individual insanities made main issues, but still with complete success. The platform itself makes an attempt at reasonableness, and, by its framing, avoids some leading objections. It declares that bonds should be paid, but leaves the question of what they are to be paid in to the Supreme Court. It says nothing about the national banks. It demands absolute money whose volume shall be maintained at a fixed rate per capita, not by any doubtful power already existing in the Government, but by Constitutional amendment. It demands also the repeal of the Resumption Act, issue of new bonds only by direct vote of the people, and the banishment from America of the "idiotic proposition" that gold and silver are fit for a basis of money. In this compound of political sagacity and insanity probably much is due to the hand of Butler, who received the nomination. This political skill, which the accession of such men as Butler, with their knowledge of methods and expedients, has brought to the party, is what has transformed it from aimless and ignorant discontent into a threatening danger. It not only has definite schemes before it, but it has learned from these willing and able teachers the way in which, by political manœuvre, it may embody its schemes in legislation. The Massachusetts Convention shows more than any other that it is acquiring gradually the qualities which make a party to be feared.

No sharper contrast has been drawn between the political principles and methods of the Republican and Democratic parties than is afforded by their New Hampshire platforms. The Republicans, premising a "cordial" yet reserved support of the Administration, heartily commended its policy of resumption, declared it "to be beyond the power of the Government to impart value to irredeemable paper," and denounced "all efforts to delay the day of resumption and to inflate the currency as destructive of all business interests, and unwise, dishonorable, and fraudulent as public measures." The Democrats made use of their customary evasion and shuffling, and courted the Greenback element in a resolution as elastic and meaningless as they could form. This course inflicts on the cause of sound money a double blow in the division of its friends and the encouragement of its enemies. On the one hand, it is clear, from the melting away of their party in Maine, that the Democrats do not thus retain any doubtful inflation votes. The Greenbackers

know definitely what they want, and desire to have it definitely pledged to them. The delegate who moved to amend by demanding the taxation of all Government securities, the repeal of the National Bank and Resumption Acts, and the payment of bonds "in the moneys of the Government," better understood the temper of the dissatisfied. On the other hand, this temporizing does tend to keep in party lines the old and loyal Democrats who, but for party devotion, would vote the declared honest-money ticket, but who hope that "the Jackson Democracy" will weather this storm, and who are likely to find on the day after election that the younger generation has outrun them and has left their politics only an historic interest.

In Connecticut the Democrats, against the known opposition of Senators Eaton and Barnum, have followed the same suicidal plan, and have adopted a platform of bald inconsistencies and the most ludicrous verbiage. They affirm gold and silver coin to be "the most stable basis for the commercial necessities of the world," but denounce the whole financial policy of the Government which is slowly bringing us to that basis; they denounce especially the Resumption Act, but they leave all legislation upon it to the wisdom of Congress without a suggestion as to its character, and they condemn repudiation but declare that "whatever currency is issued should be for the benefit of the whole people." These resolutions were passed "as a whole" with neatness and despatch, neither Senator Eaton nor Senator Barnum being on hand to discuss or denounce them.

Secretary Sherman has been interviewed by a Greenback editor, and the report, which Mr. Sherman is said to have revised, is sufficiently remarkable. He laid it down that it was a mistake to suppose that a man could not be a Republican and a Greenbacker at the same time; that the two positions are perfectly compatible; that the Greenbackers have left the Republican party simply because "his financial policy has been misrepresented"; but "the misrepresentations will be cleared up" and then they will come back to the old party. He considers a currency issued by Government "superior and more economical" than national-bank notes, and the reason why he has been preparing to redeem the Government notes is, that he found a law on the statute-book when he took office commanding him to do so. But when "resumption is an accomplished fact" and "the country has settled down to a specie standard," there being no longer any occasion for the national banks, "they will be legislated out of existence." He owns no bonds, and, so far from "working in the interest of the bondholders," he has been from the very first trying to cut down their interest. "He has been abused pretty generally, but having laid down for his guidance the interests of the whole country, he does not permit harsh criticisms to keep him from sleeping." There is one point in his estimable character as a politician and financier to which the Secretary modestly refrains from calling attention, and that is his eminently catholic and progressive spirit. We doubt very much indeed whether it would be possible to concoct any financial doctrine or scheme which took votes from the Republican party, or seemed likely to take them, which he would not at last see his way to adopting and indeed claiming as his own. His plan of having the Government assume permanently the duty of issuing paper money, of which there now seems no doubt, has probably the seeds of endless trouble in it, for it means the introduction of the volume of the currency as an issue in every canvass.

He made in the course of the interview some observations on Mr. Eugene Hale's position. He expressed his surprise at this gentleman's defeat in a district in which there are so many workingmen, inasmuch as "he had been the most persistent man in Congress in getting work for them to do." "He was always," Mr. Sherman said, "getting appropriations for Government work in his district," and yet he was defeated, and this shows that "popularity is not to be made by getting appropriations for public works." This is hardly the whole moral of Mr. Hale's misfortune, however. It teaches also that when a member of Congress gives himself up to this kind of work to such a point as to lead workingmen to think that this is what he is sent to Congress for, they reach the conclusion before long that one of their own number would do it as well or better. Mr. Hale's constituents have accordingly sent an ignorant working stone-cutter in his place. He will not serve the purpose as well as Mr. Hale, because he will not understand the forms of the House and will have no influence there, but the mistake is not an unnatural one for his supporters to make.

Secretary Sherman has one good defence against any misrepresentation of "his policy" regarding silver, viz., the difficulty of knowing what it is. He has just issued an order rescinding the previous one directing the payment of silver for greenbacks. This makes the fifth order he has issued in attempting to be "friendly to silver" since July 19. The first directed certain banks to be furnished with silver dollars on their application; but they were to distribute it as currency, and not let importers have it for customs duties. The second (Sept. 3) directed silver to be paid out in sums under $10,000 in exchange for silver certificates; but it was still to be used as currency, and the importers were not to have any of it. The third (Sept. 7) directed it to be issued at the sub-treasuries to anybody for greenbacks. The fourth (Sept. 13) forbade such payment, on account of doubts of its legality. The fifth (Sept. 14) directs silver to be furnished free of expense to 120 national banks, on their application, for general use, and directs United States disbursing agents and paymasters to use silver dollars in their payments as far as possible, and Government employés who desire them in payment of their salaries may also have them. Would it not be a good plan to get the religious papers to recommend them to their subscribers as a good and safe investment?

The price of silver bullion in London fell during the week to 51½*d.* per ounce, and the bullion value here of the 412½-grain dollar fell to precisely 87 cents gold. In this market gold, which had fallen to 100⅛ because, under Mr. Sherman's earlier silver orders, it would be no longer needed for import duties, advanced to 100⅜ to 100½ when those orders were revoked. No mistakes of the Treasury, however, appear to check the sales of 4 per cent. bonds, and during the week another $5,000,000 of 5-20 6 per cents was called for redemption. This makes a total of $80,000,000 5-20s redeemed and notified for redemption since May 1 last.

The trade-dollar imbroglio thickens. Letters continue to pour into the Treasury Department enquiring why they are not redeemed by the Government, why the bankers do not take them on deposit, and why, seeing that they contain more silver than the "buzzard dollar" (the designation applied by indignant holders of the trade-dollar to the now standard dollar), they are not universally current. The New York Central Railroad now refuses to take trade-dollars for tickets or freight, but they are still current in some departments of trade, so that their quotable price is considerably above their bullion value. Consequently there is money to be made by bringing them from California, or even from China, and putting them into circulation. It is estimated that about three millions are now afloat, and an agitation has been started in the West to have them redeemed at par by act of Congress. This would be equivalent to buying silver bullion on Government account at about 58*d.* per ounce, its market value being below 52*d.* per ounce. As the Government makes no profit on the issue of trade-dollars, but merely stamps them and certifies their weight and fineness, it would be a promising speculation to the holders of silver bullion to have a law passed for their redemption at par, and to have the mints kept open for the coinage of new ones. This is substantially what is meant by those who are demanding free coinage of the "buzzard dollar."

The removal of Postmaster Filley has reminded the Republicans of Wisconsin, of the better sort, that they too have a Boss whom they could very well spare both from the mail service and the political management of the State. Postmaster Keyes will be remembered as one of the managers who had to choose between resigning their positions as directors of party caucuses and conventions and relinquishing the offices under the Government, in obedience to the President's order. He chose to hold on to his post-office, in the belief that retirement from the public gaze would not absolutely destroy his political authority. The event seems to have justified his calculations, for the Ring of which he was the chief still keep their hold on the party, and have secured the renomination of all the corrupt Wisconsin representatives in the late disreputable Congress, while the Boss is not very secretly bargaining with them for the place in the Senate on which the Hon. Matt. Carpenter has also fixed his eye. Whether a postmaster who ostensibly conforms to the President's order, and whose public appearances are as innocent as the making of "agricultural addresses," is liable to the stroke which has just overtaken Filley, we do not profess to know. The official glosses upon the order have left so little force and meaning in it that it might seem tyrannical to decapitate a postmaster for seeking to become senator. All the same, the President would probably earn the gratitude of Wisconsin Republicans by making an example of Boss Keyes, without reference to any other consideration than that they are completely in the latter's power.

The charges which it is said are to be preferred against the Sheriff, County Clerk, and Register in this city, looking to the removal of these officers by the Governor, have not been specifically made public, but in general they are without doubt of the nature indicated in a report of a Committee of the Bar Association, in which it was stated that unauthorized or excessive charges or fees were exacted habitually by these officials; that the fact was notorious to the profession and within their daily experience, "so that no report could add to the general knowledge of the Association on that subject"; that instances of these practices were the fees and perquisities received upon attachments and replevins, oppressive exactions from those arrested for debt, fees for irregular searches, and for recording deeds and mortgages. The movement has apparently been under way for a considerable time, but is at last going to become effective. The abuses have long been notorious, but lawyers, not unnaturally, have preferred to suffer their clients to be victimized rather than be subjected to such annoyances as these officers would have in their power to inflict upon one who made trouble. The solution proposed by the Committee is the only rational one, and should have been made long since; that is, to make all offices supported by fees salaried, reduce the fees to the smallest and fewest possible, and to have these paid to a person specially appointed, who should give a receipt and pay them to the public treasury.

There have been few reports from the seat of war in Bosnia. While the losses from Gen. Zach's failure to take Bihatch, and other movements even when successful (estimated between Sept. 4–9 at 100 officers and 3,000 men), were fresh in the public mind, a very despondent feeling was caused by the announcement that Gen. Philippovitch was about to remove his headquarters from Serayevo to Brod, on the River Save. This turns out to be not quite correct. Only the headquarters of the Second Army Corps will be thus transferred, and Gen. Philippovitch will not accompany it in person but by a representative. The lack of fodder is assigned as a reason for a retrograde movement of the cavalry. Whether Austria is for the present content with Serayevo as an outpost or not, the work in the rear has now become the chief concern of the campaign, and from Brod will doubtless be directed the combinations necessary to reduce the insurrection in Northern Bosnia. The capture by assault of Shamatz, on the Save, just below its junction with the Bosna, is reported, and the bombardment of Berka further down the same stream. General Szapáry has again advanced, in conjunction with reinforcements on his left wing, and Gradatchatz and Gratchanitza have both been occupied, the latter without opposition. The Austrians have burned some villages in the Banyaluka district and along the Save. Meantime the Government credit for the occupation is said to be nearly exhausted, and the opposition to voting any further appropriation is gaining strength in Hungary. The latest account of the death of Mehemet Ali at Diakova confirms the earlier one, that he was killed not while he and his escort were fighting in self-defence, but in true Turkish fashion, after having fled from a burning house and taken refuge in a shed. The Albanian tumult is growing, and emissaries are said to have been despatched to Epirus to excite hostility to annexation to Greece. They can safely count upon the sympathy of the Porte.

The Russian troops in front of Constantinople, which it is now ascertained mustered full 80,000, have begun to retire. Half have already embarked, and the remainder are to withdraw into Eastern Rumelia, which they are to occupy for some months, while the government of the province is being organized. In the meantime the negotiations between Sir Austin Layard and the Porte about the reforms in Asia have been going on swimmingly, but have a comic side. The Porte has been found not only ready but eager for reform, and the reforms suggested by the British Minister are luckily the very ones the Turks were themselves thinking of, namely, police, decent roads, and tolerable courts of justice, or, in other words, a fair amount of protection for life and property. These little changes will, however, they say, cost $30,000,000 merely to begin, and they propose that England should advance this sum on the surplus of the Cyprus revenues. This seems to have been too much even for the English minister, and he returned a peremptory refusal. There is probably nobody now left who would entrust the Turks with any sum, however small, for the purposes of "reform," and it remains to be seen how the difficulty will be got over. No progress has been made in the settlement of the Greek question. Germany and France are disposed to interfere, but England is opposed.

An extraordinary and unlooked-for change has been made in the government of Egypt by the complete surrender to the state by the Khedive of his vast private landed property, amounting directly to 1,000,000 acres, or directly and indirectly to one-fifth of the soil, and all cultivated by forced labor, and largely acquired by outrageous oppression of individuals. Besides farming on a great scale, he manufactured on a scale still greater, owning numerous sugar, cotton, and tobacco factories. He began in 1863 with a debt of $20,000,000, but he has worked so well as a borrower that he now owes $535,000,000, and the population only amounts to 5,000,000. It is needless to say, too, that he has lost money in all his industrial enterprises; so that in surrendering his private property, and appointing a Constitutional Ministry, with Nubar Pasha at the head of it, and Mr. Rivers Wilson, the English financier, as Minister of Finance, he is virtually going into bankruptcy. In the language of our time, having suffered enormously from "shrinkage," he has "gone into liquidation." He accompanied his surrender with a little speech in which he said that Egypt was to be African no longer; it was hereafter to be administered as a European state.

The debate in the Reichstag on the Anti-Socialist Bill began on Monday, and was opened by Herr Bebel in a manner sufficiently trying to the Government, for he enlarged upon its relations with the Socialists in former years when in need of an ally, and brought forward the evidence. He was replied to by Count Eulenburg, who had reason to know all the facts in the case and on that account was disabled from making an effective denial. This was reserved for Bismarck himself the next day, and his denial was emphatic and categorical, and included any connection whatsoever with Lassalle. He denounced the Socialists as a gang of bandits, for which he was in vain called to order by Bebel. The bill was finally referred to a committee of twenty-one.

THE MAINE ELECTION.

THERE have been numerous signs during the past two or three months that many of the Republican leaders were beginning to see the importance of the financial question. The late speeches even of Mr. Blaine have contained no trace of reliance any longer on the Southern troubles, and have been devoted almost wholly, and in language of unusual clearness and resolution, to the defence of the national credit. But neither he nor any of the other prominent members of the party were probably prepared for what has just happened in Maine—a Republican defeat by means of a great inflationist vote; or, in other words, the encouragement of the Butler movement in Massachusetts, and of the Greenback movement all over the country, by an unexpected display of strength by the party of repudiation and financial disorder in one of the oldest and most reliable Republican States, and a New-England State to boot. A more sobering incident, or one better calculated to promote reflection, could not, in fact, have befallen "the grand old party." One has only to take up any faithful Republican paper and read a Republican speech since last week to suspect that the organization is undergoing a veritable change of heart. To be sure, the House of Representatives and the Senate are lost beyond doubt, and the Presidency is very likely in 1880 to go too, and it is a great pity that things should have reached this pass before the conversion was accomplished. But parties are very like men in the matter of abandoning evil ways. Some men grow better under preaching, but only very few; the greater number only mend under actual experience of the consequences of their folly or sin. "Reform within the party," as long as the party is in no danger of loss of power, is, as we have often pointed out, a dream. No such process has ever occurred. Parties which have once gone astray, and for whose idle hands Satan has found mischief to do, are reformed in the last resort and made to feel once more the pulses of their earlier and better life by having the offices taken away from them, and being compelled to lay hold of the living questions of the day in order ever to get them again.

The Republican party has been brought to its present plight by the negro vote at the South. Once the idea was conceived of diverting this vote from its first and legitimate object of giving the Southern whites a motive for respecting the negro's rights and cultivating his good will, and making it, under carpet-bag superintendence, a means of securing blind support for the Republican party in the Congress, the ruin of the party began. Blind support—that is, the support of a "brute vote" which does not reason, which simply loves and fears or hates—ruins any party by destroying its sense of responsibility. It has ruined the Democratic party in this city. As soon as the party leaders have only to look into the census returns in order to see what their vote in any particular State or district is sure to be, they get into the state of mind of a cashier who has been informed by his employers that vouchers for his disbursements will no longer be required of him. With the negro vote to count on, and outrages on negroes to furnish the warp of party platforms and stump speeches, there appeared to the Republican chiefs little need to trouble their heads about the new problems which the steady growth of the community was constantly raising, or to take note of the needs of the new generation which has come on the stage since the war. For eleven years, therefore, after the surrender at Appomattox a man could be a good Republican by merely distrusting the South and by believing in "outrages." As long as he could show this test of his orthodoxy he was welcome to hold any opinions he pleased with regard to currency, taxation, civil-service reform, the public credit, public improvements, the relations of the Government to corporations and wages, and all the other questions which the rising tide of trade, industry, and population was pushing into prominence. On these no debate, about these no enquiry or concern, and no attempt to mould public opinion or to save the working classes from the snares of demagogues and firebrands. It is ten years since that old scapegoat Butler, whom Republican papers are now at a loss for epithets to describe fitly, began his assaults on the public credit, without calling forth a word of party censure and without any loss of party standing. It is only two years since Republican Senators were stumping his district for him, and waving the "bloody shirt" in his honor. The party has been steadily losing ground under these tactics, and yet so hard is it for its chiefs to read the lesson of its decline that within one year many of them could think of no better remedy than trying to put General Grant back in the Presidency, to save them from the Communists and reward him for behaving so well in European dining-rooms.

During all this time there has been a steady growth of sentiment hostile to rational and honest finance. The attempts of leading politicians in both parties to avoid taking decided ground on the currency and the public credit, and to get rid of these and cognate questions by means of compromises and evasions, and vague and high-sounding declarations, has naturally promoted the success of those who have been engaged in persuading the less intelligent and reflective voters that there are no laws of finance, and that in this field anything may be safely done or attempted which the legislature chooses, and that no experience of other countries or ages furnishes us with a guide for our course. Probably nothing did more to spread and strengthen this view than the silver legislation of last winter, which a good many sensible men really supported in the belief that it would satisfy the inflationists and prevent further attacks on public and private credit. About bi-metallism and the double standard there is, of course, plenty of room for honest difference of opinion; but the misfortune of the silver legislation was that it was carried by arguments of which not one-tenth dealt with theories of finance at all. The other nine-tenths were either denunciation pure and simple of all creditors, or attempts to prove that the power of the Government over the money of the country was unlimited, and might be used for the promotion of any notions of justice which the majority happen to entertain. Many of those who got these arguments up fondly hoped that when silver was remonetized they would be laid aside as useless. The fact is, however, they can be applied nearly as well to any kind of money as to silver, and have since December last been wielded vigorously and effectively in support, not of ten per cent. depreciation of the measure of value, but in support of any depreciation the condition of the country seems to the majority to call for. Moreover, there is no likelihood that the movement in favor of wild-cat experiments in finance will cease until it is met and beaten by a party which makes that its main issue, and is united on it. It cannot be, and will not be, put down or its promoters disheartened by a party which is occupied with something else, or is ready to compromise on it, or in whose ranks all sorts of opinions on it are current, and no opinion lasts over a week. All money questions in politics have a fascination for the ignorant and discontented which no other questions ever have, because they promise an immediate improvement in each man's private affairs. A man who has once got it into his head, therefore, that he can get money out of the Treasury to pay his debts with or lighten his labor with, will never give up the pursuit till he is met by a man as determined and sincere as himself. He cannot be turned aside or disenchanted by hemming and hawing, or by suggestions that, though there is a good deal in what he says, he is asking too much. There is no middle ground in the matter, and there is no room for experiment. We cannot in this country arrange so as to have the Government take care of people a little; we must make up our minds either that every American shall take care of himself and carry on his dealings with coin with which the Government has nothing to do but weigh and stamp it, or we must be ready to go the whole distance and turn the State into a national workshop or vast almshouse. The fight will not end un il it is made plain to the demagogues and disorganizers, and their followers, that the majority has made up its mind that no such experiments shall be tried on this soil, and has announced this decision in unmistakable terms at the polls.

The indications now seem to be that the Republicans have at last come to a full comprehension of the situation, and have resolved to

give up trying to manufacture issues, and have taken up that which the times and the public enemy present. General Garfield's speech in Boston the other night, which, as a piece of sound political exposition, has rarely been surpassed, dealt solely with the questions of which everybody is thinking and on which the peace and prosperity of the country turn, and we have no doubt the other party orators will follow his example. In other words, he has set "the keynote of the campaign." He took up one by one the fallacies which have been during the past five years secretly ravaging the fabric of our society while we were mourning over the woes of the estimable Kellogg and Packard and Pinchback, and produced the happiest exposures of their folly. Nothing neater or more effective than his explanation of the "non-exportability" of the greenback has been heard for a long time in political oratory—that it was non-exportable for the same reason that damaged flour, rancid butter, and addled eggs are non-exportable. His plea for the honest discharge of the public obligations was solemn, but too solemn it could not be; for the attack now made on the public credit is not aimed at that simply. If it were successful it would bring down also the things on which the public credit rests, and of which it is but the product—the confidence of man in man, which makes trade and industry possible; the steady and trustworthy administration of justice, which is the first condition of our material growth; and the national fame and repute, regard for which has thus far furnished one of the strongest checks on the enterprise of the unprincipled and reckless portion of the population.

"THE POOR MAN" IN POLITICS.

THE growth of the greenback movement, the success of persons like Butler—if not in capturing high offices of state, at least in securing the confidence of large masses of the people—the increasing tendency among voters of all classes to rely on the Government for aid in growing rich or avoiding poverty, the gross absurdity of the remedies for distress produced during the last year in the speeches and platforms of "labor reformers" and inflationists, is naturally suggesting the question, What is to be done to prevent a recurrence of these outbursts of folly? A good many people satisfy themselves with the reflection that they will cease with the return of "good times," but it is as well to remember that in a certain sense, which may be called the American sense, the times will probably never be as good again as they have been. That is to say, although trade and industry may grow to vast proportions, and the accumulations of capital be unprecedentedly great, the distribution of wealth is never likely to be as satisfactory hereafter as it has been. One of the peculiarities of the United States hitherto has been the extreme shrewdness of the population, and times are never very bad or long bad among a shrewd people. Almost every American voter in the Northern States used to bring to the transaction of all business a fund of common sense which never failed him, and he did not separate political business from other business. He did not attend the town meeting with one set of ideas about the way money ought to be made and spent, and then go to his store or farm with another set. It is true the early history of the country was marked by great delusions about paper money; but then all countries passed through delusions about paper money down to the beginning of the present century, and these were, of course, more mischievous and pronounced in poor communities than in rich ones. Sound public finance may indeed be said to be the product of the last seventy years. It has come in with the growth of trade and commerce and the introduction into politics of commercial methods and ideas, and it may be truly said that no juster views of the proper relations of the Government to the currency have been held anywhere than were embodied in the creed of the Democratic party in its earlier days, and that no better system of banking has been devised anywhere than that which was set up in this State in 1838.

But a great change has taken place in the character of a considerable portion of the population. It is not as shrewd and intelligent or familiar with business as it used to be, nor as prudent and calculating, and it has to contend with keener competition and greater pressure of numbers on subsistence than formerly. It has, therefore, less of the qualities by which laborers grow into capitalists, or, in other words, has less providence. With it, therefore, times are always hard. A laborer who saves nothing, or a farmer who cannot make ends meet, or borrows more money than he can manage, is not cheered by the favorable bank and custom-house returns. In other words, our shiftless and ne'er-do-weel class has been greatly increased since the outbreak of the war, and is likely to remain and increase still. What is worst, however, is that this class is likely to give more attention to politics as a remedy for its troubles than it has ever done before, because the greater magnitude of the Government and the more extended exercise of its powers have removed it further away in the popular imagination, and made it easier for the voter to fancy it a separate person, with unknown resources and capacities, which might be used for his benefit without expense to him. For all these reasons, no return of commercial or manufacturing prosperity is likely to take "the poor man" out of politics. He has got in, and he is likely to remain there; and we shall have hereafter constant legislation, or attempts at legislation, for his benefit both in Congress and the State legislatures, and constant enquiries into his condition, and efforts to find out and bring to justice the wicked persons who are engaged in oppressing him; and the more he is coddled in this way the more oppressed he will feel. The more the legislature occupies itself with his case—whether the interest be real or feigned—the more outrageous his treatment will seem to him to be; and as his groans grow deeper the demagogues and quacks will gather round him in greater and greater numbers. By himself he would perhaps not be hard to manage, but the desire of being "helped," and of having life made easier, is very contagious. As soon as out-door relief begins to be administered without much enquiry, it is always found that large numbers of people in comfortable circumstances are eager to get a share of whatever good things are being distributed among the paupers. So, also, whenever it appears likely that there is to be anything done by Government for the poor man who has nothing, it is usually found that a great many people who are not very poor, but would like to have their chance in the "grab-bag," are ready to back him up and declare that his condition is a reproach to our civilization; that he ought to have a loan from the Treasury without interest or security, or a farm, or a mule; and so we get a "greenback party" or "labor party," one-half of whom are not suffering at all and have their tongue in their cheek when not shouting.

A good deal can be done to restore the old spirit of common sense and self-reliance by better teaching in the public schools on the simpler points of public economy. It is surely a reproach to our system of education that any body of men knowing enough to draw a platform should be willing to declare, like the Massachusetts Nationals the other day, that the use of gold and silver as a standard of value was "idiotic," and call for the substitution of printed pieces of paper as something more stable. The more complicated and disputed economical problems it would be inexpedient or useless to make the children solve, but against all those errors which arise from not thinking things out every boy and girl ought to leave school thoroughly protected. The relations of labor and capital, and the function of money, are among the things about which people fall into delusions, in a large number of cases, simply because they have never worked over their phenomena with the aid of a friendly critic or objector, such as a teacher would be. Two-thirds of the visionaries who produced their plans before the Hewitt Committee were evidently suffering simply from the want of talk with some rational person, as was shown by the confusion which overtook them when Mr. Hewitt began to raise objections. Every boy ought to be familiar at school with the obstacles in the way of every plan of social regeneration produced by the Greenbackers and Labor Reformers within the past ten years, because the plans are all old or well known. Take the case of the exemption of the United States

bonds from taxation. This is a strong point now with all the Greenback demagogues, and makes an impression on their audiences which seems to indicate the absence of the most elementary knowledge about the nature of contracts, the conditions of public credit, and about the provisions of the United States Constitution with regard to taxation. But every boy and girl of twelve in the common schools ought to know all about the mode and terms on which a Government loan is made. So also the success of the "fiat-money" idea is due to total ignorance of the history of paper-money experiments, short and simple as it is, and also of the three reasons why mankind have clung to gold and silver as measures of value. The fault of most of the elementary books on political economy is that they attempt to cover too much ground, and a good deal of it disputed ground, which has no immediate bearing on politics. What is needed for the purposes of political safety is very clear and thorough drilling in early years about two or three things—the source of wages, the source of capital, and the relations of the Government to money. It will be a great pity if the present crisis passes away without originating some reform in this direction, and if this reform be prevented by any notion that the delusions now raging are going to disappear from our politics very soon, or ever disappear completely.

THE RAILWAY GRIEVANCE IN PENNSYLVANIA.

THE powers of railway corporations, and the manner in which these powers are exercised, seem to form an important issue in the political campaign now in progress in Pennsylvania. The present complaint is not a new one. It is simply the charge of discrimination between patrons which has for many years formed one of the staple accusations against railway officials all over the land. But at this time, in Pennsylvania, the charge is formidably backed and forcibly presented, and is quite defiantly admitted by the offending companies. Almost the entire "producing interest," as it is styled in the petroleum trade, has united in an organization for the purpose of securing justice and the protection of the State, through its courts and executive, against what is alleged to be an oppressive and unlawful combination between the railway companies and a single aggressive and powerful shipper in whose favor exclusive and destructive discriminations are avowedly made. The producing interest embraces directly from 5,000 to 7,000 persons—as owners or partial owners of wells—but its good or ill fortune affects all who are employed in connection with it, such as drillers and pumpers, and also a large mercantile interest engaged in furnishing provisions and supplies of all kinds to the employers and their men. It probably would not be extravagant to estimate the number of voters whose prosperity depends directly upon a profitable price for crude petroleum as possibly 20,000. This is a very dangerous number to be not only dissatisfied but well organized for the express purpose of removing through political measures the cause of their dissatisfaction. The counties in which this population chiefly resides are usually Republican, and it is unfortunate for that party that its most conspicuous manipulators or managers are known to maintain relations of marked friendliness with the railways, and to have last winter quietly defeated at their instance every measure urged upon the Legislature by the producers. Both parties are at present seeking to allay the justly incensed feeling which prevails throughout the oil counties. Each protests itself the only friend of the producers, and each attacks the other with great vehemence on platforms and in speeches. Promises of future protection are very abundant on both sides.

The production of petroleum has attracted many men of very marked ability who have achieved honorable successes in other walks of life, so that when a cause for action arises sufficiently great, there is no lack of competent advisers or capable leaders. The tendency of the business seems to be to segregate its followers, and to incline each man to keep as much to himself as possible. Organization for joint action is therefore a work of much difficulty, and requires not only a peculiar fitness for the task on the part of those who lead in such a movement, but also a provocation of really vital importance. The producers early this year formed a local association in each special district, and care was taken to exclude from membership all lukewarm parties. These local bodies finally so multiplied that a general congress of delegates from each was held, which, before adjournment, framed a plan for a Permanent General Council, the members of which were chosen by the smaller bodies. This central body, which has its headquarters at Titusville, has displayed remarkable prudence, great, well-directed, and well-organized activity. It has made few public utterances, but has done much quiet work, some of which has been already fruitful in results, and much of which has been merely preparatory or educational. All of its public appearances have been temperate, both in accusation and in demand. Its course has been remarkably free from anything emotional or spasmodic, and has been marked by that sort of steadfast, patient, and persistent purpose which the Anglo-Saxon, at his best, always displays in grave public emergencies. The Council have recently presented a formal appeal to Governor Hartranft asking his interference as the State executive in their behalf. They precede their memorial with extracts from the Bill of Rights and the Constitution, and then proceed with a clear and able presentment of their grievances. The charges and some of the sustaining evidence are presented in historical order, and the narrative, which is one of great injustice, constitutes altogether the most precise and effective indictment against the misuse of railways which has been yet offered to the country.

Governor Hartranft, with his usual prudence, has taken time and occasion to satisfy his mind upon the case presented, and has finally caused one decisive step to be taken: his attorney-general has applied for a writ of *quo warranto* against one of the corporations involved, which is to be shortly heard. He is not known to have as yet taken any steps against the trunk railways, which are the chief offenders. Some distrust his sincerity, and fear his activity may go only far enough to delude, and that after November it will drag or wholly cease. Those who are most familiar with his good judgment and honesty of purpose, however, entertain no such apprehensions. They are rather disposed to think that greater familiarity with this particular case and kindred cases will incline him to accept a prominent part in seeking and securing efficient and radical remedies. His recent course has undoubtedly done much towards rehabilitating the Republican party among producers, and may secure the election of Hoyt as his successor. On the other hand, the Democratic manager of the campaign has just delivered, in a recent speech, a strong declamation in behalf of the oil interest. The chiefs of the Producers' Council, however, are not men apt to be affected by mere words. It will be essential that the Democrats should evince their sincerity by some actual and serviceable deeds before the election. This may not be easy to do. It is quite possible, however, that the Democratic leaders may find some mode of accomplishing what they can hardly fail to view as a necessity, and that the result may be a complete overthrow for a time of Republican power in that State, including the defeat of Cameron for Senator.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—VII.

FRENCH PAINTING.

PARIS, August 29, 1878.

IT seems from the letters of your well-informed correspondent in 1876 that the display of French pictures at the Centennial Exhibition was very limited and very unequal. Some of the older painters were represented there, and some of the younger, but more of each group seem to have been either badly represented, or not at all, than were to be seen in their strength and abundance. For example, it appears that there were no canvases of Jean François Millet, Théodore Rousseau, Daubigny, Corot, Laurens, Meissonier, nor Baudry. I take the letter published by you in your issue of 28th September, 1876, in which your correspondent positively names these and others as wholly absent. Well! the exhibit was indeed inadequate. One may have as many critical reservations as he pleases to make from the meed of praise rather freely awarded in France to each of the above-named famous artists, and yet feel that French art needs them all to represent it truly, and that without a study of their works one may fall into serious errors with regard to it. There are, indeed, some of these celebrated names which are not on the catalogue of this present Exhibition of 1878; but what odds, when those who are not there are absent because in the Luxembourg or the Louvre, so to speak—that is, absent from the Exhibition because having produced their important works before 1867, and therefore housed in more permanent quarters than those of the Champ de Mars. There are no pictures in the Exhibition by Millet or Rousseau, but there are pictures of the first in the Louvre and in the Luxembourg, and of the second in the Louvre; and an exhibition of works of the modern masters is open in the Rue Laffitte, where are twenty Rousseaus and sixty-one

Millets! So that the French school need not put itself out of the way to show itself in Paris. It is very much to be regretted that there was not made for Philadelphia by the French the same effort that the English made so successfully, and that the public of the American cities who know Gérôme and Bouguereau a great deal better than they know the real masters of the school, should not have had a little lesson in modern French painting.

Ingres, whom your correspondent also names as not represented at Philadelphia, who died in 1867, and whose portrait of Rivière in the Louvre is dated the year XIII. of the Republic, would have been admitted rather as an old master than a contemporary into any such collection. Delaroche also, who died in 1856, would hardly have come into an exhibition of to-day as a contemporary. But it must not be assumed that these two artists are looked upon here as old-fashioned—as of the last age. There is, indeed, more nominal than real allegiance to these two *ci-devant* rulers in art; the stronger of the modern historical painters are certainly not followers of Delaroche; and in nearly everything in which Ingres was thought to succeed there are men of the present day who are his superiors—in truth of conception, in color and quality, in everything except, perhaps, drawing of the human figure, and perhaps in that as well. His hold on modern art and living artists, so far as it exists, may be accounted for by the comparative excellence of the work done late in his life. Perhaps one would choose his early or his very late work in preference to that of middle life; certainly, whatever may be the value of the strange and yet fascinating work of his early manhood, the merit of his work since 1850 is not to be denied. The famous picture, "La Source," of which an etching is in the *Gazette des Beaux Arts*, and which has been engraved and photographed abundantly, has only just now been bequeathed to the nation by the Countess Duchâtel. It has temporary quarters in one of those rooms, opening on the Colonnade of the Louvre, which are always undergoing "changes of destination"; there it and another (the Sphinx, of 1808) hang side by side, and opposite to a large picture by Hans Memling and two by Antonio Moro—all five the gift of the same lady. This picture, "La Source," bears date 1856, and the visitor asks if it is possible that it was painted by a man seventy-five years old; for it is not weaker nor more mannered than the earlier works of the artist, but, on the contrary, looks strong and sincere beside them. It is not, however, an important step toward what is best in modern French art. The development has been and still is in other directions. Decamps and Delacroix, who died in 1860 and 1863 respectively, are much more truly the masters of those men of to-day who excel in that which is the excellence of the French school—*tone*. Delacroix, a most uneven workman, is seen to great disadvantage in the smaller canvases, in such as have the air of studies, in such as are to be seen—thirty-three in number—in the gallery of the Rue Laffitte. The two or three largest and most finished pictures in the Louvre can alone give any adequate idea of the combination of qualities which makes the value of his work—the depth and intensity of color, the admirable use of stuffs and such accessories, the luminous shadows, the powerful drawing when the fates will have it so, for even in the best pictures there is bad drawing curiously mingled with what is true and impressive. With Decamps it is different; his works, of much more uniform merit, ought to be studied by every one. It happens, unfortunately, that there are very few now within reach of the student.

Now, there is a painter evidently not much known outside of a certain group of admirers here in France, for your well-informed Philadelphia correspondent does not think necessary to name him, as absent or present at Philadelphia, who seems to reach heights of excellence in this same direction of splendid painting beyond his day, beyond his contemporaries, beyond Ingres, because superior in the mastery of abstract color; inviting no comparison with any artist except in the one matter of *tone*, but in that one able to bear comparison with any of his time. J. J. Henner is an Alsatian, and is of this generation, for he took the *Prix de Rome* in 1858. Like many another able French artist, he absolutely declines all subject, and paints effects merely, if one may judge by his work in the Exhibition. There are ten paintings by him, all in one gallery, and most of them grouped together. The largest is "La Femme au Divan Noir," from the Salon of 1869, and is a life-size painting of a nude woman asleep on a black couch—asleep, and therefore free from the open eyes of invitation which make M. Lefebvre's lady on the red couch something else than a mere study of color and form; without flowers or jewels or any accessory or adornment whatever. Apparently the lady is surrounded by hangings as black as the sofa, for all the shaded surfaces of the body and limbs have sombre grey reflections; it does seem as if this were arranged purposely to increase the difficulty of the attempt to get beautiful color. The workmanship is curiously swift and broad, apparently careless, apparently hasty—hairs of the brush actually left sticking in the work; the color of the flesh seems to have been dragged, while wet, into the dark background, so totally without outline is the drawing when examined. The strange thing is the magnificent result, the warm and profound harmony of color, and the soft roundness of the body and limbs. Another picture, "Biblis changed into a Spring," is perhaps still more beautiful. In this the figure is much smaller, and is surrounded by a grey landscape. Right near it, on the same wall, hangs M. Garnier's "Favorite Sultana," and this is not a bad picture of the sort; but it is curious to compare them. The sultana is in open warm daylight, the glowing flesh is relieved against white and blue tiles and white drapery, and contrasted with splendid dark-red hair, and cool, distant shadows beyond. Biblis, in grey twilight, lies on greyish-green herbage, and so posed that much of the body is in deep shade. One picture is vivid to glance at, the other unusually sombre. But the Henner picture is a wonder of beauty and mellow warmth, the flesh is life-like, it comes into view from the half-light that surrounds it, the more lovely for its apparently retiring and sober gravity. To look first at one and then at the other is a valuable lesson in this matter of "quality" which the French artists seem to adore with rather too absolute a devotion.

Five of M. Henner's canvases are portraits. And it is precisely to such an artist as this, to a colorist, to a man who cares for his qualities and his tones, that one ought to go to have a portrait painted. Of what sort of consequence is a photographic "staring" likeness compared with beauty of result? But then a colorist does not need to "flatter" his sitter; he can invest his canvas with the necessary beauty without resorting to that vulgar device, and therefore has a chance to reach a real and profound rather than a merely superficial resemblance. One of these portraits is of a fair old lady, with the eyelids swollen and red as if with too-familiar tears. One is the head alone of a woman of fifty, of a complexion at once dark and pale; the head is modelled with strange-looking yellow brush-marks into a splendid thing as seen from four feet of distance. One is a lady standing, and seen to the knees, dressed for the street, with furs and an umbrella. Each one of these seems a model of what a portrait ought to be. It would be a curious subject of enquiry what M. Henner would do if he had splendid costume to deal with, not as a bit of archæology or as studio-properties, but as the daily wear of the men and women who want their portraits painted. It would be curious, too, to enquire what Paul Veronese would have done *without* splendid costume; would he also have eschewed all subjects and have painted effects alone? For in Veronese's works we do not feel that the religious ideal goes for much; splendid composition was his joy; he painted the "Supper at the House of Simon" as Makart paints his triumphal processions and the like—the most evident difference, apart from the vast artistic superiority of the Italian, lying in the fact that Veronese's models were his fellow-citizens in their own dresses of every-day or festival, while Makart's are models dressed in costumes they do not even wear to masquerades, but put on and take off in the studio.

It should be kept in mind how much more common it is in France than we are apt to think for an able painter to aim avowedly at producing splendid effects at whatever price. It might be said of a great school here that it uses the external aspects of nature as a storehouse whence to draw the beauties in which it delights, and that "subjects" are unknown to it. What of Corot, for instance? It is evident to any person who cares for natural beauty at all that Corot does not try to paint nature. To hear certain criticisms upon Corot, you would think that he tried to represent nature and failed from ignorance or carelessness, but there are elaborate and highly-finished drawings of his to be seen now, in Paris, which disprove both accusations at once. He never would have been a draughtsman of the first force, but he might have been a much more faithful and truthful one than some famous men of the naturalistic school, had he chosen. If his trees, with trunks and limbs not badly indicated, look for the rest as if certain green clouds that had been floating in space had fixed themselves there in half-condensed masses, it is because he chose not to represent trees, but to make use of their roundness and their color. His trees are less absurd than many of Claude's, and show far more observation. Claude, indeed, is the master to whom he may be compared. Here in the Exhibition there are ten pictures by Corot, all together on one single screen, and they are well chosen. There are eighty-eight, all together, in the gallery of the Rue Laffitte. If it could be done, how fine it would be to get together in this thoroughgoing way the works of an

ancient master—say of Claude—and judge of him by the mass of his works! Judged in this way, Claude would no doubt appear more versatile than Corot, and his work more varied, and one would have to admit that the extraordinary monotony of Corot's work, the almost unvarying sameness of its principal aim for years together, is, so far as it goes, a confession of inferiority on the part of the painter. But, picture for picture, the choice would not be so easy. Here at the Exhibition Nos. 200 and 201, both of the Salon of 1875, hang one above the other. They are pictures of medium size, oblong landscapes, the first with a cool evening sky, called "Biblis," from the same nymph that M. Henner has painted, and who is doubtless being changed into a stream in the corner; the second with a warm sunset and dancing figures. They have no figure-drawing, nor accurate tree-drawing, nor faithful representation of anything on earth or in heaven, except light color; but they are lovely pictures. Such art is narrow, if you like, limited, unintelligent; tried by any intellectual standard whatever, it is even nonsensical. The one only message which the painter has for mankind is just "I imagined this harmony of colors and forms—and then this—and then this." It is therefore hardly necessary to enumerate the different works of this master. The titles are nothing, for the subjects are nothing. One picture only may be named as very different from the rest, "The Belfry of Douay," a grave little architectural study of great beauty, but hung too high to be fairly compared with the artist's other work.

In this frank acceptance of the conditions of his art, and deliberate choice, Corot seems superior to Théodore Rousseau, who never is clearly of one mind. His most striking work is not nature, nor a fair and square attempt at nature, but neither is it deliberate refusal to paint nature and a resolve to paint splendid decorative panels instead. On the other hand, Rousseau is incomparably more many-sided, more forcible and full of thought. The trees and rocks may not satisfy the student of tree-form and rock-structure, but they compose wonderfully; and then, through rifts in the rocky walls come gleams of pale horizon, and between gloomy trees are seen pale bars of twilight sky, of really tragic effect. There is a six-foot picture in the Rue Laffitte gallery, belonging to Mr. Edwards, which is of peculiar force and dignity, but it is not equal to some of the smaller ones in the power of giving pleasure. The charm of some of these small Rousseaus is very near akin to dislike—they are too stinging, too intense. It is doubtful whether another generation will care greatly for any except the few which, by a sort of fortuitous combination of qualities, are actually beautiful as well as vigorous and intense. R. S.

Correspondence.

THE CROUCHING TENANTRY OF MASSACHUSETTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In referring to my recent article in the *North American Review* you ask what I mean by talking about "a crouching tenantry, toiling under absentee landlords" in Massachusetts. I am surprised at this question, and I think it tends to strengthen my position that the reformer is still needed. What I said about the land question and the condition of agriculture in Massachusetts is fully justified by facts which I find embodied in the second annual report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics for that State, which the *Nation* (No. 310) summarized as follows:

"The part of the report, however, which of all is, in our opinion, the most remarkable, is that relating to agriculture in Massachusetts. It may be summed up in two words: rapid decay. Increased nominal value of land, higher rents, fewer farms occupied by owners, diminished product, general decline of prosperity, a more ignorant population, increasing number of women employed at hard outdoor labor (surest sign of a declining civilization), and steady deterioration in the style of farming; these are the conditions described by a cumulative mass of evidence that is perfectly irresistible, and that is unfortunately only too strongly confirmed by such details of census statistics as have been so far made public."

A more particular answer to the question propounded by the *Nation* may be found in a very able article in the *North American Review* for October, 1859, from which I quote the following extract, in which the writer is dealing with agriculture in the "older States," and of course including New England:

"Our farms in older States, instead of being divided and sub-divided as they ought to be, are growing larger and more unwieldy. The tendency of the times is unquestionably towards immense estates, each with a manorial mansion in the centre, and a dependent tenantry crouching in the shadows."

This was written nearly twenty years ago, and I am sure no well-informed man will deny that the "tendency" here spoken of has been steadily on the increase. It would be easy to adduce other and kindred facts, but I deem it unnecessary.

Geo. W. Julian.

Irvington, September 9, 1878.

THE MEXICAN CALENDAR-STONE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Certain imputations having been brought against the undersigned in an article published on the 8th of August, in your paper, I have no doubt you will be so kind as to give space in your columns to the following lines, which contain my answer.

The writer introduces his article with the remark that in a lecture delivered, and afterwards printed, on the "Mexican Calendar-Stone," I was apparently mistaken in the assumption that I was the first after Gama in my interpretation of the monument, another gentleman, Mr. Chavero, of the Liceo Hidalgo of Mexico, so he continues, having published a pamphlet on the same subject as early as November, 1875. On a comparison made between the two pamphlets, the critic thinks he has detected that Mr. Chavero has "established in his discussion the same identical points" as I did in my lecture and pamphlet, and finds it "even singular and striking to what an extent the *cuaderno* of the Mexican scholar agrees, if not verbatim at least substantially, with Mr. Valentini's essay." By this statement, it is manifest to everybody who is able to read between the lines, an insinuation is formulated that I probably might have availed myself of Mr. Chavero's pamphlet, extracted the results which he has reached in his investigation, and brought them out before the public as if they had been the fruits of my own labor.

My answer, in brief, is as follows: It has happened more than once, in the history of scientific research, that two students, working independently of each other upon the same problem, have come to identical results and published them at the same epoch. The question of priority in invention or discovery being thereby raised, mutual agreement or public opinion, or even judicial intervention, must later determine upon whom the honor or the profit should be bestowed. Such is, however, not the exact form of the question that was suggested to the public. Though I concede that Mr. Chavero might have worked at the same time upon the same problem and published his results three years in advance of mine, I cannot concede that the gentleman, as was pretended, has given an interpretation of the Mexican monuments second to Gama, and prior to me; nor that the points which he has discussed in his essay, on the same subject, agree substantially with the points which I have established in my essay.

Should the question be followed up and the two essays be laid before an impartial judge conversant with the Spanish and the German, but not at all initiated into the meaning of Mexican hieroglyphics, he would come to the conclusion that Mr. Chavero from the *five* zones with which the monument is inscribed has only selected *two*, and made these two only a subject of his interpretation. He supposes a certain chronological account to be hidden in these two zones. He makes his calculation and gets a certain sum. He leaves the others out of his consideration. With great modesty, at the conclusion of the few pages dedicated to his discussion, he declares himself incompetent to solve the various riddles which, in addition, the monument apparently must still contain. Yet Mr. Chavero does not refer to any authentic source, nor does he afford any proof that he is correct in the interpretation of those symbols which enter into the above-mentioned account, and that these symbols should represent just that numerical value which he assigns to them. This preliminary evidence, according to the settled methods of conclusive demonstration, has not been afforded by Mr. Chavero. He, as was said, advanced a mere opinion on a few of the many subjects which start up before him who undertakes to interpret them. My interpretation is based upon conclusive evidences and goes over the *whole* ground of the monument. It embraces all the zones. It gives full evidence of the meaning of its multifarious details, and centres finally in the proof that the artist had the purpose of inscribing on it the symbols which the ancient Mexicans used for their very peculiar division of time, and that the last zone which girdles the monument contains a chronological record embracing the period from the year 1479 up to 231 A.D.

The main question, however, raised by the writer of the article is this. He finds it singular and striking to what an extent the *cuaderno* of Mr. Chavero agrees, if not verbatim at least substantially, with my essay. The impartial judge, of whom I spoke, will be puzzled at finding the grounds upon which this remark (I do not say imprudent or odious sugges-

tion) might be based. He rather will observe how widely I differ from Mr. Chavero just in those points which he had picked out for discussion. Mr. Chavero *supposes* an account to be hidden in the two zones. I *prove* an account to be hidden in all the five zones. Mr. Chavero reaches a sum in his account which looks so different from mine that even a school-boy would exclaim that it has as much resemblance to the other as a tiger to a rabbit. I leave further scrutiny to the impartial judge.

But at last there is, notwithstanding, one single point of identity between my statement and Mr. Chavero's. When giving the historical account of the monument, we both state that it was a sacrificial stone. Mr. Chavero found this statement in an author called Durán. I found it in another, called Tezozomoc. Both of us are guilty of having copied each a different author!

In the MS. which I am about to publish on the Calendar-Stone full credit is given to Mr. Chavero's studies. Should this gentleman himself feel injured or entitled to make charges against me, he will be his own and more competent champion than is the would-be critic of the article.

PH. VALENTINI.

ALBION, N. Y., August 31, 1878.

[We merely stated that Prof. Valentini erroneously supposed that, after Gama, no one had attempted an interpretation of the so-called "Calendar-Stone" at Mexico. His own words (page 14 of his 'Vortrag') are: "Until now Gama has been the first and only interpreter of this monument" (*Gama ist bis heute der erste und einzige Dolmetscher dieses Monumentes*). Knowing of Señor Chavero's investigations (which were published under date of November 1, 1875); knowing, also, that in his 'Calendário Azteca' that Mexican scholar attempted an interpretation of the stone, though in a manner different from that of Gama and of Prof. Valentini, we were certainly justified in the correction which we made upon the printed 'Vortrag,' and this quite apart from the value of Señor Chavero's interpretation.

Of the three attempts at explanation of the "Calendar-Stone," Gama's views must be abandoned, since they are based upon an erroneous conception of the nature of the monument. The two remaining authors have given us ingenious speculations; those of Prof. Valentini are, in point of sobriety, preferable to those of Chavero; but whether either of them will, finally, appear in the light of science as anything more than meritorious pastimes is yet far from being established. For ethnology and aboriginal history, we repeat, "the interpretations are the most immaterial parts of both papers." But, what is of very great value, and in regard to which we distinctly called attention to Señor Alfredo Chavero's labors, is the fact that the supposed gnomon is nothing but a stone of sacrifice—"la piedra del sol," the great and veritable "cuauhxicalli" of the ancient Mexicans. This discovery, which was mainly the result of a study of Durán's writings, Señor Chavero gave to the public two years and six months prior to Prof. Valentini. The latter somewhat indignantly asserts that his investigations are based upon the statements of Tezozomoc alone. We do not doubt it, but must remark that his knowledge of Tezozomoc's 'Crónica' appears to be very imperfect or superficial. His abstract from that author (on pp. 10 and 11 of the 'Vortrag') is an exceedingly incorrect version, coupled with fanciful and arbitrary accommodations. But, what is stranger yet, page 12 contains simply the essence of what Señor Chavero had already detailed on the second page of his 'Calendario Azteca,' including the Mexican scholar's important reference to that very Durán whom Prof. Valentini has *not* used for *his* investigations.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO. announce 'The Life of Albert Gallatin,' by Prof. Henry Adams, and Gallatin's Writings, in three volumes, edited by the same scholar.——John Wiley & Sons issue directly the concluding portion of vol. ii. of Weisbach's 'Mechanics of Engineering,' translated, by arrangement with the author, by Prof. A. Jay Du Bois, of Yale College.——Henry Holt & Co. have brought out a translation, by Mr. John Durand, of Taine's 'French Revolution,' of which we have already reviewed the original (*Nation*, No. 681). It makes a condensed but comely volume of 356 pages and moderate price.——Estes & Lauriat's fall announcements include 'The Home Book of Poetry,' illustrated; 'French Pictures,' one hundred wood and steel engravings, the text by Dr. Colange; 'The Early Coins of America,' with heliotype plates, by Sylvester S. Crosby; Alfred Rambaud's 'Popular History of Russia'; and, to be issued by subscription, Duruy's 'History of Rome'; Martin's 'Popular History of France'; 'Life Studies of the Great Army,' forty etchings by Edwin Forbes; 'Pioneers in the Settlement of America'; 'History of Middlesex County, Mass.,' by Samuel Adams Drake; and the 'History of Worcester County, Mass.,' by Rev. A. P. Marvin.——Charles Scribner's Sons will publish immediately in book-form the scathing series of articles in the *Fortnightly Review* on 'The Political Adventures of Lord Beaconsfield'; 'Recollections of Writers,' by Charles and Mary Cowden Clarke; Vol. I. of the New Testament (Matthew, Mark, and Luke) in the 'Speaker's Commentary'; 'Discussions of Questions in Church Polity,' being selections from the late Dr. Charles Hodge's contributions to the *Princeton Review*; and a popular edition of the third series of Froude's 'Short Studies on Great Subjects.'——Those who are curious to see how an empire can be cut in pieces without "partition," as Lord Beaconsfield understands that word, should procure the September number of the *Geographical Magazine* (John Wiley & Sons) A map is given, on a generous scale, "to illustrate the Treaty of Berlin." This is done very effectively by red and blue lines drawn across the face of Turkey, and by the aid of a few explanatory words, such as "independent principality," "autonomous province," "accession to Montenegro, etc.," "to be occupied by Austria," "annexed to Russia." Side maps show Russia's new territory in Asia Minor and the relation of Cyprus to the mainland.——The trustees of the Johns Hopkins University have published, in a pamphlet of 42 pages, extracts from lectures on Medical Education delivered before the university in 1877–78 by Surgeon John S. Billings, U.S.A., whose competence to speak on this subject will not be questioned.——From the Hampton (Va.) Institute Press we receive Nos. I. and III. of their sanitary tracts designed for circulation among all classes that stand in need of hygienic information or reminder. The object is a good one, and the plan a copy of the work done by the English Ladies' Sanitary Association. Mrs. M. F. Armstrong writes well of Preventable Diseases; Miss Helen W. Ludlow, having the colored people in mind, of the Health Laws of Moses, in which a little theology is not improperly mixed with exhortations to cleanliness, etc. These tracts are issued at four cents apiece by the hundred. ——The Art Students' League of this city reopens its classes on Monday, Sept. 30, with Mr. Wm. M. Chase as Professor of Drawing and Painting, Mr. Walter Shirlaw of Composition, and Mr. J. S. Hartley of Modelling. The League may be addressed at 108 Fifth Avenue.

—The eleventh annual report of the Trustees of the Peabody Museum of American Archæology and Ethnology equals, if it does not surpass, the preceding in interest and in value. Mr. Robert C. Winthrop's remarks at the first annual meeting, held in the new fire-proof building, put on record the circumstances attending the gift of Mr. Peabody. The curator's report gives an account of the removal and some hint of the richness of the collections. A long list of valuable accessions is appended. Dr. Charles C. Abbott continues his discussion of the palæolithic implements from the glacial drift near Trenton, N. J. There are also illustrated papers by Mr. Paul Schumacher, on the modes of manufacture of sundry articles by the former Indians of Southern California; by Dr. Edward Palmer, on cave-dwellings in Utah; and by John H. Blake, on a collection from a Peruvian cemetery, including several mummies, of which figures are given. The curator, Mr. F. W. Putnam, describes in separate papers the Indian manufacture of soap-stone pots in New England, and some fruitful researches of his own last summer in Tennessee among the mounds and graves of the so-called Stone-Grave aborigines of that region. His conclusions and those of his assistant, Mr. Lucien Carr, who has studied their crania, are, negatively, that this copper-using people never met the white man, and cannot be connected with the Natchez, Chickasaws, or Choctaws. From the illustrations it is evident that they had a good deal of artistic feeling, and some of the forms of their pottery would bear imitating to-day. The *pièce de résistance* of the report is Mr. A. F. Bandelier's paper on the distribution and tenure of lands, and the customs with respect to inheritance, among the ancient Mexicans. If, from the nature of the case, it can have but few readers, the learning evinced in it makes it certain that Mr. Bandelier will have but few critics. He finds that the aboriginal Mexicans had no notion of abstract ownership of the soil; that the right

of possession resided in the kinships without thought of alienation ; that individuals might use but not own the land ; that ownership pertained to no office ; that official lands were set apart for the support of the official households, but independently of them; that conquest was not followed by annexation but by the exaction of tribute from definite tracts ; and, consequently, that the principle and institution of feudality did not exist among them.

—"The visitor to Paris in 1878," writes a correspondent from London, "who was also a visitor to Paris in 1867, cannot but be struck by the difference of tone in the programmes presented for his consideration by the theatres of Paris at the two epochs. That form of theatrical entertainment which seemed so abundantly and so accurately to reflect the folly and the extravagance of the Imperial days, opéra-bouffe, is now wholly invisible to those who have accepted the invitation of the Republic. During my stay of four weeks in Paris not a single opéra-bouffe appeared on the bills of any Paris theatre. 'Orphée,' it is true, was revived at the Gaieté as a spectacular piece a few days after I left. The Palais Royal and the Variétées were playing vaudevilles. The Bouffes was closed. At the Renaissance the successful 'Petit Duc' of MM. Meilhac and Halévy, the authors of the 'Grande Duchesse' and of the 'Belle Hélène,' is avowedly an opéra-comique, and M. Lecoq's music is altogether within the limits set by Auber and Hérold ; and at the Folies-Dramatiques the even more successful 'Cloches de Corneville' has, as we know in New York, far more of the characteristics of the opéra-comique than of its extravagant younger sister. Whether this change, this real reform, is due to the advent of the Republic and of a consequent austerity of manners or not, it is welcome ; and, although the 'Timbale d'Argent' and a few other outrageous indecencies have come into existence since the fall of the Empire, it does seem as though the play-going Parisian public had experienced a change of heart. And, strange to say, when the visitor crosses the Channel he finds something of the same sort in England. Ten years ago most of the theatres in London were given up to loud sensation. Now the most exciting drama to be seen anywhere is the ubiquitous 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' in its new phase, with imported Jubilee singers and banjoists, fresh, I fancy, from New York. The merely sensational play has not wholly disappeared—it satisfies a certain portion of the theatre-going public too well to vanish utterly—but it has sunk to the subordinate position which it deserves. The most successful theatres in London are those aiming at the proper all-round presentation of comedy, and taking as their model the Gymnase or the Vaudeville of Paris. And from out of the empty and vapid burlesques—of which but one is now running—has been developed a genuine English comic opera, neither opéra-bouffe nor opéra-comique ; the spirit of bouffe is foreign to English ways and almost equally strange, I fear, is the romantic grace of opéra-comique. The repertory of this new comic opera is not as yet very large, but as the practicability of the school has been shown its growth is assured. Some years ago Mr. Arthur Sullivan composed music for 'Box and Cox,' a rearrangement by Mr. Burnand of the familiar farce ; but in his setting of Mr. W. S. Gilbert's very amusing and genuinely comic 'Trial by Jury' I think I see the first of the series. The success of this warranted both librettist and composer in aiming a little higher, and from one act they attempted two in the 'Sorcerer,' and again in 'H.M.S. *Pinafore*,' now acting at the Opéra Comique. Other composers, notably Mr. Clay and Mr. Cellier, have followed in the footsteps of Mr. Sullivan, but they have hardly been as fortunate in their librettists. 'Trial by Jury' was a masterpiece as a book for a comic opera in one act, and 'H.M.S. *Pinafore;* or, The Lass that Loved a Sailor,' is nearly as good. The foundation of the plot is to found in one of the dramatist's 'Bab Ballads'—in 'Captain Reece, of the *Mantelpiece*,' if I mistake not. Mr. Sullivan's ambition, which leads him to compose oratorios and symphonies, does not prevent him from doing his best in the light and lively music of this little play, which is full of taking airs. But the success of the joint production is due even more to the dramatist, who has contrived a story simple and at the same time humorous and well fitted for musical treatment."

—No. 103 of the German pamphlets upon *Zeit- und Streitfragen* (questions of the day for discussion) is devoted to the "modern rage for monuments," and, while intended for a serious essay upon art, has its comic side. To judge, says the writer, from the passion for commemorating its distinguished men, the present generation, and especially the Germans, might be regarded as the most reverentially disposed of any people on record. Whether this is or not the principal motive of the gentlemen who display such wonderful activity in getting up monument committees, issuing begging circulars, collecting subscriptions, and organizing competitive exhibitions, it is evident from their gross ignorance of æsthetic conditions and the real wants of modern art that they are not animated by any very high conceptions in the latter respect. In fact, Dr. Schasler seems to think that modern art is quite too business-like in character. What did they know, he indignantly exclaims, in the times of Raphael and Phidias of art-unions and art-exhibitions, of artists' congresses, and especially of those cyclic itinerant exhibitions of associated artists of which there are in Germany more than one hundred, and which have become mere nurseries of mediocrity and factory-work ? All respect for day-labor which is conducted artistically, but not for art which proceeds on the basis of day-labor! Then follows a lamentation over chromos and other means of popularizing art. True, there have never been so many art-collections set on foot, so many splendid museums established; but while the most tasteless ballets and spectacles at the theatres, the breakneck feats of the circus, the puppets at a wax-show draw the people in crowds, in the art-galleries we find a few tourists with Baedeker in their hands, a few copying art-students, some loungers and elderly ladies, but only scattered individuals who study with real interest the works of the great masters. Whence, then, this feverish desire for monuments ? The motive, it is to be feared, lies in national vanity, or even lower considerations of business, as illustrated by a sarcastic poem of Heine's congratulating the Jews of Frankfort that a statue of Goethe is about to draw an increase of traffic to the city. Equestrian statues, it is remarked, are reserved for princes, while lesser humanity, even where men like Blücher and Ziethen have won their fame as cavalry generals, must be content with standing figures. The relative advantages of sculpture and painting for realistic and ideal representation are discussed, as also the vexed question of antique and contemporary costume. The vexatious conditions imposed upon artists by committees come in for their share of objurgation. Thus the character of the work, whether bust or statue, is not determined by the nature of the subject, as a general, orator, etc., on the one hand, or poet, musician, or man of science on the other, but by financial considerations. "As only a limited amount of money has been received, the committee is obliged to be satisfied with a bust"; or, again, "as there are over 30,000 dollars available, a full statue with a pedestal is indispensable." Schaper's statue of Goethe is praised, but subjected to the criticism that the head stands at a height of some thirty-six feet ; and, in order to see it, one must retire to a distance of at least one hundred and fifty feet, which necessitates, if one would distinguish the features, certainly of some importance in this case, the use of a very good opera-glass. If you approach nearer, you can study the figures on the pedestal, but of Goethe himself you can see only the knee-breeches, stockings, and buckled shoes. Now, are these appendages of the great poet of such extraordinary interest to humanity that they should receive such great prominence to the detriment of the noble head ?

—The practical conclusion from this great flourish of trumpets is a little disappointing. From the principles of art, the practice of antiquity, and the nature of materials, our author infers that monuments should take the form of semi-circular halls of columns, or else of paralleled walls, in which the bust or figure of the hero should be surrounded by reliefs setting forth his achievements, or by extracts and pregnant sentences from his writings, and that these monuments should by no means be set up in the marts and busy places of the city, but be withdrawn to regions where running waters, bosky thickets, and groups of trees produce a more appreciative condition of the mind. We can imagine the German intellect finding material for several folio volumes in the discussion of the tenets in this short essay.

—Several important works relating to Italian popular poetry have recently appeared. Two are of the nature of general essays ; the others are collections of the poetry itself. The most valuable of the two first-mentioned works is Professor Alessandro D'Ancona's 'La poesia popolare italiana' (Leghorn. 1878). D'Ancona, who has long been known as an authority in everything relating to the popular literature of his country, devotes the first part of his work to a careful historical survey of Italian popular poetry in its various forms, and establishes the fact of the existence of two schools or classes, one purely popular, the other more artificial and literary. The first runs back to the earliest period in the literary history of Italy ; the second is not more than three or four hundred years old. The author then shows the substantial unity of the popular poetry of the whole country, and proves conclusively that it is Sicilian in its origin, the more popular class being transmitted orally at an early date, the artificial one by means of printed or MS. collections. The former spread over Italy after remaining long enough in Tuscany to

acquire the form of that dialect; the latter class was probably translated at Naples into the common language of Italy, and in turn became also popular. Both classes have frequently mingled. D'Ancona regards the tetrastich as the type of the *strambotto* or *rispetto*. In Sicily a second tetrastich was added to the first, in Tuscany the first assumed the refrain, and in North Italy the original type is found in its simplicity. The *stornello* is of Tuscan origin, and was originally a distich, which afterwards assumed an introductory half-line, and finally a third full line. These are a few of the results of D'Ancona's investigations into a new and fascinating field of study. The second work alluded to is Ermolao Rubieri's 'Storia della poesia popolare italiana' (Florence. 1877). In the first part the writer considers Italian popular poetry extrinsically in its types, forms, origins, and phases, in the second in its psychological, and in the third in its moral character. The first part contains some results independently reached by D'Ancona. There is much valuable information in Rubieri's handsome book, but it is buried under a mass of irrelevant details, and the whole work is wanting in a critical method.

—The collections referred to are those of Ive and Guastella. The first, 'Canti popolari istriani, raccolti a Rovigno' (Turin, 1877), forms the fifth volume of the 'Canti e Racconti del popolo italiano,' edited by D. Comparetti and Professor D'Ancona (Turin. 1870–1877. 6 vols.) The editor has prefixed an essay on the phonology of the dialect of Rovigno, and followed in his work the method adopted by the editors of the other volumes of this series. The parallel versions from other parts of Italy give the clearest proof of the unity of Italian popular poetry. Among the wide range of subjects, one of the most interesting is that of *canzoni* and *romanze*, containing nineteen ballads, which, with few exceptions, are versions of those already published by Bernoni, Wolf, Dal Medico, and Marcoaldi. The class of narrative poetry is confined to Northern Italy, and is sparsely represented even there, so that any additions are welcome. The other collection, although not so recent, may not have fallen in the way of our readers who are interested in the subject. It is entitled 'Canti popolari del circondario di Modica,' and was compiled by S. A. Guastella (Modica. 1876). The collection contains one hundred and sixty-seven poems in the Sicilian dialect (*strambotti* and *stornelli*), with an introduction on the pronunciation and grammar of the subdialects of the former county of Modica. Of more general interest is an essay on the customs of the county, containing much that will interest the student of popular customs and usages. An exhaustive review of this portion of the work, by F. Liebrecht, will be found in the *Zeitschrift für romanische Philologie*, vol. i. p. 434–442. We may mention here an interesting study by the same author, entitled 'L'Antico Carnevale della Contea di Modica' (Modica, 1877), in which he has brought together all the old customs formerly connected with the observance of the carnival.

STANLEY'S 'THROUGH THE DARK CONTINENT.'*

MR. STANLEY'S remarkable record of the greatest feat of exploration of recent times falls naturally into the two main divisions indicated in his title and preserved in his maps; and although his lake journeys occupied nearly twice the time of his descent of the Congo, but a small portion of the second volume is reserved for the circumnavigation of Tanganika, so that here, too, "lake" and "river" practically define the two parts of the narrative. Mr. Stanley's prefatory summary of the discoveries of his predecessors in this field, from Burton and Speke to Cameron, is a proper reminder of the continuity of African exploration during the past twenty years. This is, however, brought still more vividly to mind by his employment of Zanzibar men who had served Speke and Livingstone, and himself on his former expedition, as well as by his meeting with Mtesa, the powerful ruler of Uganda, on the north shore of Victoria Nyanza—"the man whom Speke had beheld as a boy, and who was described by him through about two hundred pages of his book as a vain, foolish, peevish, headstrong youth and a murderous despot." In this monarch, and in Mr. Stanley's stay at his court and camp, by far the greatest interest of the first volume centres. It is hard to say whether he was more of a hindrance or a help to his guest, for whom, as for all white men, he affected the most ardent liking, and whom he certainly entertained with royal liberality. To Mr. Stanley's appearance in the rôle of a missionary he made so little objection that he speedily announced himself a convert, abjured the Koran, and devoured an epitome of the Scriptures which the indefatigable explorer found time to prepare for him in the midst of the naval campaign against the rebellious Wavuma, and in the intervals of devising for his savage friend a sort of monitor by which the war was speedily ended. When they took final leave of each other, Mtesa had just begun the erection of a Christian church. Mr. Stanley does not deceive himself as to the value of this conversion, but he judges, perhaps rightly, that he laid a good foundation for future missionary endeavor, provided it is not confined to religious exhortation but is accompanied by substantial instruction in the arts of civilization. The approaches to Uganda by way of Egypt are comparatively easy and safe, though M. Linant de Bellefonds, who arrived at Mtesa's just after Stanley, was, on returning from a subsequent visit, overcome by marauding tribes.

Mtesa's subjects are estimated by Stanley at 2,775,000. The mode of calculation may not satisfy Herren Behm and Wagner, but the reader cannot fail to be impressed by the description of the forces mustered by land and by sea for the subjugation of the Wavuma. "First with his legion came Mkwenda, who guards the frontier between the Katonga valley and Willimiesi against the Wanyoro." His command might be "roughly numbered at 30,000 warriors and camp-followers, and though the path yesterday was a mere goat-track, the rush of this legion on the half-trot soon crushed out a broad avenue." So the Homeric tale goes on until 250,000 are reckoned. "The Uganda war fleet numbered 325 large and small canoes, out of which only 230 might be said to be really effective for war." To man these last required 8,600 men; and, adding the warriors to the crews, Mr. Stanley concludes that "Mtesa can float a force of from 16,000 to 20,000 on Lake Victoria for purposes of war." When one takes into consideration the thousand miles of shore of this noble body of water, with its numerous islands and large population, one gets an idea of a canoe fleet which recalls the palmy days of the South Seas, but which the Congo can perhaps surpass, as the expedition found to its cost.

The chief incident between Stanley's departure from Uganda and his arrival at Ujiji was his penetrating to Beatrice Gulf on what he supposed to be the Albert Nyanza, but which turns out to be an independent and probably larger sheet, with unknown outlet and connections, called the Muta Nzigé. The temptation to coast around this, too, as around the Victoria, was strong, but the tribes were too hostile, and a more important task lay beyond. On his way southward to Tanganika he explored part of the Alexandra Nile, connecting the Alexandra Nyanza with Lake Victoria, and therefore one of the Nile sources which has yet to be worked out. At Karagwé he was hospitably entertained by King Rumanika, an old friend of Speke and Grant. Still later he encountered the guerilla chieftain Mirambo, who had been a terror to him on his first expedition, but whose person now "quite captivated me, for he was a thorough African *gentleman* in appearance, very different from my conception of the terrible bandit who had struck his telling blows at native chiefs and Arabs with all the rapidity of a Frederic the Great environed by foes." With him Stanley went through the ceremony of blood-brotherhood, so potent among even the cruellest tribes of equatorial Africa.

Lake Tanganika was reached on the 27th of May, 1876, the departure from Bagamoyo having taken place November 17, 1874. Even at Ujiji there were traces of a rise in the lake since his last visit. "I observed," says Stanley, "that three palm-trees, which had stood in the market-place of Ujiji in November, 1871, were now about 100 feet in the lake, and that the sand beach over which Livingstone and I took our morning walks was over 200 feet in the lake." The circumnavigation afterwards achieved, for the first time, confirmed this change of level, and Mr. Stanley was convinced that the lower half of the lake was originally distinct from the upper, which was joined to it by some great cataclysm; while his exploration of the Lukuga, which Cameron thought to be certainly the lake's outlet, showed that a rise of a few feet more would make it so, and that the Tanganika may yet within the experience of the present generation drain into the Congo.

The Lualaba at Nyangwé was reached October 27, 1876. On the 28th of December, after parting with an Arab escort whose endurance had not been proof against the tremendous hardships of travel along the densely wooded banks in the Uregga country, Stanley committed himself and his devoted band to the great stream itself, not without misgivings which were soon to be justified. We despair by any art of our own of painting in a few words the trials of this unprecedented voyage. From beginning to end it was a gauntlet, in which, with a few breathing-spells, the alternative was to fight or to starve—or to be drowned. They tasted of all these bitternesses. Fearing to travel by night because of cataracts, they more than once had to choose between death by this mode and at the

* 'Through the Dark Continent; or, The Sources of the Nile around the Great Lakes of Equatorial Africa, and down the Livingstone River to the Atlantic Ocean. By Henry M. Stanley.' With 10 maps and 150 woodcuts. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. 522, 566. New York: Harper & Bros. 1878.

hands of cannibals who frequent the falls as fishers, and who forbade a landing. For hundreds of miles the sound of war-drums in the thickets of mainland and islands accompanied their progress as if one incessant alarum, while at every stage from either side of the river the advance was blocked or flanked by war-canoes, and sometimes, as at the assumed mouth of the Welle, these naval encounters were as formidable as those on Lake Victoria. The spear and the poisoned arrow of their foes were suddenly succeeded by fire-arms; and when, after their last battle, the expedition encountered amiable and friendly tribes, there was still a climax of misery, for those near the mouth of the river were destitute of humanity, and would not save the expedition from perishing of hunger by accepting their currency of cloth, beads, and wire in exchange for food. How the rapids were descended and the cataracts circumvented, with what loss of boats and of precious lives, including the last of the three white companions with whom Stanley had set out from Bagamoyo; how timely relief from Boma gave strength to reach the confines of civilization; how in the reaction of complete rest and full living many succumbed who had endured on the march the terrific strain upon mind and body—cannot be retold here. If Mr. Stanley's nerve, foresight, judgment, tact, constancy, and powers of discipline and leadership were ever admirable they were so in the last twelve months of his thousand days of travel. When to the immense care which devolved upon him in snatching 115 lives from the perils of the mighty river, we add his attention to those scientific observations which made the passage something more than a mere foolhardy adventure, it is impossible not to regard him as one of the extraordinary men of our time.

Did space permit, we might indulge indefinitely in extracts from this intensely interesting work. Mr. Stanley's descriptions of the aborigines are chiefly incidental, but in chapter xv. of volume i. he expatiates at some length, and very agreeably, on life and manners in Uganda. The people here are well clothed in a brown bark cloth of their own manufacture; their houses and courts are well built of thatch; their spears are perhaps the best in Africa. They have carved stools, a tray for native backgammon, earthen and wicker ware; the banana furnishes them food, drink, table-cloths, wrapping paper, fence materials, sponges, cord, shields, hats, even canoes. They have a large variety of musical instruments, including drums, banjos, horns, flutes, and guitars. They often draw upon the ground to help out an oral description. West of Tanganika, in Uregga, the habitations are even finer, with shelves for fuel and netting for crockery; there are shapely spoons, water-cane settees, curved benches and carved stools; skull-caps of goat or monkey or even leopard skin. Their smithies produce as artistic articles as those on the eastern watershed—hammers, axes, war-hatchets, spears, knives, swords, wire, iron balls and beads, armlets, leglets, etc. Though cannibals, the Waregga not less than the Waganda feel the need of a backgammon tray. Among the tribe called the Wavinza copper abounds and is worked up. The Baswa of the Stanley Cataracts are again excellent smiths, adding anvils and fish-hooks to the more usual wrought work. Their knives have "sheaths of wood covered with goatskin, and ornamented with polished iron bands." Iron bells, curiously carved whistles, wooden idols, palm baskets, and clay pipes are also made by them. The Wenya, at the lower end of the same falls (seventh cataract), had square wooden chests for their treasure of beads and shells; their paddles were beautifully made of a mahogany-like wood; large and shapely earthen jars were common in their houses, for holding palm-butter; ivory they had in quantity beyond their use, and war-horns and pestles were got from it. In the manufacture of ivory and iron the inhabitants of the mouth of the Welle surpassed all the other tribes met with on the Congo, while they were equally conspicuous for their wood-carving—"great and small idols, stools of ingenious pattern, double benches, walking-staffs, paddles, flutes, grain-mortars, mallets, drums, clubs, troughs, scoops and canoe-balers, paddles, porridge spoons, etc."—and for their pottery. Rubber was occasionally met with, once as the balls of drum-sticks. All along the river, at short intervals, in the clearings were market-places having fixed days for the exchange of goods by the tribes living opposite each other.

But we must break off, forbearing even to speak of the scenery, so singular on Tanganika, so varied and grand on the Congo, where between two cataracts in the main stream one may see on either hand tributary streams of no mean size emptying themselves over precipices hundreds of feet in height. From this pleasant theme, on which it would be safe to expand, inasmuch as many of the views are based on photographs, we turn with reluctance to notice the accusations brought against Mr. Stanley because of certain conflicts with the natives on Lake Victoria—a subject we have already considered on occasion of Colonel Yule's protest. There can be no question that the present account of these occurrences differs from that of the contemporary letters to the *Daily Telegraph* and *Herald*, and gives them an aspect quite favorable to the narrator. Moreover, it is easier to lend faith to the hasty newspaper despatch (for a truthful report of *animus* at least) than to the cooler diary, or to the cold narrative before us. On this particular head, therefore, we still think that Mr. Stanley must be judged by himself, and that he cannot probably escape censure; but to one who regards his entire course and his principle of action towards the savage peoples whom he met with, the rare instances in which he may have let the spirit of revenge for injuries wantonly inflicted get the better of him will leave no lasting stain on his character. We are impressed here, as in his 'How I Found Livingstone,' with his humane regard for inferior beings, and with his uniform attempt to deal with them as if they recognized the same standards and were actuated by the same motives with himself. If it be objected to this that no European has survived to contradict his record of what took place, we answer that his very success is proof of a general adherence to the policy of abstaining from violence, or the show of it, when it could be avoided; of paying for what he received, and of purchasing the right of way when exacted. His fulfilment of his promise to accompany his followers back to Zanzibar is another manifestation of the same trait—we do not hesitate to say, a touching manifestation. Finally, if further evidence of his truthfulness is wanted, we point to the unmistakable naïveté of his narration; and for a sample of this, in conjunction with a (for him) unusual degree of literary art, we would cite the account of the degraded people of Uhombo on pp. 75–77 of volume ii. We think no one can read it without being convinced of the genuineness of the feeling expressed, and that, in what concerns his attitude towards the negro, Mr. Stanley is a worthy disciple of the lamented Livingstone.

PRIMARY INSTRUCTION AND APPRENTICESHIP IN FRANCE.*

IN France it is estimated that the question of apprenticeship and primary instruction interests two millions of families, representing five millions of children. There has been a school of manual instruction in actual operation in the Rue Tournefort in Paris for several years, and M. Salicis, who has been actively engaged in presenting its claims and forwarding its interests, now submits a brief summary of the reasons for his faith that this is the system needed to supplement existing schemes of education. He cites the authoritative opinion of the school authorities of Paris, that professional and technical training is perfectly compatible with primary instruction, and he acknowledges the compliment of a request from the Chamber of Commerce of Crefeld, one of the busy manufacturing towns of the Rhine, for leave to translate into German his account of the methods and results of the school in the Rue Tournefort; he has also the satisfaction of adducing the report made to the Chamber of Deputies in favor of a law to provide manual schools for apprentices, in which the three years' experience of his school is used to justify the belief that at a small expense the same system could be extended to the secondary schools throughout France.

The events of 1870 have given birth in France to a new world of ideas on education, and the municipal governments are anxious to secure a voice and share in the control of the schools, instead of leaving them, as of old, to be worked as part and parcel of the great centralized system, in which all impulse came from Paris and the one condition of existence was perfect uniformity. Local self-government is gradually gaining a foothold, and special schools are being established to give instruction in subjects of local interest. Besançon has its school of instruction in watchmaking, Brest for sailors' orphans in training for the navy, Havre for wood-working, Mulhouse for cotton machinery, Lyons for silk-weaving, while Paris, Châlons, Aix, and Angers all have schools of arts and trades for the training of good foremen and advanced workmen. The boy of good family in France starts at six and goes regularly through his boarding-school and his college up to sixteen or eighteen, ready then to begin his professional studies in law, medicine, engineering, or whatever other career he may choose; and there are technical schools in every branch and of a high degree of excellence, which give all the special training needed, while the faithful adhesion to hereditary pursuits and the steady practice of patronage, or at least reciprocity in advancing the children of friendly families, make the business of gaining a livelihood comparatively safe

* 'Enseignement Primaire et Apprentissage. Par G. Salicis.' 2ème edition. Paris Librairie Sandoz et Fischbacher. 1878. 12mo, pp. 190.

and certain for the better classes. But workingmen see a very different career for their children: the *crèche* for the babes, the *asile* for the children at three years of age, where they are cared for during the day, taught to play, to sing, to spell, and to count—the real primary school of the little Parisians who have been fortunate enough to come under the protection supplied by the late Mme. Pape-Carpentier or Mme. Juillerat—then the public school where the children are admitted at six or seven and leave at twelve or thirteen, to go to work at whatever trade or pursuit opens to them its slender resources.

In Paris the primary schools consist usually of classes of 130 or more, under a perfectly uniform method of instruction, with little or no opportunity of adapting the lessons either to the scholar's capacity or to any previous elementary training he may have got, and working away from nine till four in the same dull round of simple, prescribed books. In the country, matters are not much better, for the one teacher has to treat all his pupils alike, and as in some districts, notably Brittany, not one in a hundred can read or speak French; the Catechism (Breton on one page, French on the other) has to serve as a bridge between the maternal tongue and the national language prescribed by law. With such training, of course, there is small fitness for work of any high order of excellence, and it is the boys who come from such schools who supply the shoemakers and tailors, the hairdressers and confectioners, the cooks and waiters—all those whose first business in life is to get a livelihood. At twenty this immense proportion of the population is expected to furnish all working trades with good journeymen, although there is practically no apprenticeship, no technical training, no help in the choice of a trade. At thirty the clever and industrious have made headway, and then they wonder why, ten years too late, they are admitted to technical schools that ought to have been open to them at the outset. In Paris there ought to be provision for the training of fifty thousand apprentices, and there are not even schools enough to put the school population on a footing with that of Germany; there 17 5-10 per cent. of the inhabitants go to school, while in France, by the same ratio, there ought to be 3,700 schools where there are now only 300. In the United States, again, there are 7,000,000 scholars, with 200,000 teachers, an average of thirty-five pupils for each. To equal this, Paris should have 10,000 teachers instead of its present 1,200. Out of its school population of 200,000, 120,000 only are provided with school facilities. France has 4,000,000 children who must earn their own livelihood at an early age by hard work, and yet from three to thirteen hardly any of them are taught anything that can possibly be of use to them. Indeed, what they do learn merely gives them a hearty dislike of work: the boys want to be clerks, the girls to be shop-women. There is no reason why a boy of twelve should not learn the elements of mechanics just as easily as anything else, nor why a girl at the same age should not be taught the useful arts that adorn and often support a household.

Such was the belief of those who sought and obtained from the municipal council a grant of a thousand dollars to the school in the Rue Tournefort; and this being eked out by gifts of tools and models, a system of technical instruction was begun. It aims to fit school-children of twelve and thirteen to enter a workshop or a trade, three years later, with some knowledge of the business. The principal employments are for art-workers, modellers, sculptors, etc.; wood-turners, carpenters, cabinet-makers, etc.; metal-workers, locksmiths, blacksmiths, tool-makers; and for all of these there is a year of common instruction in drawing, free-hand and sketching from models in relief, modelling in clay, etc., followed by a system adapted to the special calling of the different classes into which the pupils are divided. The school has been in operation eighteen months and has earned one-quarter of its annual outlay by the proceeds of the handiwork of its pupils. In Havre an apprentices' school of the same kind has earned enough to supply its pupils with their meals free of charge; while both there and in the Rue Tournefort it is believed that with successive classes there will be still greater saving on the present annual cost of thirty dollars a year, excluding rent or interest of premises and of special constructions, but including the proportion of salaries, purchases, machinery, models, and the earnings of the pupils, which average ten dollars apiece. With the growth of schools there would be a saving in salaries of technical instructors, for then they would be constantly employed in teaching, and the pupils would produce proportionately more. M. Salicis thinks that four hundred thousand dollars ought to procure Paris ten schools for boys and as many more for girls, each with fifty apprentices at least. In three years these would turn out six thousand trained apprentices, in ten years sixty thousand workmen and women, with all the advantages of sound education, moral and technical, added to the clever originality of the Parisian ouvrier and ouvrière; and if the same system was applied in the country, France would be filled with agriculturists and vine-dressers and fruit-growers, who would bring scientific and technical knowledge to the industry that has already saved the country from bankruptcy and converted its resources into a national loan outstripping the imagination of early days.

A Book of Musical Anecdote from every Available Source. By Frederick Crowest, author of 'The Great Tone Poets.' In two volumes. (London: Richard Bentley & Son. 1878).—In his two volumes Mr. Crowest has collected no less than five hundred and nine anecdotes relating to composers, singers, and instrumentalists. The stories are old and new, good, bad, and indifferent; and the book, as a whole, neither much better nor much worse than a random collection of the kind is apt to be. The chief difficulty with such a book is that the common tie of interest or association among the stories is a very loose one, and Mr. Crowest has not succeeded altogether in correcting this defect. Many of his anecdotes might better have been left out; some are flat, and in many cases, when a number of them relate to one person, they are not of such a nature as to throw valuable light on his life or character. For example, we have looked through the index to find the anecdotes which relate to two well-known musical characters, Paganini and Moscheles. Both were musicians in their different ways of very wide reputation, and there is in existence plenty of material out of which to draw for anecdote. Moscheles is mentioned in vol. i. in five places, and in vol. ii. in half a dozen more. The allusions in vol. i. do not count for much, for they are merely incidental. It is in the second volume, which includes the portion of the work given up to instrumentalists, that most of the anecdotes properly relating to him are collected, and they are certainly a poor substitute for the delightful volume of memoirs from which they appear to have been taken. Mr. Crowest has spoiled many of his anecdotes (one of these among the number) by reflections of a moral and inappropriate nature, and has also been at the unnecessary pains of finding five hundred and nine descriptive titles for them, few of which are of a sort to whet the appetite of the reader. One of the Moscheles anecdotes gives an amusing account of how that composer, by a happy device, prevented a close neighbor from making his evening miserable by strumming Weber's "Invitation à la Valse" on a piano. Introducing himself as having been "allured" into paying a visit by his neighbor's playing, he declares that he too has studied the "Invitation," and asks whether his host will allow him to play it for him. He sits down and rattles it off in the wildest manner at a tearing pace, introducing double octaves at frequent intervals to increase the effect. These musical pyrotechnics fill the beginner with despair, and he sighs his regret at the impossibility of his ever learning to play in such a way. Moscheles assures him that by hard work he may accomplish it, and bids him good-night, having secured his object, a quiet evening; for the neighbor, despairing of equalling the brilliant playing he has heard, abandons his piano for the time. It would seem as if reflections on this story might be spared. But Mr. Crowest does not feel that his duty to the reader has been performed until he has recorded the following observations: "But how about the poor student? Did Moscheles' severity damp or destroy the man's aspirations? It might have done so; whereas a few words of sound advice and encouragement would have been a stronger revenge for the unintentional affront, and at all events would have been a little act of generosity, none the less noble because trivial." Of Paganini, as of Moscheles, there are a number of anecdotes, some of them entertaining, but on the whole not presenting as good an idea of the violinist as we have seen within a year or two in a back magazine article.

On the other hand, there are in Mr. Crowest's two volumes many amusing stories, and some collections of curious and instructive musical facts, as, for instance, those (vol. i. p. 188) relating to musical plagiarism or imitation, which suggest some interesting questions with relation to musical copyright. Should a composer have copyright in an air, which is a mere combination of notes arranged in a particular order, when a variation of key and time without any change in the notes or their order will change its whole character? Mr. Crowest mentions a popular song which he says is merely Mendelssohn's "Hear my Prayer" travestied "in minor key and triple time." The same thing frequently occurs in orchestral music. Thomas's orchestra at the Central Park Garden used frequently to play as a march an air which was really a simple German love-song—its character completely altered by a change of time. Instances might easily be multiplied. Non-musical juries would in these cases be apt to fly at once to the conclusion that a gross act of plagiarism

had been committed ; while people who had a musical education would often find it hard to decide whether there was not sufficient originality in the change to justify it. When we come to airs which merely "remind us" of other airs, we become involved in still more difficult problems.

Among Mr. Crowest's stories we find several old friends and many new acquaintances. He records again Swift's inimitable "Mantua væ miseræ nimium vicina Cremonæ," the quotation applied by him to a lady whose train had swept a violin to its destruction ; and Sheridan's never-to-be-forgotten shop-sign suggested by Michael Kelly's going into the wine-business : "Michael Kelly, composer of wine and importer of music." Some of the best stories are those told at the expense of unmusical people, as, for instance, No. 422 (there are a whole family of anecdotes like it), in which the rich and miserly old gentleman who is giving his friends a musical entertainment is greatly disgusted at the violin solo, and enquires what the rest of the band are doing. He is told that it is a *pizzicato* on one instrument ; on which he directs the trumpets to *pizzicato* too. A story not strictly musical is that of a lady more familiar with the interior of a theatre than with that of a church, who, on entering St. Pancras' to hear a popular clergyman preach, and being struck with the size of the congregation, exclaims, "Good heavens ! what a house !—if it's all money." The possibility of churches being filled, as theatres sometimes are, with "paper" is an idea which we have never seen suggested before. As a contribution to the discussion which raged a year or two ago on the subject of the relation existing between the piano-manufacturers and performers, the story of the ingenious composer who managed his business so well as to get a new piano as a gift from a prince who compassionated his poverty, securing at the same time the "usual commission" from the makers on the ground that the prince's purchase had been made on his "recommendation," is as good as anything in the book.

Alcohol and the State : A Discussion of the Problem of Law as applied to the Liquor Traffic. By Robert C. Pitman, LL.D., Associate Justice of the Superior Court of Massachusetts. (New York : National Temperance Society and Publication House. 1877.)—Judge Pitman divides his book into two parts, the first of which he calls "Alcohol *vs.* the State," the second "The State *vs.* Alcohol." In the first of them he shows that if Alcohol and the State are left to fight out their battle by themselves, alcohol gets the best of it ; that it injures the public health, breeds pauperism and crime, vitiates the human stock, and is the "universal ally of evil" and the "universal antagonist of good." There is no doubt that much of what is contained in this first part is perfectly true, though the author pushes his point so extravagantly as to deprive his argument of a great deal of its force. It would not be difficult without taking any greater license with reason and logic than Judge Pitman frequently does to advance it a step further—to the point of absurdity. There can be no question, for instance, that idleness, of which he says (p. 45) intemperance is the main cause, is itself, in its relation to intemperance, quite as much a cause as an effect. That is, if idleness could be stopped altogether nine-tenths of drinking would cease also. Hence, it might be said to be the duty of the State to interfere with lazy people and compel them to use their time well. It is to no purpose to reply that a man has the right to be idle ; he has not the right to do anything which endangers the well-being of the State. So of luxury in dress, it would be impossible to estimate the misery and crime caused by the passion of women for dress. It forces the men on whom they are dependent for support to waste their lives, and frequently to imperil their souls, for the mere gratification of feminine vanity. If the fraudulent trustees and defaulting bank presidents whose first misstep could be traced to a desire to gratify their wives' passion for dress could be counted, we fear the ghastly array would throw out into startling relief the immorality of the milliner's occupation. Neither Judge Pitman nor anybody else proposes to prohibit Worth from plying his trade ; but his language is so extravagant, and his argument pushed so far, that the necessity of some such prohibition might be without great difficulty deduced from what he puts forward as his premises, by a process at least analogous to reasoning. He not only attributes to the liquor traffic a capital agency in causing poverty, idleness, and a vitiation of the stock ; but (p. 46) he discovers in it the cause of boys running away from the public schools, and declares (pp. 63, 66, 67) that it threatens to destroy the very existence of the Sabbath, of the schools, of the Church, and finally of the State itself. More than this, he discovers a metaphysical potency in the traffic which threatens the fundamental relation of cause and effect, for he declares (p. 79) that it is itself the cause of drinking.

In the second part of the book he shows that the law is the only agency which can curb the evil ; that licensing laws have always proved a failure ; that prohibition is a success ; that it keeps down the traffic, promotes temperance, and increases general prosperity. The statistics in the case of Maine are arrayed in proof of this, but we must say that they seem to us to prove very little. Maine is a thinly settled State with no very large cities, and under such circumstances the law is, of course, more easily enforced than elsewhere. A great deal of what Judge Pitman says, however, as to license laws we have no doubt is true. The facts about licensing and prohibition are, we believe, these : that with the general want of training and sense of responsibility of our State and city officials no license law is enforced, while when public opinion on the subject becomes so strong as to demand some enforcement of the law, the prohibitory law which in those cases gets itself upon the statute-books works to a great extent like a really effective license law. In other words, we get a real license system by what is called a prohibitory system. The fact that in large cities the license system does not work at all was not long ago illustrated in New York. Probably in this city, if the traffic were absolutely prohibited and a premium put upon the suppression of it, the result would be the extinction of a certain class of objectionable venders and the carrying on of the trade in respectable quarters—as, for instance, at hotels—secretly. Of course a prohibitory law in New York is impossible.

We would examine Judge Pitman's statistics with care did they seem to us of much value. We are perfectly willing to concede that the law may be enforced, and may have a beneficial effect. So may sumptuary laws ; but they are objectionable for all that. The picture, too, drawn of the State of Maine before the law, in which we are called upon to grasp the horrid thought of a community solely engaged in the conversion of the primeval forest into New-England rum, the rum being all "drunk on the premises," is too shocking for contemplation. We have no doubt Maine is a virtuous State now, though some of her politicians are said to be bad men ; but could she ever have been as bad as Judge Pitman makes her out, even in the bad old times before the law ?

Goethe. By A. Hayward. [Foreign Classics for English Readers.] (Philadelphia : J. B. Lippincott & Co.)—There was room for a new English biography of Goethe. The work of Lewes, even in its revised and abridged form, is open to grave criticism, chiefly by reason of its tone, at once adulatory and apologetic. The German works by Viehoff, Schaefer, and Goedeke are too often dry and unattractive in style, and Grimm's 'Lectures,' by far the ablest contribution, is more in the nature of an essay or disquisition than of a biographical narrative. We looked for the appearance of the promised biography by Hayward, therefore, with much interest. To declare, without further qualification, that our hopes have been rudely disappointed would do injustice, perhaps, to the author. We must credit him with honest intentions, careful research, and clearness of statement ; and by virtue of these qualities he has succeeded in producing a readable book, which will doubtless commend itself to the ordinary reader as a fair sample of what a concise popular biography ought to be. Still, these qualities alone do not make up a biographer, least of all the biographer of a world-genius like Goethe. Whoever presumes to write his life should be familiar with all his writings, both great and small; should be completely at home in the wide field of Goethe-literature; should understand the poet in all his relations to Germany and to Europe in general; should sympathize with him, should comprehend him in his many-sidedness. These qualifications are each and all wanting in Mr. Hayward. He has attempted to describe for us a great man—nay, one of the greatest men that ever lived—by giving us, so to speak, his dimensions in feet and inches, the color of his eyes and hair, his weight in pounds avoirdupois.

We need cite only one defect to make his error of method palpable. There are in the book two hundred and twenty-two pages. Of these, one hundred and thirty-one are taken up with Goethe's life before removing to Weimar. In other words, much more than one-half is assigned to the first twenty-five years, and the remaining fifty-seven years, rich in everything that can make life attractive, are treated as a mere after-thought. As for Mr. Hayward's ability to comprehend Goethe in his relations to his times, one has only to contrast the chapter headed, "The Italian Journey, etc.," with the corresponding sections in Grimm's 'Vorlesungen.' To every reader endowed with a sympathetic soul the contrast will be almost painful. We have neither the space nor the inclination to follow Mr. Hayward through his dry analysis of Goethe's writings, and to rectify his judgments one by one. Suffice it to say that they are all conceived in the spirit of forty years

ago. The efforts of men like Grimm, Düntzer, Schaefer, Bernays, Carriere, Von Loeper, have evidently made no impression upon Mr. Hayward's mind. To him Goethe is somebody to differ from, to attack, to find fault with ; somebody who somehow had greatness thrust upon him without truly deserving it. He has never pondered the saying of Chateaubriand, that it is useless to struggle against the yoke imposed upon us by creative genius. Instead of accepting Goethe as he was and making the most of him, Mr. Hayward is ever bent upon convincing us that Goethe ought to have acted or written differently. Such treatment of the founder of modern German literature is unpardonable : it shows that the biographer is unable to rise to the height of his theme. Of course, where this requisite is wanting, its absence cannot be atoned for by mere accuracy in the use of names, dates, and facts. The life of Goethe is not a mere almanac ; it is a stirring and fruitful epoch in the growth of a great nation. One might apply to Mr. Hayward Mephisto's sneer :

"Er hat die Theile in seiner Hand,
Fehlt leider nur das geistige Band "

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Continued from page iii.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 26, 1878.

The Week.

MR. SHERMAN has explained that remarkable interview of his with the editor of the Washington *Sunday Republic*. It appears that the report was substantially correct, except that the Secretary did not agree with the editor in his opinions about an "interconvertible bond," and instead of saying that the national-bank notes ought to be and would be legislated out of existence, what he said was, "that if the choice be made between the greenbacks and the bank-notes, he was in favor of the greenbacks, but he thought both ought to be maintained in circulation at par with each other and with coin." Moreover, he did not "revise" the report, nor "change" it. It was read to him, and, though "colored," was "in the main correct so far as it went." The Secretary says, too, that the editors malign him shockingly. Instead of being opposed to anything, he is, it would appear, in favor of almost everything, provided it is kept "at par." He does not care how many kinds of money there are, or how much of it, if it is kept at par, and he thinks that he can keep anything at par, if you give him time and have confidence in his inner counsels. In fact, if any of the parties now in the field think they are going to "antagonize" him they are greatly mistaken. No organization is strong enough to keep him from agreeing with it.

The Massachusetts Republican Convention last week did no uncertain work. Its nominations were made without dissent and will unite all the elements of the party which are not irretrievably lost to Butler in a strong effort for success. Its platform is definite, direct, and uncompromising in all its declarations. It "rejoices in the prospect of speedy resumption," and its demand that "all paper currency shall be redeemable in coin at the will of the holder, and that both coin and currency shall be kept at all times at par with the gold standard of the commercial world" has become a watch-word of sound finance, has been adopted by the Connecticut Republicans, and is to be fought for at Saratoga. It resolves that those who are teaching that Massachusetts society is made up of hostile classes are "public enemies," and denounces Butler as an "open repudiator." It is noticeable that the civil-service plank, which is of the strongest, is removed from the endorsement of the President and his Administration, which shows that, while commending "his purposes and integrity," and supporting his financial and Southern policies, Massachusetts Republicanism is not willing to accept his as a sufficient civil-service reform. Altogether, the conduct of the Convention was, to a remarkable degree, dignified, honest, and deserving of respect, and is the best indication we have yet had of the reserved strength of Massachusetts against such an enemy as Butler.

On the other hand there have been some remarkable conversions wrought by the present panic in the Republican ranks, of which perhaps the most striking is that of Mr. Eugene Hale, whose "two months' education," to use his own words, have filled him with a wisdom he never knew before. There was a time when Mr. Hale wished the Republicans "to father the greenback," but now he is unhesitating in his declaration of the impossibility of carrying on the Republican campaign upon any other than a hard-money basis. Doubtless it is a political perception that in the greenback heresy the Democrats can outbid the Republicans, rather than an increase of economic knowledge, which has led Mr. Hale to these conclusions, but however brought about, it seems to grow clearer each day that the Republican party is slowly being transformed into a hard-money party as the Democrats are melting away into the Greenbackers.

As we go to press it is undecided whether the Tammany or the anti-Tammany wing of the Democratic party is to control the Convention at Syracuse, though within the past few weeks the probability of Tammany's being able to make use of the occasion to strengthen its hold upon the machine throughout the State has appeared to be declining. To persons who are not politicians, and merely desire good government in the city and State, the Convention presents several interesting problems. On one side there is John Kelly, the present Boss, who now governs the city and last year captured the State ticket and the State Committee. On the other side there is Governor Robinson, a strong partisan, but an efficient and honest governor, who represents the "reform" movement of a few years ago, which took the canals and prisons out of politics and put Mr. Tilden at the head of the party in this State. On one side, again, there is the United Democracy of this city, which consists of anti-Tammany factions of all sorts, with leaders of the most diverse political and moral complexion, from Edward Cooper and Oswald Ottendorfer, representing that part of Tammany Hall which recently rebelled against Kelly, to "Jimmy" O'Brien and other malcontents who have had claims of one kind and another upon the public for some years, and have had no means of prosecuting them since the Tweed period, although they have certainly presented them whenever an opportunity has been furnished by a municipal election. Joined with these, and making use of them for his own purposes, is undoubtedly Mr. Samuel J. Tilden, to whose fertile brain we suppose may be attributed the invention of a very ingenious political device—the "enrolment" of the United Democrats in opposition to Tammany. The Greenbackers have, we believe, held aloof from both sides, with the intention of compelling both to bid for their vote, and they appear to have succeeded in producing in the anti-Tammany press an ominous silence on the financial question. The Convention has to nominate a judge of the Court of Appeals and to express itself upon Governor Robinson's administration. The two factions have, by common consent, joined issue on this point, and an endorsement of the Governor would accordingly mean a Tilden and anti-Tammany victory, while the reverse would mean the triumph of Kelly. The union of the warring factions in this city against the latter is a most formidable combination, and if Kelly beats it he will practically have the city in his hands as long as he pleases. If he is beaten, his downfall will point the useful moral, which we have never failed to insist upon in these columns, that a man elevated to the high position of Boss ought always to try to be a good Boss; and that the "one-man" power, though it may be temporarily triumphant, can never be permanently so if "the people" do not like it.

Ex-Senator Carpenter has learned a lesson of Butler, and has had circulated a petition, which he is said to have revised, asking him to become a candidate for the United States Senate. It has received several thousand signatures, and now Mr. Carpenter publishes a letter of acceptance expressing his pleasure, and setting forth the duty of each citizen to hold office when called upon to do so, as much as to pay taxes. A day or two later he said he hoped to succeed unless the Nationals should hold the balance of power in the Legislature, in which case there would be some doubt. This remark alone should prevent his election, without any need of reference to his past sins, for it shows his willingness to compromise with the Nationals, since he knows that he cannot hope for an election at their hands unless he pledges himself to their financial views; on the other hand this should ruin his chances with all the Republicans, if, at any rate, their platform means anything. Carpenter, however, is not alone in his longing remembrance of the loaves and fishes of Washington in Grant's day. Ex-Secretary Robeson is anxious once more to subject his character to the glare of public life, and has obtained the regular nomination for Congress from New Jersey.

He remarks, very truly, in his acceptance that "the Republican party has been the meat and drink of his political life," and he comes forward now "to vindicate the administration of Grant." Godlove Orth, too, who had to give up running for the governorship of Indiana because of his connection with corrupt claims against Venezuela, is a candidate for Congress with fair chances of success. The character of these men and their like was one of the main causes of the recent defeats of the Republican party, and their return to public life is not only an ill-omened sign for that party but is a serious comment on the political morality of the constituencies which they represent.

Some little time ago twenty-one citizens of Cincinnati, of both parties, remembering the electoral frauds there two years ago, which resulted in sending a Democrat to Congress and some of his supporters to jail, petitioned the United States Circuit Court to appoint, as it is by law commanded to do upon proper application, supervisors of elections. The Court proceeded without hesitation to discharge its duty, and called to council several leading politicians of both parties, that its appointment might be intelligent and satisfactory. Everything went on smoothly, it appears, until Senator Thurman's "man" appeared in the court-room, after consultation with whom the Democrats, through Judge Hoadly, receded, and stated that the law was unconstitutional, and the past action, principles, and dignity of their party would not allow them to recognize it, or to aid in such an unwarranted interference with State sovereignty. Later, Judge Hoadly argued before the Court that the act of appointment called for was not judicial, and asked the Court to refuse to perform it, according to well-known principles. The Court ruled that the appointment was a judicial act and constitutional, and a separate question from the character of the powers thus devolved upon the appointee. Cincinnati is, therefore, to have a better chance for a fair election than for some time past, and it is not improbable that this fact may mean the return of a Republican to Congress. The concern of the Democrats for the sanctity of the Constitution would meet with more respect were it not that these frauds usually operate in their favor. Meanwhile, the churlishness of Senator Thurman in refusing his aid toward a fair election will not lend any new lustre to his rapidly waning reputation.

One of the disgraceful scenes of the week has been the license allowed a wretched demagogue at Washington, named Cohen, who, at the head of a rabble mostly composed of negroes, went about making inflammatory speeches and compelling all laborers who were getting less than $1 50 a day to quit work. He had previously had the honor of an interview with the Secretary of the Treasury, accompanied by a portion of his followers; and, while the steps of the public buildings were left free to him as a forum, the police were reinforced and troops held in readiness for the threatened attacks on public and private property. By and by it was discovered that a simple police order was sufficient authority for suppressing the nuisance, a few arrests were made, the gang quickly dispersed, and Cohen humbly promised to hold his peace.

The yellow fever appears to have passed its worst, and although latest advices bring news of its fresh increase, it is believed that this is only temporary and will cease with the present unfavorable weather. There is no decrease, however, in the suffering and misery, and effort for relief should be more vigorous and not lessened. The business stagnation, the lack of work, the demoralizing effect of pestilence in destroying ordinary motives to industry, remain, and will not cease to affect the people for many weeks. The public press has recently given its attention mainly to the scientific and medical aspects of the disease, and has been calling loudly for a more thorough and official examination of it; and it is a strange comment on our humanity that, with such abundant opportunity to study the disease, so little is known of it.

The outbreak of the Cheyenne Indians, who have broken away from the Fort Reno Agency and are trying to join Sitting Bull's forces in the north, is the result of the same disgraceful conduct on our part as was shown toward the Bannocks. General Sheridan says that "insufficient food and irregularity in delivering it," together with jealousy of privileges granted to neighboring tribes but withheld from themselves, are the general causes of the Indians' dissatisfaction. Lieut.-Col. Lewis reports that some of the Cheyennes had been forced to eat the flesh of horses who had died from disease. Under these circumstances decent people will feel more sympathy than hostility toward the tribe, and will not wonder at the present exhibition of their primitive ferocity in murder and rapine on their northward course. They have defeated two companies of cavalry sent against them, and are now entrenched and fighting on Sand Creek in Kansas, whither all the available United States troops are being hurried from the Departments of the Missouri and the Platte.

The threatened reopening of the Eastern Question depressed British consols $\frac{3}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$, and left the London market at the close of the week in an apprehensive condition. Except for this, the financial markets were dull and sluggish. United States bonds continue to return from Europe; but it is becoming difficult to get them, so largely has the stock there been reduced by shipments to this country since the silver legislation of last winter. The sales of the 4 per cents here have fallen off somewhat, although they continue large. No further orders have been issued this week by the Treasury respecting silver dollars, and the bulk of the $12,000,000 coined is warehoused in the Treasury. The price of silver bullion has stood at $51\frac{1}{2}d.$ to $51\frac{5}{16}d.$ per ounce in London, and the bullion value of each of the dollars has ranged between $0.87001 and $0.8739 gold. Rates in the money market continue to rule very low, and from the low time-loan rates it is inferred that lenders do not expect to get above 5 per cent. any time this year. The Bank of England continues to gain specie, but the actual discount in London is no lower. General trade in the United States is fairly good, notwithstanding the damage done to it directly and indirectly by the yellow fever.

The result of the election in Canada was a victory quite unexpected, at least in its magnitude, for the Opposition. The Government had a majority of sixty in the last Parliament; the Opposition will have at least the same majority in the next. The Protection cry did something, though chiefly in the cities and in Upper Canada. Commercial depression, which begets a general desire for change, probably did more. A good deal was due also to the sheer unpopularity of the Government and its principal supporters. It came in with loud professions of reform which it is held to have belied. The stratagem by which, on the eve of the elections, it captured the local government of Quebec, with all the patronage and influence pertaining to it, was a deathblow to its pretensions of purity. There is a general feeling of satisfaction, even among non-partisans, at its departure. Sir John Macdonald, the leader of the Opposition, and now Premier elect, has lost his own election at Kingston, owing no doubt to local causes. He will of course be provided with a seat somewhere else.

The Austrians have made solid progress during the week, and in the extreme west, east, and south have been both active and victorious. General Jovanovich, by the capture of Klobuk, a stronghold on the border of Montenegro, completed the overthrow of the Herzegovinian insurgents. On Thursday General Zach compelled the surrender of the citadel of Bihatch. The combined movement against Zvornik began on Saturday, after the preliminary work of reducing the fortified places along the Save had been successfully accomplished, in spite of stubborn resistance. On the extreme left General Budich took possession of Bielina; General Szapáry, further south, of Tuzla, besides dislodging the enemy at the Mayevitza Hills, on the road to Bielina; the next southern column, of Olovo; and, finally, the force sent out from Serayevo defeated a formidable

body of entrenched insurgents and regulars near Senkovitz. This advance of the line presses the enemy heavily back upon the Servian frontier, and their collapse is evidently close at hand. It is doubtful if the rumors of an Austrian alliance with Servia and Montenegro for the campaign had any foundation whatever; and the need of one has certainly now passed away.

The Russians have left the neighborhood of Constantinople, and Turkey has surrendered Batum and has politely agreed to settle the new line of frontier with Montenegro, so that there appears to be no important part of the Treaty of Berlin now left unexecuted, except the concession to Greece, about which the Turks refuse to say anything further until they hear from the Powers in reply to Safvet Pasha's memorandum; but France, at least, is again reported to have distinctly intimated to the Porte that, in case of hostilities, maritime operations against Greece will not be permitted. Lord Beaconsfield's wonderful story in the House of Lords about the American missionaries in Turkey having joined in a memorial to the German Emperor at the outbreak of the war, telling him that the improvement in the condition of the Christian subjects of the Porte had, within their knowledge, been "most remarkable"; that "the regard for life and property was now most striking"; and that "education was largely pursued and toleration almost complete," and that "these changes could only be effected by the Sultan himself," turns out to be as unsubstantial as the 'Tale of Alroy.' One of the missionaries writes to the London *Times*, on his own behalf and that of others, to say that no such document was ever written or sent, and that his lordship's statement has brought them into discredit with the Christian population of Turkey, and has led to their being accused of falsehood by the leading Armenian paper, the *Masis*, and of hypocrisy in telling one story about the condition of the Christians in their own Armenian paper, the *Avedaper*, and another in the Memorandum. So they express in mild terms the wish that Lord Beaconsfield would be more accurate and let them alone.

The news received in England from Afghanistan is in many ways alarming. The Amir has definitively and firmly refused to allow the Chamberlain embassy to enter his territory, and displayed force enough to defend the entrance of the Khyber Pass; so it has returned to Peshawur. As in the meantime the Russian mission is quietly installed at Cabul the inference is strong that he is acting under Russian influence, and that prompt measures must be taken by the Indian Government to satisfy him that he has made a mistake in refusing the British alliance. Nothing has been heard of his long-imprisoned and able son, Yakub Khan, and it is supposed either that he has not been released or has been broken down by his father's cruelty, so that the hopes entertained in India of his being declared the Amir's heir and restored to office are greatly weakened or destroyed. It is now most probable, if the Beaconsfield Ministry adhere to their policy, that a heavy force will be sent to occupy Afghanistan and seize Herat, a course which a strong party of Indian and English politicians have been advocating for years as the best mode of meeting Russian aggression. Already it is announced that dispositions of troops have been made with a view to immediate invasion, if necessary. Herat is a centre on which all the great roads both from Hindostan, Persia, and Central Asia converge; whoever holds it commands all approaches to India from the northward except the impracticable passes over the mountains. It is a position of enormous natural strength, and is surrounded by earthworks on a vast scale, thrown up in prehistoric times, and with finishing touches from European engineers it would be impregnable. If Russia were to get hold of it, it would become an admirable base for an attack on India; in British hands it would make an attack on India impossible. Both Powers have been hankering after it for forty years; it remains to be seen now whether the British will boldly seize it and convert the Amir into a tributary prince, with a Resident at his court. The diplomatic operations of the Russians and the defiant attitude of the Amir under their influence show that they, at least, do not consider the Eastern Question settled by the Treaty of Berlin.

The accounts from the cotton districts in England describe a state of things that has grown gloomier since the failure of the late strike, and there is no prospect as yet of improvement. The ten per cent. reduction of wages has not mended matters. Foreign competition, particularly that of the United States and Switzerland, continues as formidable as ever, and the price of cotton does not show any sign of helping matters by declining. Both manufacturers and workingmen are puzzled and troubled, and the crisis threatens to assume national importance. The only point on which there seems to be general agreement is, that the manufacturers have, innocently or not, done much to bring it on, by the recklessness with which mills have been multiplied during the last ten years of prosperity, and that it will probably end in the total loss of a great deal of capital, and the transfer of a great deal more to other industries. But no such transfer can take place without great suffering and commercial disorder. In fact, a more unfortunate period to enter on a theatrical and costly foreign policy has not occurred in England within the present century.

The cotton crisis is almost equally serious in France, and a series of letters on the causes of the depression, which have appeared in the *Temps* and have attracted a good deal of attention, offer the only explanation which will fit the phenomena in the various countries now suffering from it, and that is a "break in the equilibrium between agricultural production and industrial production." "During the last half century," to use the words of one French writer, "we have occupied ourselves too much with providing the means of clothing, lodging, warming, and carrying and amusing people who live in cities." There has been, in other words, an enormous drift of capital and population into the business of clothing and transportation, so that the farming portion of the community, which is, after all, the great consumer of the world and the great provider of food, has fallen behindhand, and there will be no revival of business until the balance is restored. This hypothesis accounts for the wide prevalence of the industrial depression; neither the tariff nor the currency does so, because the free-trade and protectionist countries and the hard and soft-money countries are involved in the same trouble, though of course in each one special secondary causes have produced special aggravations.

The political situation in France is not as easy as it has been. The Conservatives, who have been much disturbed by the peacefulness of the summer, the success of the Exposition, and of the army organization, have been spreading the report, by way of creating uneasiness, that Marshal MacMahon would shortly resign. At the same time the "Clericals" have begun to display once more somewhat unpleasant activity. One of their organizations, which is intended more particularly to restore the working-classes to the Church, the *Œuvre des Cercles Catholiques*, has been having a pilgrimage to Chartres, and at a meeting there the well-known religious orator, the Comte de Mun, denounced modern society and deplored the oppression of the workingmen by the capitalists in terms almost worthy of Karl Marx. This mode of winning the masses has naturally exasperated the Republicans, and M. Gambetta, in a speech at Romans, delivered an impassioned tirade against the Clericals, calling for the prohibition of the bestowal of priests' orders on any man who has not served his term in the army. The extreme wing of the Radicals, to whom Gambetta is a mealy-mouthed trimmer, have been holding banquets in celebration of the proclamation of the first Republic, at two of which Louis Blanc and Naquet, both members of the Assembly, made violent harangues, calling for the suppression of the Presidency and the Senate, and the cessation of all votes of money for ecclesiastical purposes. This, of course, furnishes excellent material to the Monarchists, who will have it that the Reds are sure to get the better of Gambetta and bring back the Terror.

THE GOVERNMENT AS A BANK.

THERE is no doubt that the plan of having the Government assume the duties of a bank of issue, by supplying greenbacks enough to take the place of the bank-bills now in circulation and to meet the future needs of the country, is cherished by a great many people who are not repudiationists and have no sympathy whatever with repudiation. They are not in favor of "fiat" or "absolute" money, or of irredeemable paper or leather or rubber money, and see clearly the force of all the arguments against these. It is they who make the Greenback movement really formidable and give it any chance of success, and they cannot be disposed of by denunciation or by any imputation of motives. They find that for eighteen years the Government notes have performed the functions of money throughout the whole country with an efficiency which in most States the old bank-notes never displayed; that, in fact, the former have proved in most States the safest and most convenient currency for daily use the people have ever had. Side by side with this, they find bank-paper in circulation which owes its acceptability almost wholly to the Government guarantee, which is given in return for the deposit by the banks of bonds on which the Government pays interest. They therefore ask, and with a good deal of plausibility, Why, if we need an amount of currency equal to both the greenbacks and the bank-bills, does not the Government issue enough greenbacks to take the place of the bank-bills, and thus supply the "wants of trade" and at the same time save the interest on the bonds? Besides, what difference is there in principle, they ask, between issuing all the paper money we need and being responsible for its final redemption? The Government has to see that the banks pay their bills; why, then, be troubled with the banks at all?

On this it has to be observed, in the first place, that the national banks were, when established during the war, really a device for disposing of a considerable amount of Government bonds for which in those days it was not easy to find a market. It was substantially a proposal to the capitalists of the country that if they would buy bonds they should have the privilege of issuing paper money with a Government guarantee. The bonds so bought by the banks, and now deposited by them with the Government as security, do not, however, differ in any respect from the rest of the interest-bearing debt. They are not bonds issued by the Government to oblige the banks, and without a valuable consideration; they are part and parcel of the Government debt, issued in the regular way and for value received. In paying interest on them the Government is not paying interest on nothing; it is paying interest on a loan the proceeds of which went into the Treasury, and which is just as sacred as any other portion of the public liabilities. On this point there is a wide-spread popular misconception which the Greenback agitators are careful to uphold. It is probably no exaggeration to say that eight out of every ten Greenbackers are possessed by the belief, more or less vague, that the bonds on which the national-bank bills are "based" were issued by the Government simply to help the banks, and that, therefore, all that is needed to extinguish them and save the interest on them is to withdraw from the banks the privilege of issuing currency. The fact is, however, that the bonds were bought by the banks in open market or taken at first-hand in one of the regular loans, and that their only peculiarity is that they are required by the Act to be registered before deposit. Abolishing the banks would, therefore, bring the Government no honest saving. It would not extinguish any portion of the public debt or diminish the amount of interest on it. The bonds now on deposit would be returned to the banks and by them sold in the market, and they would then continue to draw interest until paid all the same. Of course the Government might issue greenbacks to pay them off; but this, for reasons which we need not reproduce here, would be a form of repudiation, and we are not now arguing with repudiators. We are arguing with those who think it would be economical and wise to convert the United States Treasury into a vast bank of issue, redeeming its notes on demand.

It has to be observed, in the second place, that such a bank could not be conducted any more economically than, or so economically as, a private bank of a similar character. Government could not issue redeemable notes without any expense, as many greenbackers fancy, by merely "basing them on the entire wealth of the country." It would have to follow the bankers' rule of keeping a reserve of coin amounting to one-third, at least, of the notes in circulation; that is to say, if the Government issued $300,000,000 of paper, redeemable on demand, it would have to keep at least $100,000,000 of coin in the Treasury, on which it would lose the interest, and for the safe keeping and management of which it would have to pay. Good judges think that it would not be safe for the Government to rely on a metallic reserve of one kind; that in making itself the great and only depository of coin in the country it would have to be prepared for drafts of extraordinary suddenness and severity, and it would not do for it to run risks of a shock to its credit which a banker might safely take; that, therefore, thirty-three per cent. of reserve would not suffice, that probably fifty per cent. would not be too much. It has to be borne in mind, too, in estimating this amount, that a bank has, through discounts and through its discretionary power over the amount of its circulation, ways of easing itself in time of pressure which a Government officer could not resort to. He would have to act under cast-iron rules of law, both as to the amount of paper afloat and the manner of redeeming it. We believe it is not proposed that the amount of paper to be issued by the Treasury under the greenback régime should be left to the discretion of anybody. No one ventures to say that any Government officer or officers should be trusted with such a discretion, or that any man is fit to be trusted with it. The plan is that the amount should be fixed by statute or constitutional amendment, in accordance with what somebody—who has never been clearly designated—conceives to be "the wants of trade." Now, the wants of trade vary. More money is wanted in the spring and fall than in summer and winter; more at the great centres of trade and industry than in remote agricultural regions. To meet these variations of supply and demand it is, above all things, necessary that a currency should be elastic—that is, that it should be capable of expansion and contraction under the operation of the laws of trade. Banks look after this contraction and expansion and prepare for it. They supply the circulating medium in bills and credits at points where it is needed, and withdraw it from points where it is not needed, which the Government could not and would not do. If a bank finds the money-market getting tight and the pressure on it likely to be strong, it imports gold from other countries to meet it, with the care and judgment and prudence which experienced self-interest supplies. The Government would have to do this, too, but in doing so it would often be employing mere politicians, who had got into office without any reference to their business experience and sagacity, in carrying on the most complicated and delicate operations of commerce on an immense scale. We do not need to explain the anxiety and uneasiness which this would diffuse through the community in times of trouble.

We have reserved to the last what we consider the most serious objection of all—the political one. It would be impossible to make the Government the great banker of the country without enormously magnifying its power and the extent of its sphere in the imaginations of the people. The daily contemplation of the Treasury as the source of financial relief by a huge, busy commercial community could not but give a great stimulus to centralization and prepare the way for the transfer of other powers and duties to Washington, or for the still closer approximation of the States to the rank of provinces, and for a radical change in our ideas touching the nature of the Union. In the second place, not even a constitutional amendment would suffice to settle the volume of the paper currency. There would always be a party in existence maintaining that all limitation of this volume was useless or mischievous, and that in a growing country like ours it would hardly be possible to issue too much paper. When a commercial

crisis came, every ten years, say, this party would be swelled by all the people in difficulties who wished to "unload"; and in obedience to their clamor, and perhaps from a desire to be popular and "with an eye to the Presidency," the Secretary would be induced to break the law and issue enough currency to ease the market, or temporarily to suspend specie payments, looking to Congress or the Supreme Court or the general good nature for an indemnity. The way in which both Congress, the Supreme Court, the Treasury, and the Republican party have dealt with the greenbacks since 1865 is full of suggestion as to the course things might take, and probably would take. The general result would be that the currency, in one shape or another, would come up as an issue in every canvass, which is another way of saying that at every State and national election the voters would be called on, directly or indirectly, to fix the value of all property and the amount of all debts. We do not say this would result in any sudden or violent catastrophe; but that any high rate of prosperity could be kept up under it, or that it would not gradually drive capital abroad for investment, it is impossible to believe.

PARTY DISINTEGRATION.

RECENT events have shown that there is a powerful disintegrating force at work upon the old political parties. That the process of decay should be most marked among the Democrats is quite appropriate, seeing that they have done most to make the greenback heresy formidable. If Jackson, Benton, and Wright could be made to know what sort of "principles" their descendants are putting into their platform, they would consider any political monster a blessing which should kindly open its jaws and swallow them up. The transformation of the party from hard money to soft money, which has been going on for something more than ten years, is one of the most curious phenomena to be found in the history of representative government. There was no reason *à priori* why the Democrats should be fonder of irredeemable paper than the Republicans. There were many reasons why the opposite tendency might have been looked for. Democratic traditions were hostile to paper money of any kind. They were so because of the danger that paper money, however well secured in the beginning, might eventually become irredeemable. The Democrats opposed the creation of the greenback in the first place, and they opposed every successive issue after the first one on the score of irredeemability. They never found any good in the greenback until some steps were taken by Secretary McCulloch to redeem it. From that time to the present their fondness for it has increased in proportion to the likelihood of its being actually redeemed, until now (the gold premium being somewhere between $\frac{1}{8}$ and $\frac{1}{4}$ of one per cent.) they are terrified at the prospect of losing their idolized currency, and demand the immediate and unconditional repeal of the Resumption Act.

The Greenback party has swallowed so much of the Democratic party in Maine that the remainder is hardly worth preserving. It bids fair to swallow even more of it in Massachusetts, and it is to be hoped that it will perform the like office for it in Ohio and Indiana. If there is to be a concerted attack upon the public credit, through a repeal of the Resumption Act or otherwise, then logically it must be made by a party formed for that special purpose. The Democratic party was not formed for that purpose; it does not exist for that purpose. Incidentally it may strive to do something in that way, but its counsels are divided. Its Tildens, Hewitts, Bayards, and Lamars are at variance with its Thurmans, Ewings, Voorheeses, and Blands, and the variance is so pronounced that they cannot work together on any scheme or policy affecting the greenback. Hence a distinctive Greenback party must take the field to carry out a greenback platform, and all the arguments which Mr. Thurman or Mr. Ewing can bring forward for soft money are arguments to persuade Democrats to leave their own party and enlist in a new organization. That their logic has not been without effect is shown by the returns from Maine.

The Republican politicians are justly alarmed at the signs of dissolution in the ranks of their opponents, for if the Democratic party disappears there will presently be no reason for the Republican party to remain. The disintegration which attacks one will shortly spread to the other. Commendable efforts have been made of late to "harmonize" the party on a financial policy, and these have so far succeeded that the Republicans generally are much more to be trusted in that particular than Democrats generally. Nevertheless, Mr. Eaton, of Connecticut, is a much safer man than Mr. Kelley, of Pennsylvania; and Mr. Schleicher, of Texas, is to be preferred to Mr. Phillips, of Kansas, or Mr. Jones, of Nevada. The incongruity of the political situation is shown in nothing more clearly than in the fact that the Republican leaders have used every means in their power to carry on the present campaign with the old issues, the old war-cries, and the worn-out passions of the past. They wanted above all things to "make it hot under the old flag," to wave the bloody shirt, and to attack the "Solid South." It was in this wise that they began this campaign. Not until they noticed desertions in alarming numbers from their own and their enemy's ranks did they give any prominence to the all-absorbing question of finance. Even then they approached it hesitatingly, but on the whole as well, perhaps, as could be expected from those who had been compelled against their wishes to change their line of battle after the engagement had opened. There is something mournful in the plea put forward here and there that Republicans have a better title to be called friends of the greenback than Democrats, because they invented it, because it was one of the arms of the public service during the war, and because it helped to put down the Rebellion. There is something ludicrous in the attempt of the Kansas Republicans to favor the use of hard money in such wise as not to exasperate the friends of soft money; and it is revolting to hear Mr. Geo. C. Gorham, Secretary of the Republican Campaign Committee, denouncing inflation and contraction as equally harmful, "the former being a ragged tramp and the latter a well-dressed pickpocket." The day for dealing with these questions by sleight-of-hand closed with the closing of the ballot-boxes in Maine. The Republican party can protract its own life by dropping all tricks with money and taking a position of deadly hostility to the Greenbackers, but to keep itself erect in any position after its old enemy falls will be a difficult task. The two parties have been held up for some years by leaning against each other. If one of them succumbs the other will not be able to stand on its former footing, if indeed it can stand at all.

It is believed by both Republican and Democratic optimists that actual resumption of specie payments will conjure the Greenback party back to the shades, or, at all events, so paralyze it that it can make no further inroads upon them. This is a grave delusion. If resumption had not been complicated with the silver question, the beginning of specie payments would probably have been the end of the false-money party, or if not the end, it would have belittled the movement from day to day till nothing remained of it. But specie resumption coupled with the Silver Bill involves the necessity of keeping the silver dollar and the gold dollar on a par with each other. This may be done for a time, but with an arbitrary engine at work pumping $2,000,000 to $4,000,000 per month of depreciated silver into the circulation it cannot be done long. The whole problem will again come up for solution, and as both the old parties are more or less committed to silver there is no reason why the new party should not continue to reduce their strength after Secretary Sherman's *quasi*-resumption takes place. And to combat it a party will eventually be needed in which all the friends of honest money can enlist upon equal terms.

THE REAL MEASURE OF WEALTH.

NOTHING can be more dangerous in its tendency towards extravagant and revolutionary measures, in place of fair economic means, than to magnify beyond the reality the gap which represents the difference in material prosperity between capitalists and the wage-receiving classes. It is a common error, and one into which some leading journals have lately fallen, to estimate this difference by

the sum total of the property of a capitalist as compared with that of a workingman ; so that a Stewart is better off than a Kearney by the difference between forty millions and a few hundreds in bank. If this be the true way of putting the inequality, then American society is uneven to an alarming degree. But the difference between forty millions and a single thousand is so enormous that when the modes of life of the San Francisco drayman and the busy, overworked merchant are contrasted, one cannot help feeling that this is not the real measure of social inequality. For the purposes of economic and philanthropic discussion this is not, in fact, the proper method of measuring comparative wealth. An analysis of the wealth of Mr. Stewart would have revealed the fact that, with the exception of a million or so expended on a costly house and its furnishings, the remaining millions represented stores, mills, machinery, stock in trade, and circulating capital in process of continual disbursement as the wages of labor. That such an investment was of the highest possible advantage to labor is matter of easy demonstration. It stood for a productive force in the legal power and under the skilful control of the owner, but far more fruitful, so far as good wages and the market for labor were concerned, than if the power and skill were attempted to be exercised by the employee on his own account. And, it must be noticed, the whole of such capital thus productively invested inures equally for the benefit of laborer and capitalist. Like the earth, before it has become subject to the rights of property, everybody can partake of the increase, which in this case is interest, profits, and wages ; but nobody cares to carry away and reduce to possession the soil itself. True, in one case the legal ownership is in the capitalist, but he is by necessity the self-constituted trustee for the wage-receiving classes of an invested fund which, if transferred into their hands, would quickly be wasted. That the capitalist may at pleasure withdraw the whole fund and sink it in the sea, or in some wild scheme where it can never benefit himself or anybody else, is of no moment so long as he does not do so. Economics, and social reform so far as it follows in its track, deals not with what men might do, but with what, taking human motives as they are, they will do.

It is of the first importance, in any discussion of reform in the social system with a view to the equal distribution of wealth, to get rid of the idea that the corpus of a man's investment is, even roughly, a measure of his wealth. It is not true, except in a very much qualified sense, that "the more millionaires there are the less there is left for distribution among the multitude."

As to that portion of income destined to be invested productively, that too must be thrown out of the account. In strict economic truth, and for our purposes, the real measure of an individual's wealth is his expenditure in unproductive consumption ; that is, to put it epigrammatically, a man is worth only what he destroys. The miser millionaire who replied to his clerk's complaint that the latter only earned enough for his board and clothes, "That's all I get," was really as poor as his subordinate. What a railroad king or a hod-carrier utterly consumes on his own enjoyment or that of his family is all that he takes from the productive forces of his time. Diminished only by this, these forces go on increasing the capital seeking investment and opening new markets for labor. In fact, it is just this measure of wealth which everybody makes use of when he sets himself to gathering a competence or a fortune. Aside from the vain desire to be rich in the sense in which the capitalist-trustee is rich, unproductive consumption is what all are struggling for. In this country it may be assumed that every man easily earns enough to keep his powers unimpaired. What he wants above this he wants for the sake of expending it unproductively in the shape of fine dress, a larger house-lot, a summer vacation, or else to lay up to live on the income of it when his consumption shall be all unproductive because he himself, by reason of old age or sickness, is no longer a producer. It will be found also that so far as social position, which of course is an object in life hardly less in importance than material blessings, is affected by wealth, it is determined rather by the expenditures for the time being on those luxuries which strike the eye and impress the imagination than by the aggregate of an individual's wealth. One sees this in the case of those who maintain for a time a fictitious social rank by living beyond their means.

When we have whittled down our notions of wealth to such modest proportions, and come to seek the utmost of a capitalist's property that can be made the subject of fairer distribution among the wage-receivers, the result shows the impossibility for the mass of humanity of obtaining more than a comfortable livelihood. A certain successful manufacturer of fire-arms in a provincial city has at present an invested capital of $400,000, and employs four hundred operatives. Calculating the profits at the ordinary business rate, and excluding a sum sufficient to recompense the employer for his superior abilities, risks, and responsibility, it is doubtful if any division of the profits among the employed could secure an annual increase in income of more than $75 for skilled labor and $50 for unskilled. This is, indeed, worth striving for, but it needs to be felt more strongly than now in every labor movement that the results attainable are so moderate as to make inexcusable the resort to extraordinary measures, and to encourage the thoughtful and temperate use of fair economic means.

ARTISTIC COPYRIGHT.

THE *Spectator* not long ago published an article on the subject of artistic copyright of considerable interest, apropos of the examination of the subject by Sir James Stephen, one of the English Copyright Commission. There is a demand in England for a copyright law which shall protect artistic property in pictures or statues more thoroughly than is now done. Several statutes have been passed by Parliament on the subject, but it seems that they do not altogether prevent the reproduction of works of art by the cheap processes so common nowadays. This demand, however, the *Spectator* thinks is "prompted more by a desire to make money in a subsidiary way than by any need to be protected against the loss of money." The argument of the *Spectator* (it professes to follow generally in the footsteps of Sir James Stephen) is that there is an essential difference between copyright in books and copyright in works of art. With regard to copyright in books, it is obviously essential to protect the author against piracy by legal means, if he is to be protected at all. With regard to a statue or a picture the case is different. It cannot be copied so long as it remains in the author's studio, or in the possession of the purchaser, without their permission. An engraving stands in a somewhat different light ; for though impressions cannot be taken from the original plate without its owner's consent, new plates may be made from the engraving. As to photographs, the possession of a negative is no protection at all, for almost as good copies may be taken from the photograph as can be got from the negative. What, however, a painter wishes to prevent by copyright is the sale of photographs or engravings of his pictures ; a sculptor to prevent the sale of photographs or engravings of his statue; an engraver to prevent the sale of photographs of his engraving. But why should they be allowed the right ? Clearly it is not copyright which they ask, in the sense of literary copyright. The foundation of literary copyright is the necessity of preventing the multiplication of *identical* copies of the same work. One copy of a poem or a history in print is exactly the same as another, and hence the multiplication of copies must be prevented, if the author is to derive any profit at all from his publication. But photographs or even engravings of pictures or statues do not lower the value of the originals. Nor does the multiplication of photographs of engravings diminish their value. On the contrary it may enhance it. It would seem to follow (though the *Spectator* does not put it in these words) that the principle which ought to govern all legislation with regard to artistic copyright is this : Wherever artistic property is recognized at all, the question whether the owner should be protected against copies resolves itself into the question whether the process of copying results in an identical multiplication of the original ? In books this is clearly the case ; in statues it is not so ; in pictures it is not so ; in photographs it is so ; engravings seem to present a doubtful case. On the other hand, the right to produce copies of a wholly different character, as photographs of statues or engravings of pictures, is the right to make money in a manner totally different from the way contemplated in the production of the original, and must stand on totally different footing.

We confess this argument does not strike us as altogether convincing. The fundamental question with regard to copyright is always whether a right of property exists, and what its limits are. Thus, with regard to a book, the property consists in a certain order of ideas conveyed by words. It does not extend so far, however, that an abridgment is a piracy ; and hence abridgments of copyrighted books are themselves every day copyrighted, though it is clear that they would never have had any existence but for the existence of the book itself. A sculptor in the same way is the owner of a statue. It is a piece of marble, cut in a certain definite form, representing a person or a group. Of course he owns the marble, and whether it is in the form of a statue or not he can prevent any one from doing anything with it which he does not like. But now that he has converted it into a statue he owns something more than the marble, and the question is what he does actually own. Is he the proprietor of the arrangement and external form of his statue, or does he own these only as they inhere in the marble ? If he is the owner of the former—of

what we may call the statuesque *idea*—there seems no reason why he should not be protected from photographers and engravers. If he does not, there seems no reason why photographers or engravers should pay a royalty to him. This is not by any means a distinction without a difference, as may be seen by an analogous case in dramatic copyright (the law of which is quite different in some respects from that of literary copyright). In a play the author has a property not merely in the order of ideas, expressed by words, but also in the action itself, and not only in the action but in the incidents underlying the action. Every one has seen a play in which one of the characters is bound to the track of a railroad by the villain of the piece, and afterwards rescued from the approaching train by another of the characters. This incident was invented by a playwright, who made use of it in "Under the Gaslight." Another playwright, seeing its advantages, put it into a play called "After Dark," introducing, however, enormous changes in dialogue, characters, and action. He made the track that of an underground instead of a surface line; changed the sex of the rescuer, who was made to dig his way through the wall of an adjoining cellar instead of breaking his way through the door of a building. It was urged that there was no infringement of copyright in the use of the scene; that there was no novelty or originality in the passage across the stage of a train of cars drawn by a locomotive, nor in the idea of such a train bearing down upon a man lying on the track, he having been thrown there for that purpose by one of the characters in the play, nor in his escape. Nevertheless this was decided by an American judge to be a case of piracy. If dramatic copyright extends to property in an "incident" like this, why may it not to the "idea" of a statue or a picture? If it does, we see no reason why the demands for legislative protection should be said to be prompted by a desire to make money in a "subsidiary way." It is simply a desire to prevent piracy of the artistic idea which the artist or sculptor has produced. On the other hand, if he has no property in the idea, there seems no reason why photographers and engravers should not have unlimited rights, or why the owners of galleries in which pictures and statues are exhibited should not derive an income from letting out the right to photograph and engrave, without the painter's or sculptor's permission.

The point which we wish to insist upon is that the whole question of copyright hinges on that of property, and not on the means of reproduction. In the case of a statue or picture the discussion is confused by there being two rights of property, one in the marble or canvas, the other in the artistic idea which has produced the statue or painting. The essential difference between the two may easily be shown. If a young and unknown sculptor has produced a statue the merit of which is not acknowledged, his possession of the marble will in theory enable him to make the condition of allowing it to be exhibited the payment of a royalty on whatever sum may be derived from photographing or engraving; but his obscurity will make this practically impossible. He must exhibit it, and if he has no property in anything but the marble, and the statue turns out to be a popular success, photographing and engraving may certainly begin at once. Therefore it seems to us that the assumption that the mere ownership of the marble is an ample protection begs the question.

An elaborate attempt at piracy of a painting, not protected by any copyright statute, was made in Ireland twenty years ago, and the story of the case illustrates better than any abstract argument the subject of artistic copyright. In 1856 Henry Wallis painted "The Death of Chatterton," a picture which attracted considerable attention at the time, Mr. Ruskin, in his notes on the Royal Academy exhibition, speaking of it in terms of admiration. Mr. Wallis sold the painting to a Mr. Egg, reserving a right, however, to participate in the profits of any engravings made from it. Mr. Egg afterwards sold Robert Turner the right to engrave and publish an engraving of the picture, making an agreement with him at the same time that he, Turner, should have possession of the picture for two years and a half, and that during this time he should exhibit it for the purpose of obtaining subscribers to the engraving. While it was thus on exhibition one James Robinson, who appears to have been a man of considerable ingenuity, visited the place of exhibition, and having seen the painting and consulted various biographical works on the subject of Chatterton's life and death, arranged in a photographic or stereoscopic establishment of his in Dublin a garret, with a pallet, table, and box; formed the back scene outside the window by a view of London, painted on a canvas screen, and placed on the pallet, to represent Chatterton, a servant of his named Isaac Murray; and, having thus arranged the figure and scenery from his recollection of the painting, took stereoscopic photographs of them. The result of this process was plain and colored stereoscopic photographs closely resembling the picture. It was not, however, pretended that they were paintings, for Robinson, in putting them on the market, announced them merely as "the beautiful and effective stereoscopic pictures of the last moments and death of the poet Chatterton." There was at the time no statute for the protection of paintings, and Turner, in suing Robinson, had to rely on his general rights of property. He won his suit, and the case has always been treated by legal writers on copyright as a formal recognition, by a court of authority, of the very right for which painters and sculptors contend—that of preventing the use for profit of the artistic *idea* they produce. Of course this does not prove the expediency of such a state of the law, but it seems to indicate the true method of discussing the question as a right of property, the exact limits of which are to be defined by legislation. In this country the statutes of the United States have recognized the existence of the right in the most formal manner.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—VIII.

THE FLORAL DISPLAY.

PARIS, Sept. 3, 1878.

THE weather has changed at last; or rather it has left off changing at last, and the wind is in a quarter which promises pleasant weather. All through the month of August and the last ten days of July there has been the showeriest and windiest spell that ever afflicted Paris, the wind constantly from the west or northwest, fresh rain-clouds piling up the horizon hour after hour, and day after day brief gleams of sunshine followed by sharp dashes of rain. Polite Paris has carried its umbrella as persistently as ever did swell London. The lamentations over the absence from the grounds of the Exhibition of large shade-trees in which some of the papers, especially *Figaro*, were indulging about the middle of July, and the proposals made to M. Krantz to turn night into day, if he desired to make good his calculations as to the receipts for admissions, and hold evening fêtes with fireworks and illuminations and military music—all came to a stop about the 25th of that month, and the question has since been how to get from the Trocadéro Palace to the Champ-de-Mars, or the other way, without being wet through with rain and splashed to the middle with yellow sand and water. For some of the broad walks, which were covered with gravel at first, are thought now to be hard enough and compact enough to leave with no further care than daily sweeping and watering; but pelting rain finds the surface not unassailable, and splashes up a disagreeable yellow paste.

Now, with fine weather and warm sun, the rolling chairs will have a chance. These have had a hard time of it; for the in-door service alone will not make them a success, and they have stood idle in scores even when the enclosure was the most crowded. They are different from the Philadelphia chairs, and not so comfortable; they are pulled instead of pushed, and each has, besides the main seat for the customer, a little half-deck forward, called a "strapontin," where a child may sit, and which is also handy for piling up the many catalogues one has to buy and the circulars one has to accept. The tariff of these "fauteuils roulants" seems high, as no provision is made for a short trip. An hour costs two and a half francs, or three francs "with the strapontin occupied," probably with live weight, not guide-books. It would be convenient to be able to take one for a single trip, of a half hour or less, because, though there are not here at Paris such great spaces that may be travelled over at pleasure as there were at Philadelphia, there is a much greater space that must be traversed very often than any there; namely, the half mile between the main Exhibition building and the Trocadéro Palace. If one is near the gates of the latter, but has business in the picture-galleries or the American section in the Champ-de-Mars building, it is much the cheapest way, and the only way of keeping dry, to take a cab for the long circuit outside by the Pont de l'Alma to the Porte Rapp, which is the chief gate, where all the headquarters are of post-office and telegraph, firemen and *contrôle* generally, and whence one goes under cover to any part of the main building, except to the isolated Pavilion of the City of Paris.

There is a plan for a Great Exhibition which has not been tried, whether it has been thought of or not, and which, sooner or later, will be tried and found to succeed. Let your readers have the benefit of it in advance. The buildings will be ranged continuously around a great central garden, forming in this way a vast quadrangle with covered cloister.

Buildings of the same size on the ground as these of the Champ-de-Mars would enclose a garden of about 1,000 by 2,000 feet, which should be left wholly unobstructed by buildings and made into the most magnificent garden, of the French or ornate style, that could possibly be planned, with fountains and water-works, with architectural terraces, with shady corners and sunny lawns, and this adorned by all the bronze statuary of the exhibition. This last is an essential part of the scheme. The bronze statuary does not look its best in the same gallery with the marble and the plaster; it requires, moreover, a different light from works which are in white material; let it all be set up in the alleys of the great garden, and seen, one piece at a time, each by itself, instead of in overwhelming number and bewildering juxtaposition in a small room.

In the building of the Champs-Elysées, used for the Paris *Salon* exhibition every year, the sculpture is all in what is called "the Garden"—that is, the large main ground-floor of the huge edifice which (you are aware) was erected for the Universal Exhibition of 1855. There the six hundred and fifty pieces of this year's sculpture exhibition were much more widely spaced, and, therefore, much more easy of enjoyable study, than those which are crowded into the Exhibition galleries; and, moreover, the flood of white light which fills the *Salon* building, coming through its glass roof high above, is like the light of out-of-doors, and is much more pleasant and effectual than the uncertain illumination of any small gallery with the common form of skylight. But in a great quadrangle, open to the sky and filled with trees and fountains, grass-plots and flower-beds, the weather-proof statuary could all be exhibited in quite an ideal way; and it would not be hard to devise an ornamental and spacious covered *loggia*, under whose shelter the marbles and the plasters could have the slightly modified daylight which befits them, and be not too far removed from their fellows in bronze.

There is another part of this plan which should be insisted on. It is probable that this idea of national buildings in national styles, built by national commissions for international friendly contest—an idea not original with the French Exhibition of this year, but which has received its greatest development hitherto in the façades on the Rue des Nations—will be carried out hereafter on a scale of much greater splendor and expense, and with vastly greater success. The present street is narrow, and the side opposite the national façades is a row of wretched, formless boxes, the outsides of the alcoves of water-colors and architectural designs. Moreover, the façades themselves are mostly such poor things, such cheap and hasty affairs; while little Belgium has erected, as my letter of a month ago set forth, a building of value and importance. Well, the next exhibition will be at Rome in 1881. Instead of the one side of the Rue des Nations, about 1,900 feet long, give to the Powers which take part in that gathering three of the sides of the great quadrangle, Italy taking one of them for herself, as is natural; then on the fourth side, which would be one of the longer ones, let the picture-galleries be drawn out, as here, in succession. This fourth side would face on the quadrangle with the covered *loggia* of the sculpture exhibition, two thousand feet of open arcade. The other three sides would have the varied architecture of the different national buildings, about thirty in number, besides the large one of Italy.

All this would be made very much richer, and more tasteful as well, than anything here, provided notice sufficient were given to the competing nations of the great chance offered them. And as for the garden in the quadrangle, it suffices to look a while at the beauty and variety of the horticultural displays here, to judge what it might be made. That one department has flourished and grown great in the showery weather, and I wish your readers, one and all, could see the lovely flower-beds, the shrubberies, the lawns—in short, the exquisite gardening that has been carried into the remotest corners, and is richly displayed in the most frequented centre of the two hundred acres here enclosed. Where stands a building and where runs a walk there can be no grass nor shrubs, but everywhere else, every other foot of space, is either made splendid by the Commission or is appropriated to some gardener or *pépiniériste* or horticulturist of some sort, who puts his little sign up and goes to work to make his exhibit do him credit. The lawns are like velvet, for in the border of each is stuck a little tin memorandum of who has sown it and keeps it up, and its beauty appeals to the public for patronage and to the jury for "honorable mention," or something better. The most ingenious devices are in use for watering them—cheap little things that any country-resident may use, and these also are part of the exhibit. It is to be observed that the gardeners don't fear watering grass, and some of them, at least, their flowers, in the hottest sun; to-day it is going on everywhere, with a sun blazing on it all which would do honor to New York. Rolling seems not to be practised. Fresh-cut grass is not left upon the lawn, but is swept up by soft brooms, handled like a scythe, with circular sweeps, into long windrows, then rolled up into little cocks and carried away. The two long and spacious lawns which flank the cascade and fountains of the Trocadéro park are made decorative by having a path sunk near the edge, leaving three feet wide of greensward outside it, then the two feet of dark yellow loam or sand, then green turf again. This path is merely for the color and not to walk on, for all around the lawn, at its extreme edge, is a continuous flower-bed, perhaps six feet wide, and kept full of vivid flowers according to their season, the middle plants standing highest, so as to produce the effect of a steep ridge. The green carpet is, therefore, bordered with this combination of colors for a width of ten feet or more all around; and the effect, as seen from the galleries and long arcades of the Trocadéro Palace, or as seen looking up-hill from the bridge, is brilliant; to say nothing of the enjoyment the passers-by get from these three hundred yards of flower-bed. It must not be forgotten upon what a large scale all this is composed; one *does* forget it, continually, even here on the spot. At every turn there is a new flower-garden. Frequently one finds a large bed glowing with color, with a small sign stating that all the plants here are to be raised from seeds, and giving the address where those seeds are to be had; *chez* Paul Tollard, or Vilmorin, Andrieux & Cie., or whomsoever. To each plant is a little ticket with its name for facility of reference, and that doesn't help the appearance of the beds—but neither is it a serious injury. One very large bed is wholly filled with begonias in endless variety. One long and narrow one has a centre line of the cultivated ox-eye daisy, the common American "white weed," pushed to a dense, bushy herb, which is set thick outside with the white and yellow stars, and along each outer edge geraniums of different sorts. Geraniums are a specialty of these Paris gardeners; there is one large bed here filled with these plants grown to woody bushes six feet high, and covered with scarlet and crimson flowers; M. Boutreux, *fils*, has the credit of that. Between the polished blocks of the exhibit of Pyrenean marble are dwarf geraniums, white-leaved and red-flowered, in solid mass. The building of the Exhibition of Agriculture is half hidden in flowering pumpkin-vines, squash-vines, and melon-vines trained over its walls; that's for the *farming* look of it, and to show how splendid are these, the most luxuriant and the nearest to tropical vegetation of all our northern herbaceous plants. By way of contrast, the little rustic pavilion of the Administration of Parks and Gardens is covered with rarer vines in full flower, among which it is particularly interesting to study out the different species of Passiflora, the common "passion flower" of our gardens, and a dozen more—some of them mere exotics. Sweet peas of many colors, and a vine with a splendid purple bell, and some trumpet-creeper are mixed in this tangle of climbing plants. Another building near is all shrouded in nasturtiums. Among the seed-plants is a splendid display of *Célozie à panache*, both red and yellow—a flower, I think, not common in American gardens—and *Amaranthe crête-de-coq*, which is the old-fashioned "cockscomb" glorified, and of a dozen shades of color and varieties of mottling. The shrubberies also are interesting and curious, though, of course, mostly composed of small shrubs. All about the pavilion of the Lafarge cement, a rather pretty structure, is Moreau's display of shrubs of ornamental leafage, mahonias, aucubas, and Ilex of endless variety, and some of most unexpected aspect. Around the Creusot pavilion is the shrubbery of Louis Leroy, of Angers—fine dwarf magnolias, though not in blossom now, so late, and the prickly-leafed Osmanthus, and many another plant with leaves of glossy dark green, or yellow-edged pale green, or yellow-sprinkled, or copper-colored, or red-veined. It is odd that one sees nowhere a display of crotons, which are easy to have out-of-doors in summer, nor any purple-leafed Dracæna. A beautiful display of rare evergreens and coniferous plants is made by Churoze Brothers—Taxus, with red berries, many varieties of Thuja and of Abies, some familiar in America though rare here, but other some from far-away regions of the earth. M. Margottin, *fils*, shows a row of little peach-trees, little dwarfed curiosities two feet high, in pots, but all loaded with great red peaches, full ripe. M. Chevet, of Rue Picpus, has pomegranate-trees, also dwarfed, but bearing their superb, glowing flowers as fairly as their twelve-foot-high brothers of the Savannah and Beaufort gardens; though why these here should be in flower in September, and without their fruit, is a mystery. Plants still more tropical are not very common; but there are a number of palms of different species, and not merely the fan-leaved palmetto (*Chamærops*), which is so easy to grow, and which one finds in all the hotel courtyards in Paris. The black-stemmed bamboo forms a part of the exhibit of the city-gardens of Hyères, near Toulon, on the

southern coast, and is not only there, for the Japanese have a clump of it near their farm-house. The Hyères show is very beautiful.

The nurserymen and fruit-growers have their exhibit on the outside of the Champ-de-Mars building, to east and to west of it, and there show their long rows of fig-trees, pear-trees, and vines, with full labels stating age as well as variety of each important specimen. Finally, the Commissioners make good all the corners and blind-walls, and all the vacant spaces not taken up by "exhibits." The Rue de France and the Rue des Nations are decorated with clumps of green and occasional flowers; the steep little hillock where is the pavilion of the phylloxera pest, and the plan of campaign against him, the scarped bank beside the Trocadéro hill, and all remote nooks where no exhibitor cared to go, are occupied by the really beautiful displays of the different official florists of the Bois de Boulogne, the Bois de Vincennes, etc., all under the direction of the Commission. R. S.

LONDON IN THE DEAD SEASON.

London, September 7, 1878.

THERE are moments when it seems to savor of affectation to talk of London at any time as "empty"—to declare, in the language of the locality, that there is not a creature in town. But everything is relative, and it is not to be denied that at this time of the year the noisiest city in the world is apt to become peculiarly quiet. Bond Street is tranquil and Piccadilly is soundless; the knocker is dumb in genteel neighborhoods, the little double-tap of the postman even becomes unfamiliar, and the ear is conscious only of the creaking boots of the lonely policeman as he slowly marches through a vista of darkened windows. I don't know how the policeman likes his solitude and his leisure; but there is something about London in its interlunar swoon, as Shelley says, which an occasional survivor of the fashionable period finds decidedly agreeable. It may be that as an adoptive rather than a native cockney I exaggerate its charms at the present moment, according to the rule that converts are always apt to be fanatics. If you like London for itself, as the phrase is, you get more of London itself at this time than at any other. You enjoy a kind of monopoly of certain parts of it, and you appreciate some of those great features which, at any time from January to July, are thrown into the background by the crowd and the bustle. I will not attempt to enumerate the features in question, or suffer myself to be beguiled into an attempt to demonstrate that among the gentle influences of September the British metropolis takes on an unsuspected loveliness. One's enjoyment here at such a time must after all be mainly, as the metaphysicians say, subjective. It comes from the sense of boundless leisure—of the absence of interruptions. This operates as a kindly revelation of the crowded quality of existence during the lively portion of the year. For a person leading, in however small a degree, what is called a "London life," a fair, smooth, open stretch of time—without visits or notes or social obligations—becomes the ideal of felicity.

If this ideal is realized at present, there are of course losses in the matter as well as gains. The London clubs, in the early autumn, betake themselves to house-cleaning; the familiar portal of your favorite resort is shut in your face, with the imperfect compensation of an announcement that for the next few weeks you are at liberty to make use of another establishment. At the other establishment you feel a good deal like an intruder; you are unfamiliar with the customs of the place—you imagine that the servants and members glower at you, as you go and come—you feel that there is a want of confidence in your deportment, that you are not welcomed, but only tolerated. In so far, however, as a club is a place for reading the papers, that at the present time is soon done; and if a gentleman should happen to want the copy of the *Times* which you have in hand you will not deprive him of it for many minutes. The morning journals are distinctly dull: in the absence of stirring intelligence the smallest contributions are thankfully received. That ingenious species of composition and product of our time, known as the "social article," receives particular attention; it is usually of a jocular cast and—once a text, or a pretext, is secured—is remarkable for the facility of its transitions. That characteristic of English manners which is supposed by strangers to be the leading one—the passion for "writing to the *Times*"—is at present a great godsend to that journal. I am ignorant whether the *Times* receives during the months of August and September a greater number of confidential epistles from the injured or the gratified, the disappointed, the swindled, the inquisitive, or the communicative Briton, but it certainly prints a great many more. One class of communications comes to it, of course, in especial abundance—the complaints of English travellers who are taking a holiday upon the Continent. There is a daily outpouring of grievances into the maternal bosom of the great newspaper; and I think there are few spectacles more striking and suggestive to a stranger. A stranger makes all kinds of reflections upon it, but he ends on the whole, decidedly, with admiring it. It is ridiculous, in many ways—sordid, egotistical, obtrusive; but it throws an interesting light upon that feature of the English character which is so intimately connected with the greatness of England—the stubborn sense of the rights of the individual. The English individual has not only a stronger, but a much more definite, conception of his rights than any other; he has a more definite and more cultivated notion of justice. It is this definiteness that is the striking point. Theoretically, an American has quite as lively a sense of his dues; but practically, politics apart, his notion of what these dues consist of is exceedingly vague and amateurish. An Englishman never hesitates; he has them at his fingers' ends. The magnitude of the infraction matters little; his comfort is as sensitive as his honor; the principle is sacred that the *other* part of the bargain—the part complementary to his own (which he has discharged by paying a certain sum of money or taking a certain course)—shall be performed rigidly and to the letter. No American who has known many Englishmen can have failed to be struck with the trouble his friends have often been willing to take for the redress of grievances which have seemed to him trifling and not worth time and temper; and many Englishmen, on the other hand, who have been acquainted with Americans, must often have been amazed at the good humor of the latter—the blank serenity, akin to the Mussulman's assent to fate—under imposition, delay, incivility. What is meant by "English comfort" is at bottom but this fixed standard of punctuality and of deference to the expectations of the consumer; and it is very certain that life is very comfortable—for consumers, of course—in a country where no offence against this standard is accounted venial.

I should give a very false impression of the current hour in London if I failed to say that for the last three days the newspapers have contained something very different from the usual complaints of leaking lamps in railway carriages and of the heavy boots worn at night in the corridors of Swiss hotels. A very terrible accident occurred on the 3d ult. on the Thames—an accident which has added a peculiar gloom to the actual soberness of London. A small, overcrowded steamer, returning from an excursion to Gravesend, was run down by a big collier and sunk in an instant, with seven hundred persons on board. This huge calamity will, of course, long since have been made known in America, and you will have been spared those horrible details in which the voluminous reports published here abound. The collision took place just above Woolwich, and the latest computation appears to be that six hundred persons have perished. I have, at various idle moments, found entertainment in a sixpenny steamer, and may almost claim familiarity with that dusky stretch of the Thames which lies between Woolwich and London. The adoptive cockney, of whom I spoke just now, feels a curiosity to sound the depths of metropolitan amusement, and he has been known, under the guidance of this feeling, to push his researches even as far as Gravesend—a very shabby resort of pleasure, now for some time to be associated with the hideous disaster of three days since. The Thames scenery between London and Gravesend is anything but beautiful, but it has always seemed to me to have a certain sordid picturesqueness. There was entertainment to the eye in the dusky, irregular waterside, which seemed to stand begging to be "etched," and in the large, turbid, crowded river, with the slow-moving vessels almost fixed in it, as if it were liquid glue. The place seemed dingy and dreary, but it never seemed tragical—any more than the participants in a Gravesend excursion looked like actors in a tragedy.

I can speak of such an assemblage from observation, for on a certain hot Sunday, some time ago, I found myself in the midst of one. Partly as an enquiring stranger and partly as the victim of a misconception of the attractions of Gravesend I went to the latter place by train, to take the air. After taking as much of it as seemed agreeable, I returned to London with a very big crowd on a very small boat—the same rotten little steamer, possibly, which collapsed at a touch the other night. In so far as my expedition served as a study of the manners of the British populace it was highly successful, and the objects of that study have remained vividly imprinted on my memory. Gravesend itself can best be described by an expression borrowed from the feminine vocabulary: it is simply too dreadful. It is an extremely dirty and most ingeniously vulgar little place, close upon the river, whose bank is adorned with a row of small establishments, half cottage and

half shop, devoted to traffic in shrimps and tea. The doors of these little tea-houses are garnished with terrible maidens—very stout and robust, high-colored and loud-voiced—who dart forth at the wayfarer, tea-pot in hand, and, vociferating in his ears certain local formulas, almost hustle him into their unappetizing bowers. Behind the town is a place of entertainment known as the Rosherville Gardens, where there are more conveniences of the kind I have described, together with a hundred others in the way of rock-work and plaster statues and convivial grottoes. The British populace, returning from what the advertisements call a "happy day" at Rosherville, struck me, on the steamer, rather less favorably than an adoptive cockney could have wished. I had nothing to do for a couple of hours but to sit upon the paddle-box and watch it; but there was no great charm in the spectacle. The "people" in certain foreign countries, notably in France and Italy, is a decidedly more remunerative spectacle than the moneyed class. It strikes one as containing more than half the vivacity and originality of the nation. But this is far from being the case here. There is something particularly coarse and dusky about an English mob, something which is not redeemed even by its great good-nature, and which comes, I think, in a great measure from the absence of the look of taste and thrift in the women. I don't know, however, that this reflection is at all pertinent to the horrible disaster which occurred last Tuesday, and which has made, for the week, a kind of charnel-house of all the Woolwich shore. With all its imperfections on its head, a very considerable group of the London populace was cruelly submerged. There will be an enquiry and a good deal of sensational reporting, and then the whole episode will sink beneath the surface as the boatload of excursionists sank. Meanwhile the grouse-shooting and the destruction of pheasants and partridges will proceed apace. A very large number of Englishmen are just now engaged in this pastime, and in the great stillness of London you can almost hear the crack of the fowling-pieces on the northern moors. A great many legislators are within earshot of this delightful sound; a few others are listening to the even sweeter music of their own voices. The *Times* has a regular corner devoted to Parliament out of session, which has lately contained several long speeches from honorable members to their constituents. But for the moment the public mind—or, at any rate, the private mind—is not political.

Correspondence.

MASSACHUSETTS FARMING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I hope somebody, better qualified, will have a word to say upon "the crouching tenantry of Massachusetts" and Mr. Julian's general charge against that State in this week's *Nation*. It may be thought too absurd for contradiction, but such public statements, if not disproved, may be used to very ill effect by the Butlers of the day. If nothing else offers, perhaps the following statistics and extracts will serve to refute what is injurious in Mr. Julian's statement.

It is not necessary to deny that farming as an occupation has declined. We are all glad that it has, since there are other occupations that pay better. There is no more reason or economy in Massachusetts raising corn or wheat at a loss, compared to other means of living, than in her raising cotton or coffee or tea or sugar. She turns to what is best for her hands to do, and would be deserving of all that Mr. Julian intimates against her intelligence if she did not. What is to be refuted are the charges that there is (1) a decline of prosperity; (2) a deterioration in farming; (3) an increase in employment of Massachusetts women in farming; (4) the creation of immense estates at the cost of small farms and independent farmers, cultivated by a "crouching peasantry."

As to the general prosperity of the State, the increase of valuation of property for a term of thirty years was as follows: in 1840, 300 millions; in 1870, 1,417 millions. Increase of production: in 1840, 86 millions; in 1870, 517 millions. The increase of population from 1860 to 1878 was 34 per cent. Such figures mean general prosperity of the working-class, if they mean anything. The criticism can be made that Mr. Julian refers to the farming interest and not to general industry, but it all hangs together. Farming does not decline in the midst of general prosperity unless some of those engaged in it find it for their advantage to turn to something else, and let the pastures and hill-sides that should never have been reclaimed revert to the original forest, and the farm-buildings that are not wanted fall to ruin. There will still remain, and do at this moment remain, plenty of thriving farms and farmers for all our needs.

With regard to deterioration in farming, the only statistics I happen to have at hand are of Hampshire County, between 1855 and 1870. Hampshire is a county as primitive and as little likely to have been benefited by fancy farming as any. She produced in

	Butter, lbs.	Cheese, lbs.	Milk, gals.	Money value.
1855	456,272	253,969	Very little sold.	$116,182
1870	502,753	106,241	206,967	266,709

	Hay		
	acres.	tons.	Average.
1855	on 25,684	22,764	1,700 lbs. to acre.
1870	" 23,970	28,501	2,400 "

	Corn		
	acres.	bushels.	Average.
1855	on 5,831	167,099	28 to acre.
1870	" 2,605	100,706	38 "

Total yield 1855, $1,059,921; in 1870, $1,410,253.

I ask attention to the averages in the above, showing that better methods produced greater money yield on less acreage, and consequently with less labor.

As to any general employment of women in agricultural labor beyond the voluntary work of Germans and Irish, accustomed to such toil in their own countries, if it exists, it is as unknown to the residents in the country districts as the manorial estates and the crouching tenantry. Mr. Julian could not probably find *one* such estate in all Massachusetts.

I conclude with an extract from an address by Mr. Charles L. Flint, in 1872, Secretary of the State Board of Agriculture, who probably knows as much of the subject as any one. He says, drawing comparison especially with the rest of the United States and with the best farming districts of Europe:

"Any impartial traveller would admit that there is no farming community in the world presenting, as a whole and with few exceptions, greater evidences of thrift, prosperity, enterprise, and comfort than our own. There may be, and there doubtless are, wealthier communities, countries where the landed property is concentrated and held in fewer hands; but for a free people working their own farms, and dependent upon their own honest labor alone, it seems to me our country towns present the practical proofs of a remarkable material prosperity which is at once the result and the criterion of success."

Yours truly, E. C.

East Milton, Mass., September 21, 1878.

THE EDUCATION OF GIRLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I do not see why I should not put in my word. I have two girls, one of whom I have just had to forbid to go to school for some months, she having overworked herself in her successful efforts to pass the entrance examination to a high-school. I take shame to myself for this state of things, and, having had my eyes opened before much real harm has been done, I sympathize with "School-Hunter," and wish such a school as he longs for was set up near me.

I understand now the educational abomination of desolation spoken of by Professor Huxley, viz.: The stimulation of young people to work at high pressure by incessant competitive examinations. He says, that as early risers are conceited all the forenoon and stupid all the afternoon, so children who are forced to rise too early in their classes are conceited all the forenoon of life, and stupid all the afternoon. Vigor and freshness have been washed out of them by book-gluttony and lesson-bibbing. Real culture may be bought too dear, and to throw away health in the pursuit of modern pseudo-culture is mere insanity.

I do not think, with C. B. M., that the strength of early New England tradition is failing fast, and that something is needed to save us from early self-indulgence and from querulous old age. I think that something is needed to stem the tide of the senseless accumulation of studies, the high-pressure education, the wanton neglect of health, the absurd and useless competitive examinations which distinguish too many of our schools. Such a school as "School-Hunter" wishes for his girls—one where there is no "culchur," no cramming, and a good gymnasium—I would like for mine. But there are no such schools There never will be until parents demand them. Then, when cramming and overtasking weak bodies with tasks silly in themselves and wicked in view of their results have done their work, and the eyes of all of us are opened as the eyes of some now are, we shall have what we need.

As I may not be allowed to intrude upon you again I desire here to uplift my voice, in speaking of the education of girls, against the utter and thankless waste of time incurred in the study of music. Why should our daughters pound and strum for years and years with no comfort to themselves and little pleasure to others, their parents knowing all the

while that the expense incurred is useless, and that piano and music-book will be closed for good as soon as their daughters are married? No fetish-worship was ever half so stupid as our practice in this respect.

I am yours, etc., M.

Another correspondent writes:

"As one of the twenty per cent. (and thinking well of the position) I am, perhaps, outside of the subject; yet there is one point in your article I should like to speak of. I think you do not give quite weight enough to, or, at least, you rather slur over, the necessity for a real mental training for girls. What you speak of as the 'power of acquisition' I would rather call the *habit of applying the mind*. I think this cannot be gained except through some definite *schooling* between the ages of thirteen and eighteen. What you say about 'politics of Central Asia,' etc., is partly what I mean, but it is really not enough, and dismisses the point a little too curtly. I speak of what I know, for it has been the great personal want of my life. I have a fair average mind, yet I am behind in every way. I cannot use my mind, such as it is; and I am habitually silent in the presence of others, and only not 'mortified by a sense of insignificance' because I have ceased to care about myself. When I was young and did care, it was a source of deep mortification to me. Naturally, I have considered why this should be, and I am sure it is because my mind was not trained to apply itself in girlhood. If I had had a daughter to bring up I would have made her spend those five years—from thirteen to eighteen—almost exclusively upon some such study, for instance, as the history of England, beginning with the Saxon kings and carrying along with it some of the contemporaneous history, and its biography and specimens of its literature. Thoroughly done, this would be enough for the schooling of any woman; it would result in the habit I speak of; three hours a day during those years would do it *thoroughly*. There was much exaggeration in the medical outcry about the injury of study on the health of women. The system and habits of an American school may do this injury, but the closest application of a girl's mind for three or four hours a day cannot do the harm of the vacant *ennui* or the nervous excitement in which girls spend so much of their time. The 'restless, unhappy, puzzled, *waiting*' (!) state which your 'Veteran' proposes to remedy by a needle would be better remedied by diverting a girl's mind to the study of a *real* subject, varied as I have suggested.

"As for the matter of the needle, by the bye. I can sew as well as any woman and better than most, but I hate it with a heavy hatred, and nothing but the fact of wanting money for other purposes than dressmaking bills would ever make me touch a needle. It provokes me to hear the 'Veteran' call it 'emphatically a woman's resource'; it may be a convenience—it is nothing more. Used as she suggests, it *is* a 'bar to mental activity,' it promotes vacancy of mind; it does not soothe real distress, and it is physically injurious. The 'restless' young girl would do far better to take a walk, or a book, or dig in the garden.

"The discussion began with the search for a school, but the greater part of your advice relates to what a girl should learn in a well-ordered home, and can't so well be taught in a school. There is one thing neither you nor the others have mentioned, though perhaps you consider it covered by your demand for administrative capacity, and that is the use and value of time. If you soberly observe how we women use time you can't fail to see how much more might *safely* be got out of our lives. Dawdling is quite as fatiguing as activity: the frittering of time is *more* nervously exhausting than the steady employment of it. No household, once organized, can possibly require more than one hour—often not half an hour—of a mistress's time daily. Yet see what a fuss we make about it! There is no reason whatever why a woman should not attend to her household, educate her daughters, see after their clothes, and yet have a good half of the day for out-door employments, for reading, and for social life and enjoyment."

Notes.

HENRY HOLT & CO. announce for early publication an abridged Boswell's 'Life of Johnson'; Roscher's 'Political Economy,' translated by J. J. Lalor, in two volumes; a second edition of 'Life and Faith,' sonnets by George McKnight, revised with additions; a new edition of 'Goodholme's Domestic Cyclopædia'; and, among their new hand-books, 'The Studio Arts,' by Elizabeth Winthrop Johnson; and the 'Zoölogy of the Vertebrates,' by Prof. A. Macalister, of the University of Dublin.——Other fall announcements are as follows: By D. Appleton & Co.: 'Autobiography and Reminiscences' by John Brougham; 'American Painters,' eighty full-page wood-engravings after representative pictures; and Van Laun's 'History of the French Revolution.'——By Macmillan & Co.: the fourth volume of Lanfrey's 'History of Napoleon I.'; a complete edition of Matthew Arnold's 'Poems,' prepared for this market; 'A Plea for a Rational Education,' by Grant Duff; and 'Notes on Turner's Liber Studiorum,' by W. G. Rawlinson.—— By Cassell, Petter & Galpin: 'Pleasant Spots about Oxford,' by W. A. Rimmer, illustrated; and 'Familiar Wild Flowers,' by F. E. Hulme, with forty colored plates.——By Dodd, Mead & Co.: a series of 'Lives of Famous American Indians,' edited by the Rev. Edward Eggleston and his daughter. —By Houghton, Osgood & Co.: 'The Family Library of British Poetry,' selected by James T. Fields and E. P. Whipple; a new volume of Whittier's verse, 'The Vision of Echard, and Other Poems'; a dramatic poem, 'Prince Deukalion,' by Bayard Taylor; 'The Political Register and Congressional Directory,' by Major Ben Perley Poore, apparently the counterpart of Mr. Lanman's 'Biographical Annals'; 'The College Book,' edited by Charles F. Richardson and Henry Alden Clark, descriptive of twenty-four American universities, and adorned with heliotypes; 'Society the Spiritual Form of Man,' by Henry James, Sr.; and a translation of Weber's 'History of Indian Literature.'——By Little, Brown & Co.: 'Addresses and Orations of Rufus Choate'; a 'Memoir of the late Hon. B. R. Curtis,' by his son; the 'Law of Railroads,' by Edward L. Pierce; and the 'Law of Evidence,' by Professor J. B. Thayer.——By Lee & Shepard: 'The Pioneers of Art in America,' sketches of Connecticut artists, with portraits and pictorial copies of their works, by A. W. French.——By the New England Publishing Co.: a 'Life of Laura Dewey Bridgman,' by Mrs. Mary Swift Lawson.——By the German Book and News Co., Chicago: a 'History of Germans in Illinois,' by Emil Dietzsch.——By Bryan, Brand & Co., St. Louis: a 'History of the Confederate First and Second Missouri Brigades.——No. 1 of the *Art Interchange* calls for little remark except that a beginning has been made. In a combined "art and household journal," as this aims to be, perhaps "Theresa," with her query about the origin and introduction of "The German," must be admitted, but we should think that "Intellectus," enquiring about the peculiarities of the harvest moon, had better be discouraged.——Among the latest English announcements we observe an apologetic 'Public Life of the Earl of Beaconsfield,' by Francis Hitchman, a Manchester journalist; a collection of essays by the late James Hinton, uniform with his Life; 'Records from Jerusalem, Consular Chronicles, 1853–1856,' by James Finn; 'The Geology of Ireland,' by G. H. Kinahan; 'Etna,' a history of the mountain and its eruptions, by G. F. Rodwell; 'Mind in the Lower Animals, in Health and Disease,' by Dr. W. Lauder Lindsay: a translation of Haeckel's 'History of the Evolution of Man'; and 'Child Life in Japan,' by Mrs. M. Chaplin Ayrton, an attractive subject, illustrated by Japanese artists.——A copy of Captain Cook's diary, July 13, 1772–January 11, 1773, has been found in the library of the Halle University, and may prove valuable.——It is "the thing," even at the antipodes, for newspapers to keep explorers on their staff. The Australian *Queenslander* has despatched an expedition to survey the country between Blackwall and Port Darwin, with an eye to the practicability of a railway route.

—Mr. Sidney S. Rider, Providence, has begun the publication of two series of brochures, one entitled 'Personal Narratives of the Battles of the Rebellion,' the other, 'Rhode Island Historical Tracts,' and three numbers have appeared in each series. The narratives are as unpretending as possible, but they show unusual discrimination on the part of the writers (representing here the three branches of the service), and their testimony to the hopes and fears of the raw volunteers from the North, to the behavior of particular regiments, and to the incidents of battle, is at once graphic and obviously trustworthy. Thus, what could be more suggestive of the nature of the first Bull Run retreat than these passages from Lieut.-Col. Monroe's Narrative (R. I. Artillery):

"The scene was one of indescribable confusion, although there appeared to be no fright or tremor in the minds of the men who were leaving the field . . . [It] was such as to remind one of that which can be seen daily in any large manufacturing town or village when the operatives, let loose by the expiration of their hours of labor, all set out for their respective homes, . . . all depart according to their respective bents and wills. So upon this field, the general impression seemed to be that the day's work was done, and that the next thing in order was repose."

"I overtook Captain Reynolds, who crossed a little in advance of me, and just as I rode along-side of him, a shot from the enemy's artillery

struck the ground only a few feet from us. Unsophisticated as I was, I could not understand why they should continue to fire upon us when we were doing the best that we could to let them alone, and I said to Captain Reynolds, 'What do you suppose they are trying to do?' His reply was a characteristic one: 'They are trying to kill every mother's son of us; that is what they are trying to do.'"

The cavalry narrative is excellent, particularly in regard to the reform in that arm, under General Stoneman, and to the devastation of the Shenandoah Valley. The Historical Tracts also have to tell of Rhode Island prowess, military and naval. Some of the exploits of the famous Wanton Family, whose history is related by Mr. John Russell Bartlett with fulness of anecdote and genealogical detail, will never be surpassed. Professor Diman, again, describes the capture of the British Gen. Richard Prescott by Lt.-Col. Wm. Barton at Portsmouth, R. I., in July, 1777—an achievement which connects colonial daring with that of the civil war. This Tract is illustrated by a portrait of Barton and a map of Narragansett Bay, and otherwise. The third, by Mr. Alexander Farnum, sets forth the claims of the Northmen as pre-Columbian discoverers of America and visitors to Rhode Island, and does so temperately but not more conclusively than some of his predecessors have done. The argument is a constructive one, and, plausible as it may be, it must ever lack the persuasiveness of one clear relic of Norse origin. All these pamphlets are neatly printed on large paper, and in limited number. They are a most praiseworthy undertaking.

—The *Atlantic* has recently given much space and prominence to social and economic topics, to the great gain of its readers. The leading article of the current number, upon "Certain Dangerous Tendencies in American Life," is a clear, concise, and careful exposition of some of the changes which have passed upon the face and character of our people within the last twenty-five years. The vastly greater importance of the economic over other results of the war in influencing the habits and standard of living among the middle class, the lessened force of patriotic and religious motives, the transformation of the church into a depository of social rather than religious influences, the rise of a vague and easy-going infidelity, the rank growth and contagious spread of the now vast body of ill-defined superstition and morbid emotion comprised in Spiritualism, the appearance of a working-class which looks on capital as its prey rather than as its employer, and which believes the function of the Government is to secure prosperity without the need of hard labor, the immobility of the cultivated and propertied classes as compared with the ceaseless activity among the lower orders—these and kindred matters are the texts on which the unknown writer hangs his terse remarks and valuable suggestions. He is not, however, merely an essayist; he sounds a call to arms. The measures which he proposes as remedies are an organization, similar to the New England Loyal Publication Society of war time, for the distribution of broadsides; the publication of a popular newspaper devoted to the central ideas of his article; the issue of small books upon subjects connected with political economy, to be adapted to the slowest comprehension; the use of persuasive speaking and preaching; a "religious and moral philosophy that will inspire patriotism and hold us strenuously to the work of making this country a clean, orderly, and wholesome dwelling-place, school, and home for human beings"; the development of utilitarian doctrines, "so far as they are capable of becoming a religious inspiration and motive for men"; a change in the reading of the people; and the expenditure of "a million dollars" within three years. One feels like taking a long breath after that, and fears that the builder of these comprehensive schemes will have to content himself with his own single-handed effort and the knowledge that here and there are others devoted to the same work in their unknown places; but the diagnosis of our moral condition here given is that of a patriotic, thoughtful, sincere, and observant man, and should, and undoubtedly will, quicken a more careful and universal reflection upon our national character.

—Mr. Brooks Adams writes of the "Abuse of Taxation," particularly in the city of Boston, where it appears that "every third dollar which a man's accumulated savings will earn is taken from him by the Government"; and he also points out that where, as in Boston, possible municipal indebtedness is limited by law, to pay off the principal of the debt is to increase the temptation to extravagant expenditure. Mr. Bigelow discusses the "Relations of Labor and Capital" in a paragraphic and statistical way, but with great force and clearness and with evident care, and has made an economic article better fitted for popular reading than any we have seen. In giving so much space to these three articles we have not neglected the literature of the magazine, for it is not of the best. "The Europeans" comes to an end. The review of recent novels has the charm of style and critical taste which reveal the well-known hand of its author. "The Home Life at Brook Farm" is interesting from its subject. Mrs. Stowe's story is on a threadbare theme; and the poetry—but of that we will not speak. We again commend the confessions of men in literary life in the Contributors' Club to all aspirants for literary honors.

—The other magazines may be more shortly dismissed. They are each of their average excellence, but contain little that calls for extended comment. In *Lippincott's* that wanderer on the face of the earth, Lady Barker, now removed from Natal to Mauritius, resumes her sprightly correspondence, and in a single letter effectively outlines the characteristics of this tropical island, whose acreage is enormous in proportion to its length and breadth, so that "three miles in any direction will show you a greater variety of beautiful scenery than the same distance over any other part of the habitable globe"; from which the Great Bear and the Southern Cross are both visible at the same time; and in which, though an English possession, "you never hear English spoken except among a few officials," and the very newspapers are in French, "with only here and there a column of English." The other most readable paper is that by Mr. George Kennan on the popular talk and proverbs and stories of the Caucasus—what he calls the unwritten literature. But, as in all cases of folk-lore, much of it has been written down and printed. The old fable, "Why Blind Men should Carry Lanterns at Night," if it is to be reproduced any more, should follow the inimitable version of the Portuguese 'New Guide of the Conversation.' New to us, and good, is the story of the Stingy Mullah, who was drowning, but would not be helped by the man who cried, *Give* me your hand; only by him who cried, *Take* my hand! In *Harper's* Mr. Ernest Ingersoll's illustrated paper, "Around the Peconics," is the best of its kind that has appeared in the magazine for many a day, being light without being superficial or perfunctory, and as restrained in style as it is full of information. It has for its subject the eastern end of Long Island, a region of high antiquity, great primitiveness, quiet prosperity, and vast resources for summer enjoyment—resources which the completion of the Brooklyn bridge may greatly develop. Good descriptive articles are Mr. Rideing's "New England Dairy and Stock Farm," and Mr. Byers's "St. Gothard Tunnel"; and we should add Mr. Carroll's "New York in Summer," if we could praise its exuberant phraseology. Stanley's narrative is condensed for this number by Mr. John Russell Young.

—The only paper in *Scribner's* which one might be sorry to miss is Gen. Viele's "Trip with Lincoln, Chase, and Stanton," a trip which ended in the capture of Norfolk and the blowing up of the *Merrimac*. Mr. Chase is here represented as temporarily assuming a military command at a critical moment, to the great advantage of our arms. Of Mr. Lincoln a number of stories are told; none so good, however, as those lately made public in the same magazine by Mr. Noah Brooks, who, besides, had not quite so flattering an account to give of Mr. Chase. Gen. Viele relates that he saw the President on this trip hold an axe "at arm's length at the extremity of the helve with his thumb and forefinger" for a number of minutes, and he infers that the proposed kidnapping of Mr. Lincoln would not have been child's play for those who attempted it. It is rather odd to find the second of the late Robert Dale Owen's posthumous papers—"Recallings from a Public Life"—a defence of the annexation of Texas and the consequent war with Mexico. He even adduces these events as proof that "our country, in her relations to foreign nations, has been habitually just, moderate, forbearing." Mr. Owen was at the time a Democratic member of the House of Representatives and was a supporter of the Administration, so that in some measure his narrative is a personal apology. The youthful reader of it should not only remember this, but, as Mr. Owen's writings always bear the marks of candor, should be warned that he unintentionally omits the most essential considerations of the case—the nature of the "settlement" of the Mexican province of Texas from the American border; the character of the prime movers in Texan independence and of the population; the free constitution of Mexico and the slaveholding constitution of the revolted province; the necessity of war as a result of annexation; the political and economical motives of the South in promoting war; finally, the whole machinery of the intrigue which, in Mr. Owen's recollection, appears as an accident to a magnanimous and disinterested bystander. In spite of the "thirty years' interval for dispassionate thought" the student of that dark passage in our history will do better to turn back to Lundy, and David Lee Child, and Jay, and J. Q. Adams, and commit to heart the contemporary 'Biglow Papers.'

—In the recent collection of cartoons from *Punch* illustrating the political career of Lord Beaconsfield, we miss one of very considerable interest connected with a perfectly characteristic event in his early public life. It represents Mr. Disraeli, then Chancellor of the Exchequer, as a lachrymose magpie, with papers in his beak labelled, "M. Thiers's speech on Marshal Gouvion de St. Cyr!" The title of the cartoon is, "A stump-orator with his bone from the French." It was occasioned by Mr. Disraeli's speech on the death of the Duke of Wellington, delivered in Parliament, November 15, 1852, a considerable portion of which it was soon afterwards discovered was taken from M. Thiers's panegyric on the French marshal. We give below two parallel passages, the translation of M. Thiers's speech being taken from the *Morning Chronicle* of July 1, 1848:

Disraeli.	*Thiers.*
"At every moment he has to think of the eve and the morrow, of his flank and of his rear; he has to calculate at the same time the state of the weather and the moral qualities of men; and all those elements that are perpetually changing he has to combine, sometimes under overwhelming heat, sometimes under overpowering cold, oftentimes in famine, and frequently amidst the roar of artillery."	"At every moment you must think of the yesterday and the morrow, of your flank and of your rear; calculate at the same time on the atmosphere and on the temper of your men; and all these elements, so various and so diverse, which are ceaselessly changing and renewed, you must combine in the midst of cold, heat, hunger, bullets."
"To be able to think with vigor, with depth, and with clearness in the recesses of the cabinet, is a great intellectual demonstration; but to think with equal vigor, clearness, and depth amidst the noise of bullets appears to me the loftiest exercise and the most complete triumph of human faculties."	"To think in the quiet of one's cabinet clearly, strongly, nobly—this undoubtedly is great; but to think as clearly, as strongly, as nobly, in the midst of carnage and fire, is the most perfect exercise of the human faculties."

A clever *jeu d'esprit*, which appeared at the same time, is also worth recalling:

"In sounding great Wellington's praise
Dizzy's grief and his truth both appear.
For a great flood of tears (Thiers) he lets fall
Which were certainly meant for sincere (St. Cyr)."

—Frankfort-on-Main was the seat of the "Association for the Reform and Codification of the Law of Nations," at its sixth annual Conference, August 20–24. The long and late session of the English Parliament, the preoccupation of the Germans in their election, and the various Congresses at Paris, Stockholm, and Geneva, combined to make the attendance smaller than in previous years; but the body was in better working order for being small, and it was sufficiently strong and representative to give weight to its conclusions. The report of the Council showed that the Rules of General Average adopted last year, and known as the "York and Antwerp Rules," had been widely approved in almost every country having relations to commerce; and also that the draft code on bills of exchange adopted at Bremen in 1876 had been substantially adopted by the Scandinavian kingdoms, and was regarded with favor in financial and official circles in Austria, Germany, England, and the United States. It was agreed to recommend eighteen months as the limit for bringing suit against the endorser of a protested note, the endorser to be entitled to a prompt notification of the protest. This is intended as a compromise between the English and American system on the one hand and the German and Austrian on the other. At the instance of the Committee on Patent Law and Copyright, special delegates were appointed to the Congresses on these subjects to meet at Paris in September. The Association recommended to the International Code Committee of New York to use its influence with the Government of the United States to procure in future treaties with foreign powers a declaration, that each country which is a party to such treaty shall guarantee to authors of all other countries the same rights which are secured to its own citizens by its law of copyright. The motive to this resolution was that, as the Bancroft treaty with Germany is about to be revised, such a clause might be introduced as an experiment, requiring only the sanction of the President and Senate, and preparing the way for a general law of international copyright by Congress. Sir Travers Twiss read a paper on "The necessity of an international concert to punish *criminally* the non-observance of the international rules of navigation for the prevention of collision on the high seas"; and a committee was charged to bring this matter to the notice of maritime powers.

—In public international law the Frankfort Conference was largely occupied with two points of special interest, which indicate a new departure. The first was war-indemnity, with special reference to the claim of an *aggressive* Power to indemnity in the event of conquest. Several theses were laid down, and among them the following:

"If an aggressive Power is allowed to indemnify itself equally with a Power which had repelled and conquered its invader, then indemnity, instead of being a restraint upon war, may be an incentive to war. Such an anomaly cannot fairly represent the Law of Nations. If it does, then the law calls loudly for reform."

After an animated discussion, the Association unanimously appointed a special committee to report upon this question at the next conference. The second point of attraction was this: The Chinese and Japanese embassies at London, Paris, and Berlin appeared at the Conference in person or by letter to remonstrate against the existing "Capitulations" as an offence to their national sovereignty and a hindrance to commercial intercourse with western nations. Their case was forcibly presented in English and in French, and Europeans and Americans were made to wince under the description by these Orientals of consuls deputed by western nations to administer justice in the East. The Japanese urged that, having abolished torture and cruel punishment, and having adopted the *Code Napoléon*, they should be trusted to administer their laws in accordance with modern civilization. The Chinese pleaded that changes in their laws and customs must necessarily be slow, but that Europeans should aim to help rather than hinder their development. Already in 1876 the Association had appointed a commission upon "the rules of intercourse between Christian and non-Christian peoples"; and the Japanese and Chinese deputations were now added to this commission, with a view to devising some system of mixed tribunals for the present period of transition.

—Among recent publications in Germany we may note the appearance of the first volume (containing Pindar) of a fourth edition of Bergk's invaluable corpus of the Greek Lyric Poets; the two others are promised at an early date. In 1871 Ritschl began a second edition of his critical recension of Plautus, assisted by Löwe, Götz, and Schöll, with the "Trinummus" as the first fasciculus of the first volume; it is probably to be continued by them, as the second fasciculus has now appeared ("Epidicus," by Götz). Georg Curtius, with L. Lange, O. Ribbeck, and H. Lipsius, has issued the first number of a new serial, *Leipziger Studien zur classischen Philologie*. It is to come out twice a year and contain select philological doctors' dissertations of the Leipzig University, as well as occasionally prize treatises, "habilitation" lectures, short contributions from the Philological Seminary and other scientific societies of Leipzig, and possibly contributions by the editors themselves. B. Westermann & Co. have sent us the specimen map of a series of 'Descriptiones nobilissimorum apud classicos locorum,' edited by A. von Kampen. The design is to furnish for each of the classic historians topographical maps, in sheets, to the extent that they may be needed to make the text intelligible. A beginning has been made with Cæsar and the fight with the Helvetii at Bibracte, and we have before us also the plan of Alesia with the surrounding country, the lines of the Roman circumvallation and camps, etc. Space is also found for a perspective view of Alesia, and sectional views of the various modes of fortification, the *cervus, stimulus, cippi*, etc. These maps are cheap, and, being detached, can easily be consulted by students of the Gallic War, book in hand. From Westermann & Co. we have also received two ponderous volumes, consisting of nearly 1,000 pages, on the Civilized Countries of Ancient America (*Die Culturländer des alten Amerika*), by A. Bastian. The first volume is occupied with the narrative of a year's journey in Ecuador, Columbia, and Guatemala, the second is ethnological and historical. Any further account of these works must necessarily be postponed, but special students need only the guarantee of the author's name.

ALBERT SIDNEY JOHNSTON.—I.*

THE place of Albert Sidney Johnston among the military officers who fought for the Confederacy in the Great Rebellion is a peculiar one. By common consent he is treated as one of the leading characters of the war, yet his career in it was brief and marked only by disasters to the cause he had espoused. As departmental commander in the West, he had to bear the responsibility of the loss of Forts Henry and Donelson, the evacuation of Columbus on the Mississippi River, the abandonment of the great central region of the theatre of war from Bowling Green in Kentucky to North Alabama and Mississippi, and the disaster of Pea Ridge, Missouri, which permanently crippled the Confederacy west of the Mississippi River. He died at Shiloh just before the turn in the tide of that battle and when victory seemed just within his grasp. But the second day's fighting brought a reverse to the Southern arms, and his death is therefore permanently associated with a great defeat of his army, a triumph of the national forces, which marked a most important crisis in the war.

That the biographer is his son would make it certain, in advance, that

* 'The Life of General Albert Sidney Johnston, embracing his Services in the Armies of the United States, the Republic of Texas, and the Confederate States. By William Preston Johnston.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 8vo, pp 755.

the estimate of his life would not be coldly critical. It is, in fact, a warm and affectionate eulogy, in which no little literary skill is used to heighten the color of whatever can honor his memory and to apologize for whatever could detract from his fame. The plan of the book was made to include several brief historical episodes which serve to refresh the reader's memory in regard to events lost from view and dim in the remembrance of the present generation, though not yet part of the standard histories of the time. The Indian question and the causes of the Black Hawk war, the Texan war of independence and annexation to the United States, the rise of Mormonism and its threatened rebellion, are each in turn treated in a brief but clear sketch, interesting in itself, and lending increased importance to Johnston's connection with each. The effect is perhaps to exaggerate the consequence of his earlier career by the tacit implication that his influence upon the events narrated was a strong one ; and the critical reader is occasionally made to suspect that this is part of the pardonable if not praiseworthy art of the biographer.

The real question in regard to Albert Sidney Johnston is, whether the admirable traits of character which made his private life in most respects a model, and which excited great expectations of him as a commanding general, were really supplemented by the force of will and courage of intellect which are necessary to make a great leader in the field. Romancers may make the business of war one in which tender human sympathies and modest deference to the opinions and wishes of others may be in full activity of exercise whilst campaigns are going on ; but the truth is that too clear a vision of the suffering caused by a battle, of the miseries of a people who live in the theatre of war, and especially of the tremendous consequences hanging upon the decision to offer battle, has a tendency to paralyze the will in proportion to the clearness with which contingent results are apprehended. Many an officer of highest personal courage has flinched under the responsibilities of a chief command, and has so entered the category of the familiar list of those who if they never had been chief would have been universally regarded as fit for the honor. The careful array in this book of all that can be said in the affirmative falls a little short of proving the greatest talents for commander in General Sidney Johnston. A longer career might have given the demonstration which is not now complete, for we take it that since his biographer insists that Grant and Sherman learned valuable lessons from his attack at Shiloh, it would not be denied that he too was gaining knowledge with experience in the campaign which saw his plans crumble with the advance of the Union soldiers and Foote's gunboats up the Cumberland and Tennessee Rivers.

We think Johnston suffers from the too great claims made for him as a soldier prior to his appointment in the Confederate service. We are told, for instance, on the authority of Richard Taylor, that Gen. Zachary Taylor had called him "the best soldier he had ever commanded" ; but how can this appear otherwise than absurd when we remember that the only service of Johnston in Taylor's command in battle was as a volunteer staff officer in the single battle of Monterey, where the careful scrutiny of his biographer fails to show us anything so extraordinary (*good* conduct he exhibited, of course) as to warrant so exceptional praise. So, also, the exclamation of "two foreign officers" on leaving his tent at Bowling Green, before he had fought a battle, that he was "the very *beau ideal* of a general," can only be regarded as a tribute of admiration to his imposing presence and admirable deportment, backed no doubt by the real intelligence and character his conversation showed. As a military judgment it can have no weight in the absence of real exploits. We would not forget that in a memoir of this kind family affection may properly love to gather and preserve the tributes of admiration paid him, but care should be taken to draw the line between these proofs of personal love and friendship and the public evidence of achievement. He went into a great struggle overweighted with a reputation which gave him no room for the inevitable mistakes of inexperience, and for the hardening process only to be got by familiarity in the practice of command amidst great perils. If these conditions could be annulled there would be no difference between the veteran and the recruit. A truer judgment of him, as we think, would be made by emphasizing rather than blurring the absence of experience in real war which marked his somewhat long connection with military affairs.

What, then, were the facts ? A graduate of West Point, he had served on the staff of General Atkinson in the brief Indian campaign known as the Black Hawk war. Resigning while still a subaltern, after some years of civil life he volunteered in the Texas revolution, but whilst useful and active as organizer and in the discipline of troops, fortune gave him no opportunity to see or participate in a battle. He became Secretary of War for the little Texan State, and performed his administrative duties well. The war between the United States and Mexico came, and he was made colonel of a Texas volunteer regiment, which, however, did not join Taylor's command till after the battles of Palo Alto and Resaca. Before the next engagement, that of Monterey, the regiment claimed the expiration of its sixty days' enlistment and was disbanded ; but Johnston served, as we have already stated, on the staff as assistant inspector-general. Failing of another regular appointment, he went home ; and during the remainder of the war was engaged in farming—a promise to his wife being in the way of his further volunteering. A little later he was made a paymaster in the United States army, and in 1855, on the recommendation of the Legislature of Texas, and by the strong influence of his friend Jefferson Davis, then Pierce's Secretary of War, he was made colonel of a new regiment of United States cavalry. As its commandant he had charge of the frontier of Texas, and portions of his troops had skirmishes with Indians, but it does not appear that there was any engagement of sufficient importance to justify his presence in person. He was assigned to the command of the expedition to Utah in 1857, but no hostile collision occurred. Next came a departmental command in California, during which the Rebellion came, and Johnston resigned, as did many other Southern officers of the army, to join the Confederacy. It will thus be seen that it was literally true that Sidney Johnston had never been in personal command of troops in battle until he went upon the field at Shiloh on the last day of his life. He had shown merit in all the duties of other kinds which had been given him to do ; but their performance, while it gave hope and expectation of success in the greater responsibilities, was not a test of generalship, and the extravagant praise of which we have given samples is injudiciously repeated, since it challenges the enquiry : What had been accomplished to warrant it ?

The point upon which criticism of Johnston's generalship has been severest is his inaction during the time that Grant and Foote were moving on Forts Henry and Donelson. Not to go into the tedious dispute as to the relative numbers of his forces and those opposed to him, but assuming that his army was inferior to the national, it seems to us that he must stand convicted of having done much less than might fairly have been expected of a general of really great character. It will be remembered that the Confederate line extended from Columbus, on the Mississippi River, through Bowling Green to the mountain region of Eastern Kentucky. Forts Henry and Donelson were intended to close the Tennessee and Cumberland rivers respectively, and formed part of the line. Johnston himself was at or near Bowling Green, which had been carefully fortified with field-works. It is asserted for him that his forces were so inferior in strength that any aggressive movement would have displayed his weakness and dispelled the illusions of the Union officers as to his numerical superiority. Hence the conclusion is drawn that there was nothing left for him but to distribute his army as well as he could at important points, and wait patiently till his adversaries chose to take the initiative, when he would make the stoutest resistance he could, and if beaten at any one point, reform his broken line in Northern Alabama and Mississippi, abandoning half of Kentucky and the whole of Tennessee.

The masters in the art of war have not been wont to accept any such defensive rôle, and Johnston's adoption of it must bar his claim to enter the very first rank of generals. But, waiving this, his allowing Donelson to be attacked and captured without putting every available man at that critical point, and giving them the courage and inspiration of his own presence, must be regarded in a military point of view as a very grave fault. Colonel Mumford, who was on his staff, is quoted (p. 491) as telling that "a few weeks" before these events Johnston had confided to him his expectation that the national armies would operate by the rivers, and probably break his line there. He did not expect Buell to attack him in his entrenchments at Bowling Green—he only wished he would ! Accepting this as the real condition of his mind, it is too clear for argument that, if he had any faith in his personal power to lead men, his place was at Donelson when the attack was made. The event proved that the incompetency of the officers in command there was the chief cause of an immediate disaster. The will and courage which Johnston afterward showed on the field at Shiloh, and one more division, might have turned disaster into triumph. This is no mere judgment after the fact. We have shown that he anticipated the result, and that all the elements of the calculation were in his hands weeks before. Henry fell on the 6th of February, Donelson on the 16th, ten days afterward. His troops marched in retreat from Bowling Green on the 11th, and by the time the surrender of Donelson was completed they were south of Nashville. These

dates tell their own story. They show that the troops which might have been at Donelson were not at Bowling Green, and were not wanted there when the crisis came. A moiety of them under the lead of Hardee would have done all that the whole did in delaying the advance of Buell, and Johnston in person with the rest on the Cumberland, after the check to Foote's flotilla, might have driven Grant back to the Ohio. Such a result would have been a much better check to Buell than could have been given in any other way. Indeed, it is difficult to tell how great might have been the change in the history of the war. The end would have been the same, but it might have been longer coming. Mindful of the sound maxim that it is not for a general to command success, but only to deserve it, we do not judge Johnston for his defeat, but for having plainly failed to do what the rules of military art called for—for not seizing vigorously and promptly the favoring chances which the advanced position of Grant's attack gave him. The audacity of the Federal commander was a great virtue in him, and, to justify his own claim to generalship, Johnston should have met it with an audacity and vigor at least equal.

RECENT NOVELS.*

'DOSIA' and 'Ariadne' are two pleasant books, written about Russian things and people, by a lady who evidently finds life go on as easily in Russia as elsewhere. She describes no dim limbo where unquiet spirits roam, each with a vital discontent and a vague hope hugged to the heart. None of her heroes want to overturn society; nor do her heroines desperately free themselves from the intolerable burden of family life. Aristocratic circles in St. Petersburg are much like those of other capitals, and one would never recognize Henry Gréville's Russia as the dreary land where Turgeneff's heroes dream vague but destructive dreams. 'Dosia' is a pretty ordinary kind of a story, one of its best points being the description of the heroine's early tom-boy existence. Her superfluous activity wears off and leaves a charming girl, who goes through her love story and its trials very satisfactorily. There is some *couleur locale* in the book, but more of that atmosphere of "good society," which is the same everywhere. 'Ariadne' has far more claim to pathos and plot, and a much more characteristic touch. The Princess Olga, reckless, proud, ruining Ariadne's life thoughtlessly, like the school-girl that she is, then as hastily endeavoring to make up for her injuries by lavishing affection and taking her into her own home, is certainly unhackneyed, and Ariadne, with her superb voice and her gentle nature, is like some beautiful butterfly in the hands of a child who first insists on stroking it, as a proof of affection, and then kills it, as Olga does Ariadne.

Many writers, we suppose, find it difficult to construct a satisfactory plot, but only Mrs. Molesworth, so far as we know, has solved the problem by taking 'Pride and Prejudice' from the shelf, and using that admirable plot for her own story. There is something to be said in favor of such a method. It cannot be called plagiarism, for it is innocently open and complete, and the effect is of pleasant variations on a favorite tune; and it is most unlikely that Mrs. Molesworth, if she had attempted to be original, could have been as successful. With this allowance 'Hathercourt' is pleasant summer-reading. Lilias Western is a shade livelier than Jane Bennett, but Mary, though she has an honest charm of her own, bears no comparison with our dear Elizabeth. Mr. Cheviott has more temper and less wit than Darcy. Mrs. Bennett is quite unrepresented; and there are no officers, which is a great loss. Still, the identity of circumstance is so absolute throughout the book as to be rather bewildering. We recommend Dunlop's 'History of Fiction,' or some of the Italian collections of *Novelle*, to Mrs. Molesworth.

Florence Montgomery has written one or two pathetic child's stories—*i.e.*, stories *about* children—not at all stories *for* children; and they have had a tearful success; but in attempting in 'Seaforth' a larger canvas she is unable to draw her figures to scale, and lapses into the melodramatic shallows which are perilously near to the course of her smaller stories. We can say truly that there is not a natural person in the book; hero and heroine are both impossible, and the minor characters stalk and strut, fold their arms—do everything but say Ha! There is a pretty little sketch of an idyllic family life passed near Monaco by the mother and sisters of the hero after he leaves them "to take his state upon him," and there are two refreshingly rampant boys who ask for what they want and get as much as they can of it, in a way quite inconsistent with the dark secrets and tragic manners which pervade the book. Notwithstanding all this, if any one likes to read 'Seaforth,' they will recognize something of the same quality which has been found so attractive in other books by the same author.

Of the five volumes of Appleton's New Handy Volume Series which are in hand there is not much to be said, as they make no great claims—only, we suppose, to soothe partially the annoyances of travel—and they might very well help one to forget for a short time the cinders threatening one's eye-sight, and the children eating and squabbling on the next seat. There is a good deal of variety in the little books—booklings, booklets—what should we call them? 'Jet,' by Mrs. Edwards, scrambles gaily through the debatable land of shabby foreign society, and carries a gleam of youth and innocence with her. 'The Fisherman of Auge' is a Norman story of peasant loves and trials; clean and honest—safe to offer to the young lady next you in the train. 'Misericordia' is one of the odious stories where wrong is so charming, so full of the best sentiments, that it is simply brutal to call it by its name, and right has not "a leg to stand on"; 'A Struggle' is interesting mainly because the scene is laid on the frontier of France, just where and when the German army entered, and the personal story gathers vitality and dignity from the great events around it. 'Gordon Baldwin' is a story of the American Colony in Paris, and is somewhat hard and shallow and melodramatic. 'The Philosopher's Pendulum' we have seen before.

'The Adventures of an American Consul Abroad' have almost a painful verity in them. We are sure of the accuracy of description of every shabby necessity encountered, and every honest endeavor made of no effect. We recommend that the book be printed in pamphlet form and distributed to members of Congress.

'Saxe Holm's Stories' in this instance are five short love-stories, the anonymous writer evidently being convinced that no other subject is much worth treating. The book might bear for motto the old doggerel:

> "Oh! 'tis love, 'tis love, 'tis love
> That makes the world go round."

Two of these stories are good—"Farmer Bassett's Romance" and "Joe Hale's Red Stockings"—but the others float in an atmosphere of unreality. There is but a small portion of romance in Farmer Bassett's case, but there is an almost humorous truth of detail really applicable to whole classes as well as to individuals, in what may be called the history of his heart. John Bassett, a farmer of very unusual wealth and leisure, is captivated, or thinks himself captivated, by Miss Fanny Lane, a New York girl, who boards in the autumn in the New England hill-town where John is native. John drives Miss Lane and her mother about the country—they supposing him hired for that purpose by the innkeeper, while in fact he does it to please himself; and he finds Miss Lane's enthusiasm for the country and the autumn sympathetic and soothing. In the winter he goes to see her in New York, and his feeble flame is wholly quenched by seeing a well-furnished parlor and Miss Lane in full dinner dress—circumstances not usually destructive to a healthy passion. Next Mr. Bassett goes home, and, though by no means free from haunting remembrances, he acquiescently marries a gentle neighbor who has patiently waited and hoped. There seems but little enthusiasm about this marriage and at the year's close it is ended by the wife's death. John Bassett puts up with poor servants and bad housekeeping a while, and suddenly marries a notable widow; and the last scene shows her fingering and allotting the poor little finery of the first wife. Altogether, John Bassett may have been a discreet but was anything but a romantic person. "Joe Hale's Red Stockings" might be true, every word of it, and has pleasant pictures of sea and shore, light-house and hospital, and of human beings leading lives therein which make it more remarkable that the same author should write such stuff as "My Tourmaline." It is quite safe to advise an anonymous writer, and certainly if Saxe Holm will study the modesty of nature more exclusively her stories will have a better chance of survival.

The historical romance 'Ponce de Leon; or, The Rise of the Argen-

* 'Ariadne: A Novel. From the French of Henry Gréville.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878.
'Dosia: A Russian Story. From the French of Henry Gréville. By Mary Neal Sherwood, translator of 'Sidonie,' 'Jack,' etc.' Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
'Hathercourt. By Mrs. Molesworth ("Ennis Graham"), author of 'The Cuckoo Clock,' 'Carrots,' etc., etc.' New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1878.
'Seaforth. By Florence Montgomery, author of 'Misunderstood,' 'Thrown Together.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1878.
'Jet: Her Face or her Fortune. By Mrs. Annie Edwards, author of 'Archie Lovel,' 'A Blue-stocking,' etc.' (New Handy Volume Series.) New York: D. Appleton & Co.
Same Series:
'The Fisherman of Auge. By Katharine S. Macquoid.'
'Misericordia. By Ethel Lynn Linton.'
'A Struggle. By Barnet Philips.'
'Gordon Baldwin and the Philosopher's Pendulum. By Rudolph Lindau.'
'Adventures of a Consul Abroad. By Samuel Sampleton, Esq., late United States Consul at Verde Cuerno.' Boston: Lee & Shepherd. 1878.
'Saxe Holm's Stories.' Second series. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1878.
'Ponce de Leon; or, The Rise of the Argentine Republic. By an Estanciero.' London: Chapman & Hall. 1878.

tine Republic,' merits more than a passing notice, less for superior excellence as a literary work than as the vivid portrait of a struggle for political freedom in earnestness and heroism scarcely second to our own master Revolution. Separated as we are by language and latitude from the assemblage of republics sprung from resistance to Spanish dominion in America, alienated by the spectacle of frequent dissensions among their peoples and the revolting exhibitions of human selfishness and cruelty which attend them, it is difficult for us to estimate justly the significance of their gradual and troubled progress. In the light of our finer civilization and attainment, all forms of government similar to our own seem but an imperfect realization of popular will, and we are wont to consider the establishment of democracy in South America as a minor event in the splendid march of republicanism to which our history has given its greatest lustre. Yet we cannot forget the homage rendered to us by the patriots of our earlier century, who, under circumstances no less disheartening, bravely followed the example of our ancestors, and, warned by the merited failure of the Revolution of '89, wisely and dispassionately sought to found a government that should harmonize with the character of a people which tradition and education had apparently for ever debarred from the enjoyment of free institutions. The principles of Magna Charta were to our fathers a lofty encouragement; the Spanish-American patriot had been nurtured only in the hopeless tyranny of the Roman law. To our achievement of independence they owed the aspirations that have lifted their countrymen into the brotherhood of nations, and in many respects entitled them to republican sympathy and esteem. They are as yet great only in the sense of possibilities unlimited; still, the vital elements of grander accomplishment are visible in their ardent love of liberty and their readiness to adopt reform so far as existing opinions permit; and, surely, remembering the cause of our late civil war, we may well pause in our every-day strictures upon a people that dared to embody in its written Constitution the simple, dignified, and humane utterance: "En la Nacion Argentina no hay esclavitud."

The chronicle before us is admirably written, and in accordance with documentary records of the period. The impersonation of leading characters is careful and inspiring, and the details of native life, still essentially unchanged, strictly accurate. It were an invidious criticism to maintain that the Argentines of to-day, by their reluctance to abrogate the law of mortmain, the union of church and state guaranteed by the Constitution, and the refusal to adopt trial by jury in civil suits, are not wholly true to the spirit which animated their ancestors. Are we, then, yet as true as our heroes were? The motives which actuate that unconscionable nomad, the gaucho, notwithstanding the glamour thrown about his life by the author of 'Barbarism and Civilization,' may well be questioned; but will the history of our late war—the enormous bounties, the fraud and corruption, the enemies in our own households—bear impartial scrutiny? Yet the courage and devotion of the "paisanos" are well and faithfully depicted in these pages, and it may be doubted whether the natives of that time had yet acquired the savagery which subsequent familiarity with bloodshed has induced. Certainly, the hordes of Attila can hardly have presented a more ferocious aspect than a squadron of Argentine cavalry during a "revolution" *en règle*. The romance happily blended with the history in this volume is natural and engaging, though scarcely rising to the chaste elegance and charm which mark, here and there, a Spanish-American novel (as in 'El Oficial Mayor,' a Mexican story, in which the characters of Rafael and Virginia recall Chateaubriand and St. Pierre). There is want of clearness and decision in the youth Ponce de Leon—not rare, however, in the royalists during our own Revolution—and certain defects of language leave one strangely in doubt as to native or foreign authorship; yet, throughout, the book is lively, thoughtful, and entertaining, and one may rest assured that the thrilling incidents with which the narrative is interspersed have their parallel in the actual history of the Republic. Amidst the speculative productions of the day, and the emotional intensity which genius and knowledge have infused into our best novels, it is a relief to step back into the free atmosphere of that heroic epoch when the love of country dwarfed all other loves; to ride forth beneath those "balmy airs," released from introspection, and mindful not so much of a future unfulfilled as of a glorious present to which that future must be subservient.

Epochs of Modern History. The Beginning of the Middle Ages. By R. W. Church, Dean of St. Paul's, Honorary Fellow of Oriel. With three maps. (New York: Scribner, Armstrong & Co. 16mo, pp. 226.)—This volume, which is correctly described by the author as "an introduction or preface to the series of 'Epochs of Modern History,' rather than as an integral member of the series," covers in the main the same ground as Mr. Curteis's 'Roman Empire,' reviewed by us some months ago. It is brought down, however, two centuries later, to the close of the tenth century, and is, moreover, quite different in its aim, being rather discursive than narrative, and not entering much into detail even in the history of thought and of institutions. The two books supplement one another excellently.

Mr. Church has given an admirable condensed view of the great lines of events during this period of six hundred years, and is particularly good in relation to the influence of Christianity and the Christian church. He presents very clearly (p. 32) the two great questions which were at issue at the commencement of the barbarian period—whether the Goths or the Franks should be the ruling race, the Arian or the Orthodox faith the ruling theology, of the West—questions determined by the adoption of the Orthodox form of faith by the conquering Franks. In the following chapter, too, where (p. 47) the three Roman elements—religion, law, and language—to which the German conquerors were subjected are described, the first of these is made particularly full and clear. Neither does he understate the corruptions of the Church itself by contact with these barbarians and by the possession of power; but he does not by any means do justice to the influence of these corruptions and of the excessive intolerance of the Church in assisting the conquests of the Saracens. It seems to us, too, that he fails to do justice to the Isaurian emperors in their iconoclastic crusade. He does not, however, fail to do justice to this dynasty as able rulers and defenders of Christendom, and as infusing a new life into the Empire (p. 110). Even here, however, he is not as explicit as might be desired in regard to the administrative reforms of Leo the Isaurian, and, indeed, in general, is less satisfactory in treating of constitutional and administrative points than in the more strictly historical parts. For example, the account of the Teutonic organization (p. 45) is far from satisfactory. The conquerors are said to have "divided the land as they settled, either adopting the old divisions, like the *Pagus* (*Pays*), or the *Civitas*, with other indeterminate subdivisions in Gaul, or creating new ones of their own in the more purely Teutonic districts, the *Gau*, and the *Mark* in Germany." Not a word of the *Hundred*, the most fundamental and permanent of all. Moreover, the *Pagus* (district) was the *Civitas*—that is, was the territory of the *Civitas;* and the *Civitas* was the *Gau*—that is, was made use of by the conquerors for their purposes, received the name, in their system, of *Gau*, and was governed by their regular functionary, the *Graf* or *comes*. What is meant, too, by "indeterminate subdivisions?" Neither was there at this period "a hierarchy of chiefs"; the dukes were not governors of the larger provinces, and the counts of "subordinate ones." The counts were *co-ordinate* with the dukes, but governed only one Gau each, while the dukes had two or more temporarily united. Again, it is not at all correct to say (p. 55) that the Roman municipal system continued in northern Gaul, with more or less modification, until "the close Latin municipality gradually passed into a more popular body, which was to become the 'commune' or the 'commonalty' of later times." This statement would be overdrawn even for southern Gaul and Italy, where the municipal life came much more near to being continuous.

The Witchery of Archery. A Complete Manual of Archery, with some chapters of adventures by field and flood, and an appendix containing practical directions for the manufacture and use of archery implements. By Maurice Thompson. Illustrated. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1878.)—In spite of its touch of clap-trap in the title, the 'Witchery of Archery' is a sensible little book for which we forebode success. Almost any occupation which keeps people out of doors and amused is so far good, and in this country fashions spread with such an unchecked flow that Mr. Thompson may not unreasonably expect youths and maidens to order their bows and arrows next spring with the rest of their summer outfit. He writes as an enthusiast for his sport, and shows the hopefulness, quick observation, and endurance appropriate to sportsmen, and he gives, by-the-bye, vivacious descriptions of Southern birds and trees, swamps and snakes. We do not know how far his directions to incipient archers apply to northern climates; but in either North or South we must protest against woodpeckers as the chosen target for beginners. Snowy herons and wild ducks may be appropriate game, but leave us our home birds, with the tapping or chirping or whistling which are sweet from association. Wallace describes a fashion of shooting which certainly has its advantages, and which we offer as a suggestion to Mr. Thompson. In the Arru islands the natives shoot the birds-of-paradise "with a bow and arrow, the arrow having a conical wooden cap

fitted to the end as large as a tea-cup, so as to kill the bird by the violence of the blow, without shedding blood or making any wound."

How to Parse. By E. A. Abbott. (Boston : Roberts Bros. 1878.)—We recommend this little book to the careful attention of teachers and others interested in instruction. We do not agree with the author in all his rules and statements. We are inclined to suspect that he attaches too much importance to parsing, as parsing. Again, a more comprehensive study of Indo-European philology in general, and of Germanic philology in particular, would perhaps lead him to modify some of his views. Nevertheless, as a vigorous attempt to relieve "parsing" of its arbitrariness and to explain, on historical or on logical principles, even the more complicated constructions of our language, Dr. Abbott's manual is deserving of warm praise. The sections which treat of the "Subjunctive Mood" and of "Irregularities" are especially valuable. In the hands of an able teacher the book should help to relieve parsing from the reproach of being the bane of the school-room. The Etymological Glossary of Grammatical Terms will also supply a long-felt want, although it is not quite as complete as we could have desired. For instance, while "cognate," as applied to the object-accusative, is defined, we find no mention of the "factitive" accusative.

Texts from the Buddhist Canon Dhammapada. By Samuel Beal. [Vol XII. of the English and Foreign Philosophical Library.] (Boston : Houghton & Osgood. 1878.)—This is a translation, or rather a free abstract, by a competent scholar of an old Chinese version of the Dhammapada. It was formerly supposed that no copy of the Dhammapada existed in China, but the editor had the good fortune to discover four Chinese works closely resembling the Pâli version. The one which he has selected for his rendering is the second, the Fă-Kheu-pi-ü, made by two Shamans of the western Tsin dynasty (A.D. 265 to 313). His object has been, not to institute a comparison between the Pâli and Chinese copies of the Dhammapada, but "to show the method adopted by the early Buddhist teachers and preachers who were mainly instrumental in diffusing a knowledge of this religion through the Eastern world. The simple method of Parable was the one used." The editor adds that this work has strengthened him in his conviction that the primitive idea of Nirvâna was that of "a state of rest and peace, resulting from the absence of sorrow and the delusions of sense." He also expresses the hope that students may be induced to take up the subject of Buddhism in China ; for until its principles and terminology are thoroughly understood it will be impossible to place Christian doctrine clearly before the people.

*** Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
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Trench (Rev. R. C.), Lectures on Mediæval Church History	(Chas. Scribner's Sons)	3 00
Tylor (E. B.), Early History of Mankind	(Henry Holt & Co.)	3 50
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 3, 1878.

The Week.

THE Republican Convention of this State held its meeting duly on the 26th ult., at Saratoga. As there was only one nomination, that of judge of the Court of Appeals, to make, the formal business was soon done, and the Convention went to work at its real object, which was to enable Senator Conkling to break the silence about the currency which he has so long maintained, and make a hard-money speech, and in so doing to restore "harmony in the party." All the reports agree in pronouncing the Convention the most "harmonious" that has ever met on our soil. The *Times* declares that there was so much harmony that at one time "there seemed to be something in the air which made children of strong men. Many of the delegates were affected to tears." Things being in this condition, Mr. Conkling was "conducted to the stage" in his new character of a harmonious man, and made a speech that made "strong men" cry again. Mr. G. W. Curtis applauded him, and even "Geo. H. Foster had not a word to say against him." The speech was carefully prepared, and showed the improvement in the finances effected by the Republican party, the folly of inflation, and the respectability of bondholding; maintained the fitness of the Republican party to dispose of all the problems arising out of the war, and then castigated the Democrats. In fact the peroration was a wave of the "bloody shirt," showing that there is danger that the country will, after the next election, pass under the domination of the late enemies of the Government, and that the negroes are prevented from voting by tricks and intimidation. The rhetoric here was the kind in which these subjects are usually discussed. The Chisholm murders were represented as consequences of the overthrow of the Republican party in the State of Mississippi, and the patience of the American people, "when the blood of the Chisholms and others sickens humanity," was contrasted unfavorably by the Senator with the fury into which "pagan Rome" was thrown by the death of Virginia. Resistance of the South Carolina whiskey-distillers to the revenue officers he styled "open defiance to the power of the nation." He then rebuked the persons, whoever they are, "who are trying to divert the attention of the Republicans of New York from the questions which now urge themselves upon us," and sat down amid general harmony.

The platform pledged the faith of the nation to the payment of the public debt; called for resumption on the appointed day; advocated hard money; approved of the decision of the Electoral Commission two years ago; warned the people against the "horde of claims and raids on the Treasury" which the Democrats would probably set on foot; demanded "free and unintimidated elections," and proposed that the Republican party should work until they were obtained; acknowledged the existence of many patriotic Democrats, but denounced the party in general as a "constant disturber," "a wanton foe," "a persistent assaulter," "a false pretender," "a cripler of the army," "an aggravator of troubles," and "a chief support" of inflation and financial disorder, and recommended that it should have no more offices or power.

As an argument on finance Mr. Conkling's speech amounted to very little, but it had its value as showing that he and his supporters are convinced that the financial question is the question of the day, and, taken in connection with the addresses Messrs. Garfield and Blaine have been delivering, both really powerful and making no mention whatever of the "bloody shirt," it must be admitted that the Maine election was not a bad thing, for it has wrought all these wonders. There never was a more shocking blow given to a false issue than the repudiation of the Southern question by Mr. Blaine's own State, and the relegation of Mr. Eugene Hale to private life.

The New York Democratic Convention at Syracuse was perhaps the noisiest, most rowdy, ill-natured, and riotous body of men which ever represented the ruling party of a great commonwealth. The delegates came together as Tammany and anti-Tammany men, and the contest was from the first a lively one. The main question was which of the New York and Brooklyn delegations, Tammany or anti-Tammany, should be admitted to the Convention, and the first issue was whether the Tammany delegates who were on the floor should have a vote in the preliminary proceedings, particularly the appointment of the Committee upon Contested Seats. By a ruling of the chair that delegates could vote until unseated Tammany won, and thus obtained the deciding voice as to its own claim to be representative of New York Democracy. The Committee, although Tammany had a clear majority in it, refused seats to the contesting delegations in all cases, thus admitting some Tilden men. Bad blood had been bred by the long fray, in one part of which the police had to interfere to prevent a downright fight, and the chairman was denounced at a private meeting of the Tilden men, and the secretaries called "thieves" and accused of "cheating in the count." On renewal of the conflict Tammany secured the State Committee, but fearful that its majority would prove untrustworthy, it attempted to place the matter beyond doubt by adding delegates at large; but this attempt to capture the Committee was too palpable to be successful. Tammany also failed to win the nomination for the judgeship of the Court of Appeals, and thus the corrupt bargain of the St. Lawrence County delegates, who gave their votes to Tammany in exchange for Tammany's support of Judge Sawyer, was futile. On the whole, although every faction is disappointed and furiously angry, Kelly obtained the victory, but the question which party really controls the State Committee is undecided, since both parties seem to admit that the largest bribes will carry the day. The platform was not noticeable for strength or directness of statement, and Tammany yielded in the beginning an endorsement of Gov. Robinson.

The Massachusetts Democrats who fled from Worcester to the protection of Faneuil Hall, in order to protest against the pretensions of Butler to represent them, by the aid of empty galleries and a strong cordon of police succeeded in their efforts with a harmony that has been of late a stranger in the Democratic house. Fear of Butler was the one thing which the convention represented. Its chairman spent an entire hour in vigorous denunciation of him; its only excitement was when a known supporter of him was denied speech and hustled out by the police. Its platform, with its declarations of fidelity to the interests of labor, its cries against monopolies and its call for retrenchment, was almost pathetic in its attempt to win votes for which Butler bids so much higher. Finally, its nomination of Judge Abbott and his associates on the ticket is a device to maintain the organization of the party, that the prodigals may return to it when their present wanderings are over. But now that the respectable Democrats have asserted the dignity of the party and the consistency of its principles, and have gone home, what will they do about it? The Boston *Post*, with its customary liveliness, calls loudly to the Republicans to vote for Abbott as the only certain way to avoid the disgrace of Butler. We hope this may be interpreted by contraries to mean that the respectable Democrats are likely to prefer the dignity and consistency of the State to that of the party, and that they do not feel free to throw away their votes merely for the sake of showing that Butler did not capture the "regular" convention.

A correspondent writes in criticism of our comment on Butler's success at Worcester to much the same effect as Mr. Frank Bird's

published letter in justification of the State Committee. He holds that the supporters of Butler were not a majority of the regularly elected Democrats and did not represent Democrats; and, secondly, that the disregard of forms prevented the gathering from being, as we called it, a "real convention of the party." As regards the first point, the evidence is contradictory, and the decision as to which side had a majority of the actual Democratic vote must be given according to individual judgment, and must wait for verification until an analysis of the vote after the election. As regards the second point, forms are, of course, necessary, but only so long as they really aid the convention to preserve its integrity as a representative body and to obtain control of itself readily; should there be, however, an attempt to use its customary preliminary forms, such as deciding who are *prima-facie* delegates, to manipulate the delegations so that the convention by its composition should come to represent other opinions and a different policy from that which the party actually maintains, then, we suppose, a right of revolution exists and may be properly exercised. The resolution of the State Committee, expressing its opinion that Butler delegates ought not to be admitted, was a declaration of war upon the Democrats who wished the candidacy of Butler, and, whether they acted on it or not, it made the reports of their excluding all such delegates credible and led to all the mischief. The important fact is that the Massachūsetts Democracy is divided into the respectable men, who are Democrats by tradition or principle and care for the historic honor of the name, and the rabble. Hitherto the rabble have submitted to leadership of the better class, but now they have found a more congenial master. Which is the larger part is at present doubtful.

That acute political observer, Mr. William E. Chandler, has made a timely discovery by which his Republican fellow-citizens of New Hampshire will be very obstinate if they refuse to profit. He shows them that making the greenback issue paramount in the late Maine canvass changed the Republican majority of that State (15,000) into a minority of more than 12,000; that the endorsement of Hayes last year changed the Massachusetts Republican majority (42,000) into a minority of nearly 2,000; that this year Republicans dare to meet in old Faneuil Hall, with Banks and Blaine and Simmons among them, without a single word being said in favor of political liberty and equal rights at the South, and that already the faint-hearted are calling on the Democrats to come to the rescue by voting for Talbot. He concludes, therefore, that the moral is the same for Massachusetts as for Maine, and for New Hampshire as for Massachusetts, and that his political associates would do well to try the experiment of making human rights the paramount issue, and greenbacks an incidental issue. The wag knows that this is his last chance of "making it hot under the old flag," but if he were in earnest he would still be excusable for believing that "paramount issues" do not come by "natural selection." He might concede, we suppose, that platform-makers often have the main issue forced upon them, but that any necessary relation or proportion exists between the issues of the platform and the issues of the stump is something which, with his recollection of the Hayes campaign, must appear to him highly ridiculous.

Mr. Schurz has appeared in the field as a financial orator again, and has delivered at Cincinnati another of those weighty and lucid addresses in which his command of a language he has learned in manhood is not less remarkable than his power of handling a difficult subject. Better still, it was impossible to detect one weak spot in the whole of it. Neither with regard to silver nor greenbacks nor bonds was there one particle of the shuffling and subterfuge and attempts to appease ignorance and credulity which some of his colleagues so delight in and think so 'cute. It ought to be said, too, that this has been a characteristic of his utterances on financial questions from the beginning, and it may be said of him that, as well as we can remember, he stands alone with Messrs. Bayard and Garfield among prominent men of both parties in never having once since this discreditable discussion first began descended to quibbling, evading, or shirking, or pretending that popular majorities could override the laws of trade—a position in which so many blatherskites have taken refuge when their hearts failed them. Just now, however, the amount of "courage" about finance which is showing itself in the Republican politicians is most gratifying. At every corner one meets statesmen who, however weak they may have been in the dark past, are willing, and indeed anxious, to sacrifice one of their legs in defence of the doctrines contained in the report of the Bullion Committee.

There has been a somewhat entertaining correspondence between Mr. Wendell Phillips and Mr. James G. Blaine on the merits of government legal-tender paper, "interconvertible with bonds for a long term and at a low rate of interest." Mr. Phillips thinks that it is very discreditable for the Republican party not to take up this plan, which would "save us from the Bourbon South in 1880." Mr. Blaine has had no difficulty in demolishing the scheme and showing its folly and the mischief it would work. There probably never was a more striking illustration of the respect paid to oratory than the gravity with which even busy and rational men discuss finance with Mr. Phillips, and the importance they appear to attach to convincing him. His financial ideas are those of a child, and he is no more open to conviction by argument than a phonograph, and yet nearly every year some politician has a solemn debate with him about currency and public credit. In this last controversy he declares that "the best European thought" is hastening towards the issue of all paper by the Government, and that "the best financial thought of Europe" is demanding the "interconvertible bond"; and the Boston *Advertiser* says "the calm with which he does this is amusing." It is; but there is a great deal more fun in him of the same kind. If he were pushed he would undoubtedly assert with equal "calm" that England and France were now issuing irredeemable paper, and that the "interconvertible bond" was all the rage among the European artisans.

Attorney-General Train, of Massachusetts, has written a terrible letter to the Boston *Transcript*, chastising that paper for some severe comments on his action in the Kimpton case, in which he lays great stress on the thoroughness of the investigation which he conducted, and on the editor's presumptive ignorance of the law of the matter. But most of his indignation is misdirected. It is not for his legal finding that the Governor had discretion that he is assailed, doubtful as that may be, but for the reasons he provided for the Governor's refusal. These are not legal but moral, on which an attorney-general's opinion counts for no more than that of other men. The first of them had bad faith stamped on its face, and was sufficient to relieve every one from the necessity of considering the second. It was that though the alleged offence had been committed in 1872 no indictment had been found till April, 1877, by which he sought to produce the impression that the government of South Carolina might have indicted Kimpton sooner, and exposed itself to suspicion through the delay. That Mr. Train knew well that Kimpton could not have been prosecuted until 1877, because the administration and archives of the State were in the hands of his confederates, and that he was indicted almost immediately after they were ousted, there can of course be no question, and his production of such a plea showed considerable hardihood. We do not know whether the *Transcript* is right in saying that it is owing to this incident that he has failed to obtain a renomination; but we do know that he richly merited some such rebuke, and that if the Convention administered it it deserved the thanks of the public.

The Surgeon-General of the United States Marine Hospital has addressed a letter to the Chambers of Commerce and Boards of Trade of several leading cities of the Union, to the effect that a philanthropic lady of New York, Mrs. Elizabeth Thompson, well known for her liberality in more than one direction, has offered, if

need be, to support the entire expense of a commission to enquire into the causes of the yellow fever and its treatment, such as the citizens of Memphis petitioned the President to appoint some time ago; but others are asked to join in defraying the costs. The object of the commission is mainly to investigate the original sources of the pestilence with a view to preventing its recurrence. Three members have been already appointed, and it is hoped that Congress will increase their number as soon as possible. Such an enquiry will be of the greatest use in settling the truth of the various reports, favorable and unfavorable, which have been circulated respecting the sanitary condition of Southern cities, and reform in them, if reform be needed; and certainly among all the generous deeds which the pestilence has called forth this stands out conspicuously as one of the most praiseworthy and intelligent. The fever itself keeps on its old course, and any improvement seems to be only temporary. The deaths already number above eight thousand by official report.

It has been a dull week in the financial markets. British consols declined ¼, and United States bonds in London advanced ⅛ to ⅜ on purchases for shipment to New York, where there was a continued good demand for them. Sterling exchange here fell to within one "point" of the figures at which gold coin can be imported, and the not unreasonable calculation that such a movement of gold will begin in the early future undoubtedly prompts the Bank of England not to reduce its discount rate below 5 per cent., although the bank holds bullion to the amount of about one-half of its liabilities. The German Government sold $500,000 silver bars during the week at 51⅝*d.* per oz. Since then the price has fallen to 51½*d.* to 51⅝*d.*, and the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar has fallen to as nearly as possible 87 cents gold. A notable feature in this market was the advance of about 1 per cent. in the rates for money on all classes of loans—demand and time—and on mercantile paper. The reserve of the New York banks has fallen below $10,000,000. At the Stock Exchange there was a speculation restricted to brokers and professional "operators." The general trade of the country continues to be good for the season.

The capture of Klobuk was prematurely announced last week, for it appears not to have taken place till Saturday last, after five days' violent bombardment by General Jovánovich. On the same day the fortress of Livno in Bosnia was carried by the Duke of Würtemberg, also after bombardment. The peaceable occupation of Zvornik has been twice announced, once as an accomplished fact, and afterwards as about to happen. Its surrender had become inevitable. A report of an Austrian victory south of Serayevo, at Vishegrad, has also been published, but without date or particulars. General Philippovich expresses his expectation of being able to dispense with three divisions by the end of October. Meantime the dispersed insurgents are concentrating in considerable force in the Novi-Bazar district; the Albanians, along the line of the Mitrovitza and Salonica railway.

At Pesth on Sunday the radical Hungarians, under the lead of some deputies of the Hungarian Diet, met and denounced the occupation of Bosnia in a series of resolutions which end by demanding the withdrawal of the army. Public sentiment sets so strongly this way that the Hungarian Ministry have given up the task of providing Hungary's contingent of the expenses of occupation before the Diet meets, and are said to have resigned in a body. All the troops that General Philippovich can spare, Count Andrássy will certainly make no delay in withdrawing, but common sense would seem to be on the side of the military party and the court in opposing to the bitter end the virtual abandonment of the country already acquired at so great cost of life and treasure. Francis Joseph lately assured a Croat delegation in strong terms that he considered withdrawal inevitable unless the trunk-line of railway should be continued from Sissek to Novi at the mouth of the Sanna, on the Bosnian frontier, and he urged them to try and induce the Hungarian Ministers to favor the project. They not only oppose it, however, on the very ground on which the Emperor advocates it, but because Hungary is interested in a railroad to Constantinople *via* Semlin, Belgrade, and the Morava Valley, with which it is feared the Sissek-Novi line might eventually compete, by extension to Mitrovitza.

The Greeks have made a sharp answer to Safvet Pasha's extraordinary circular-note, in which he refused to entertain the question of the cession of territory to Greece recommended by the Congress of Berlin, and advised the Powers to have nothing to do with the Greeks. The Greek Minister, M. Delyannis, points out that Turkey in signing the treaty accepted the principle that Greece ought to have an addition of territory, and that the new boundary should be settled by mutual agreement, or, failing that, by the mediation of the Powers; reports that he, therefore, pressed Safvet Pasha for a categorical answer; that the Pasha said he could not give one until he heard from the Powers in reply to his memorandum; declares that this is an evasion and is tantamount to a refusal to execute the treaty; and therefore calls on the Powers to proffer their mediation in accordance with its terms. This will put the English Cabinet in a position of some difficulty, as it is more and more apparent that the Turkish Empire is in great danger of dissolution, and any pressure just now would be likely to hasten it. The serious fact is that the European Mussulmans, who are the only part of the population the Constantinople Government could count on, are in open revolt against the Porte in Albania, Bosnia, and Rumelia, or disregard its orders. Mehemet Ali was murdered because he refused to put himself at the head of the insurgents. Midhat Pasha has been recalled, or, rather, allowed to return, and is to reside in Crete, but the stories of his governorship of Asia Minor appear to be at least premature. Germany has backed up the Greeks by a circular note of the 2d of September, calling attention to the failure of the Turks to execute the treaty.

We have discussed elsewhere the general character of the Anti-Socialist Bill which is now under debate before the German Reichstag, and has been referred to a committee of twenty-one for examination and amendment. The debate has been very dull thus far, only Bebel, the well-known Socialist, infusing life into it by accusing the Government of having coddled Socialism in times past, and challenging them to publish the results of the enquiry in the Nobiling case, which he maintained would show that the Socialists had nothing to do with the attempts at assassination. What was most interesting in it is the revelation it makes of the attitude of the various parties in the House towards the Bill. The Ultramontanes, through M. Reichensperger, opposed the bill as exceptional legislation, but advocated additions to the penal code for the better defence of property and marriage. The Conservatives proper accept the bill just as it stands through M. Helldorf, while the National Liberals, although admitting the necessity of some restrictive legislation, are not prepared to accept the present law without considerable modifications. They ask to have a term fixed for its operation, and a better tribunal than the Federal Council provided to hear appeals from the orders of the police. We have described on another page the recommendations made by the committee thus far in accordance with this suggestion.

Prince Bismarck made a speech, but did not go into the merits of the bill, confining himself to answering Bebel's charges of former relations with the Socialists, treating them in a serio-comic vein which put the Chamber in very good humor. He denied having ever negotiated with the Socialists, but acknowledged having had more or less intercourse with some of the chiefs, such as Lasalle, whom he liked as very good company. He made the remarkable declaration that, left to himself, he would never have given the Empire universal suffrage, but accepted it as one of the traditions of the Frankfort Parliament. It was only at the close that he touched on the main question, and declared that existence would be impossible "under the tyranny of such bandits" as had set on foot the late attempts at assassination in Germany and Russia.

THE CAUSES OF THE INDUSTRIAL DEPRESSION.

THE dispute between the English cotton operatives and the mill-owners has been revived by the continuance of the depression in spite of the submission of the operatives to the ten per cent. reduction in wages, which the employers maintained would enable them to find a market. The remedy suggested and insisted upon by the operatives was, it will be remembered, a diminution of production, and was based on the theory that cotton-spinning and weaving had been greatly overdone, and that as long as the same quantity was poured into the market prices not only would not rise but would probably fall. To this the employers replied that by working half-time, or less time, they would lose the interest on their fixed capital, and would, if they failed to push the sale of their wares, probably lose their market also; and that, in any case, the admission of the right of the operatives to dictate the general policy on which the business was to be conducted would be highly injurious, and might in the long run prove ruinous. Since the strike, however, the operatives' theory has been gaining ground, and is receiving powerful support from Mr. John Morley, who has been collecting a large number of important facts bearing on the question of the cause of the present distress, and all these facts point in one direction—over-production in certain great fields of industry, and notably in cotton and iron manufacture, coal-mining, and ship-building. All other explanations of the severe industrial crisis through which the world is passing have, as we have more than once maintained, broken down. The condition of England disposes of the tariff theory and of the "soft-money" theory. The condition of Germany disposes of the "losses-of-the-war" theory. The condition of France disposes of the heavy-taxation theory. In fact, it plainly appears that no system of currency, or taxation, or form of government, or military system, or peaceableness or aggressiveness has been sufficient to save a nation from depression. The one fact common to all the countries now suffering from it, and the one to which we therefore naturally turn for the key of the problem, is the enormous industrial activity of the past twenty-five years—that is, the prodigious investment of capital in the machinery of manufacture and transportation, and in the building of great cities.

There has been a good deal of discussion among economists as to whether there can be such a thing as a universal glut of commodities. Whether there can or not does not matter for the purpose of this discussion. There certainly can be a glut of certain things. There can be, for instance, more railroads than people need, either for travel or freight—a phenomenon which we witness here. There can be more cotton cloth produced than people will wear—a phenomenon witnessed at this moment both in England and France. There can be more iron made than people need for tools or machinery—a phenomenon witnessed both in England and this country. There can be more city houses built than people need to live in—a phenomenon witnessed both here and in France and Germany. In some of these things production has run ahead of population, owing to the great and rapid improvement in machinery. In others it has run ahead of the habits of the people, a fact to which we drew attention two years ago in these columns, and which Mr. Morley has illustrated by saying that no matter how cheap you make cotton shirts, a man will not wear two at a time. But it would be more apposite to say that, no matter how cheap you make them, the bulk of men will not put on a clean shirt every day and many not twice a week, simply because they dislike the trouble and do not feel the need of it. It has been found, for instance, in England that very high wages in certain trades, the iron and coal, for instance, such as prevailed from 1866 to 1873, did nothing to raise the standard of living amongst the men in any permanent way. They spent it in expensive wine and food, and much as the miners do or did in our own Western States; but they did not make the slightest attempt to approximate their style of living in dress, furniture, and dwellings to that of the middle class. That a continuance of such wages might eventually give to the coal-miner the wants and habits of a bank cashier or college professor is possible, but it would take a good deal of time and probably more than one generation. The comforts accessible to the workingman, and which he makes use of and considers necessaries, have certainly been greatly multiplied during the last hundred years, but they have become necessaries very slowly, and anybody who undertook to furnish many of them even fifty years ago would probably have been ruined in the experiment.

The application of steam to transportation furnishes another remarkable illustration of the way in which capitalists have produced too much, and locked up money in useless tools. In less than forty years the tonnage of the United Kingdom has risen from 2,700,000 tons to 6,200,000 tons, and the result is that there are supposed to be $10,000,000 worth of English shipping lying idle in Indian ports alone, and the China seas and Australian ports present a similar spectacle. Every one knows, too, what the condition of the carrying trade is between this country and Europe. In other words, there has been a prodigious mistake made as to the number of people who would want to travel and as to the quantity of goods which would need transportation between 1870 and 1880, and a great many millions of capital are in consequence condemned to idleness. We have a similar story to tell about our railroads; most Americans are, unhappily, too familiar with it. We are, in fact, awakening from the immense delusion created by the achievements of steam forty years ago, that if things were made cheap enough purchasers would be sure to be found for them. The whole industrial world seems to have been seized with the belief that as soon as people heard that the price of a thing had fallen, not only would they use more of it than formerly, but they would steadily and rapidly increase their consumption; that a man who found himself perfectly comfortable with one shirt a week would use two, and finally seven, a week, and his wife delight in washing them; and that as soon as the passage to America or India was reduced in time by three-fourths no one would pass many years without making the trip.

The delusion about goods and transportation has, of course, built up the great cities. Population has poured into them either to spin and weave the fine clothes which the world was sure to want, or to distribute them to the coming purchasers, or to receive, lodge, and amuse the crowds of passengers expected by the railroads, and the result is that there is really a glut of large towns and sewers and sidewalks and parks and hotels. The demand for the clothes has fallen off, and the passengers do not arrive by train, and hundreds of thousands are pining in city garrets who would be much better employed in saving harvests or herding cattle in the fields. One hundred years ago this state of things might have arisen in any one country, but it would in all probability have been confined to it, and people in other countries would have heard of it vaguely through mercantile correspondence, but it would have concerned them little. But steam and the telegraph have made it impossible any longer to confine the speculative spirit to any one community. They spread the same hopes and fears in a week over the whole civilized world. When the English iron-master or cotton-spinner is feeling "flush" he orders investments in New York, which fires the imagination of his American brother with gorgeous dreams also, and they rush towards a common collapse. The fever which was desolating this country in 1873 raged in London, Berlin, Paris, and Bombay, and the patients were through the whole of it in close communication, and exchanging delirious congratulations, and egging each other on to fresh acts of folly.

The process of recovery is not going to be very rapid, and will not come altogether through restricted production. There will have to be a restoration of the equilibrium between industrial and agricultural labor, which is a slow process, as the artisan and mill-hand do not go back readily to the plough and the hoe, and there will have to be a great comparative increase in the world's stock of raw material—coffee, tea, sugar, cotton, grain, and meats—or, in other words, of the products of Mother Earth as distinguished from the products of human dexterity, before steam can again have full swing in manufactories and transportation. Though last, not least—in fact we cannot help considering this the most important consideration

of all—the wants of the laboring class, that is, of the bulk of mankind, must be multiplied by the improvement of their taste and intelligence, before they can give the machinery which is now applied to production full work to do. Steady and growing consumption can only be looked for from an educated, provident population with a high standard of comfort and nice personal habits. In other words, there is not much use in making things cheap for a brutal, dirty, and gluttonous man. If he buys them he will only waste them, and he will not buy them long—a fact with which all are familiar who trade with savages. The working people of the world—that is, its manual laborers—have not kept up in culture with the growth of invention, and they have consequently had things showered on them which they do not know how to use, or, more plainly, make no market for. But there is no good reason why a workingman earning one thousand or fifteen hundred dollars a year, as many do, should not desire as many comforts in the shape of furniture, books, clothing, pictures, and so on for himself and his family, and desire them as intelligently, as the minister or lawyer or doctor who is earning a similar amount. He does not do so, however, and the great economical as well as moral problem of our time is to raise him as a consumer by rational and healthful processes. It is no easy one, because his ambition thus far too often does not go beyond a diminution of his hours of labor, and the demagogues who cultivate his discontent with his condition incite him rather to drag down others' standard of living by law than to raise his own by the improvement of his mental and moral powers.

THE SUPPRESSION OF SOCIALISM IN GERMANY.

PRINCE BISMARCK finds himself, after twelve years of extraordinary success and prosperity, again opposed to the Liberal party of Germany, and is engaged in a contest much more difficult than that for the maintenance of the army by which he prepared for the war of 1866. He enters it, too, with influence more or less diminished. The years of commercial depression and disaster which have followed the victories of 1870–71, and the crushing weight of the military force which the victories seem to have rendered necessary, have not unnaturally done much to diminish his prestige and expose him to the criticism of former supporters. What is worse, they have probably done a good deal to introduce Socialism into Germany and spread it, and give it the fierce, intractable air which is causing so much surprise to those who are most familiar with the German character; and Socialism seems to be the rock on which his great name and great influence are likely to split. He knows of only one way of dealing with it, and that is the way he dealt with the Danes, with the Austrians, with the French, and with the Ultramontane clergy. He is not a man who entertains many designs at a time, or gives much study to the collateral or remoter effects of any enterprise he has seriously at heart. It was by sternly avoiding the consideration of such topics that he succeeded in creating the German Empire, and now that he has undertaken to defend it against a subtle form of disease, his measures resemble in thoroughness those which he would use in "stamping out" the cattle-plague or the cholera.

Nothing can well be more sweeping and high-handed than the bill for the suppression of Socialism which he has laid before the new Parliament, the full text of which has now reached us. By it all associations exhibiting "Socialistic, Democratic-Socialist, or Communist tendencies," or which "seem calculated to undermine the political and social order," and all meetings or publications, periodical or other, which seem to exhibit such tendencies, are made liable to suppression by a simple order of the police without preliminary trial or enquiry, except in case of foreign periodicals, the circulation of which can only be prohibited by the Chancellor of the Empire. As it is for the police to decide whether a publication fosters "tendencies hostile to the existing social and political order," and as such a charge is vague, so vague in fact as to be almost incapable of refutation, of course the Act would put the whole press of the country at their mercy. Moreover, all the justification required for prohibiting a meeting is that "it might be thought likely to promote" such tendencies, so that the Act would enable them to silence all political discussion. Nay, it goes still further, and authorizes them to close any printing-office which is regularly employed to print publications having the bad tendencies aforesaid, and to expel from certain localities all persons who make a business of fostering these tendencies; to shut up reading-rooms, circulating libraries, hotels, and taverns belonging to such persons, and to forbid them to follow their calling anywhere within the Empire. In addition to all this it authorizes the police to proclaim as "disturbed" for one year any district in which they think the public security is threatened, and within this district, and during such period, no meeting of any kind can be held, no newspaper circulated, without the previous authorization of the police, who will also be empowered to expel from it any individual they choose to pronounce dangerous, and to prohibit the possession, wearing, and sale of arms. Any person disobeying the police orders then becomes liable to prosecution before the courts, but simply for such disobedience, which would be the only fact to be proved on the trial. The reasonableness or justifiability of the order would not be enquired into. The penalty in case of conviction is fine or imprisonment.

It is needless to say that no such measures of repression have in our day ever been proposed to a parliament in time of profound peace. The suspension of the habeas corpus which has been resorted to of late years by the British Government for the suppression of crime and outrage in Ireland only extended to a very small portion of the Empire, and gave the police no power over the press or the right of public meeting, and, indeed, did not seek the extirpation of obnoxious opinions at all. The proposed German law, however, places the whole Empire at the mercy of the police, and aims not at the direct prevention of attacks on person or property, but at the propagation of opinions which, in the estimation of the police, are likely to lead to such attacks. It is true there is a right of appeal given from the decisions of the police to the Federal Council; but there is to be no suspension of the police action pending the hearing of the appeal. The newspaper remains unissued, the book unsold, the printing-office closed, or the tavern or hotel or reading-room shut up until the decision is reversed, and in this interval, of course, the accused person would most probably be ruined.

The Federal Council is to pass on the appeals made to it by a special commission of seven, chosen from its members, who are not to be instructed or controlled in any manner, and of course the chances are that care would be taken to compose this commission of persons to whom Socialism was a bugbear. On this, therefore, the Liberals have begun their fight. The committee to whom the bill has been referred have reported in favor of making the tribunal consist of only four members of the Federal Council, and joining with them five judges from the Supreme Court of the Empire, or from the courts of the separate States, and of giving the Emperor the appointment of the president and vice-president, but to this the latest despatches report that the Government is opposed.

No doctoring or modification of the bill to which the Government will submit is likely to make it acceptable to the Liberals. The essence of it and the danger of it lie in the arbitrary power over persons and property bestowed on the police, and there is no way of mending this or making it inoffensive. The régime which it is proposed to set up might have been accepted in 1848, but the German Liberals have been too long in the enjoyment of freedom of speech to be willing to surrender it to the police, however willing they might be to give the courts greater control over it, even if there were greater confidence in police discretion than there is. But the way in which the law has been enforced, since the Nobiling attempt, against poor people accused of speaking "disrespectfully" of the Emperor, shows that the spirit of minute and petty persecution for which the Austrian police used to be famous survives in Prussia, and only needs more power to become very obnoxious.

How the struggle will end it is difficult to foresee. One of its results, and the earliest, will probably be some sort of reconciliation between Prince Bismarck and the Church, in order to secure the aid

of the Ultramontane vote in the Reichstag. The Ultramontane orators assure him that he will never get the better of the Socialists without the aid of the clergy, but he attaches very little importance to spiritual weapons, and if he makes any concessions with regard to the administration of the Falk laws, it will be not that he may get the benefit of the prayers and sermons of the priests, but that he may get votes enough in parliament to give the arm of flesh greater force; for his defect, great a man as he is, is that he esteems the arm of flesh too highly. He has done great things with it, it is true, but the Empire it has created cannot be wholly saved by it. Other and more subtle forces are needed to consolidate and strengthen it, but it is not to be wondered at if he in his declining years is unable to measure and employ them, or allow for them.

AMERICANS ABROAD.

SOME weeks ago (No. 668) there appeared in these columns a short account of the American colony in Paris, which called forth at the time a rejoinder, and upon which it has been our fortune to hear privately a good many comments. Some of these comments have been sympathetic; others have been highly dissentient. In every case, however, there was a discussion of the question raised—a discussion which, in the circle in which it took place, could not fail to be extremely interesting. However the question raised may in any case be settled—the question of Americans appearing "to advantage" or otherwise in Europe—there is no doubt that nothing could be well more characteristic of our nationality than the sight of a group of persons more or less earnestly discussing it. We are the only people with whom such a question can be in the least what the French call an actuality. It is hard to imagine two or three Englishmen, two or three Frenchmen, two or three Germans comparing notes and strongly differing as to the impression made upon the civilized world by the collective body of their countrymen. In the first place, the Englishman or the Frenchman sees no reason to suppose that such an impression is in any way peculiar, or that one member of European society distinguishes himself noticeably from another. In the second place, if he were to be made aware that foreigners were criticising him, he would be extremely indifferent to their verdict. He would comfortably assume that the standard of manners—the shaping influences—in his own country are the highest, and that if he is a gentleman according to these canons he may go his way in peace. The season is drawing to a close during which, chiefly, Americans disseminate themselves in foreign lands, and for the last three or four months the national character has had free play in European hotels and railway stations. The impression, whatever it is, produced upon the European community must have been sensibly deepened. In spite of the commercial tribulations at home, the number of American travellers abroad has been very large, and numerous also have been the Americans (more numerous every year) who have betaken themselves to Europe for an indefinite residence. Those observers of whom we just now spoke, who are always ready to be a party to national self-analysis, have probably, in many cases, collected some new ideas. They have encountered, for instance, a few more specimens of the unattached young American lady—the young lady travelling for culture, or relaxation, or economy—and, according to their different points of view, she has seemed to them a touching or a startling phenomenon. The writer of these lines feels that he has added to the number of his own observations; that the data upon which his general conclusions rest have been multiplied; and that, thanks to his having passed some weeks in a great city in which the American tourist is frequently met and easily recognized, he might, in such a discussion as was just now alluded to, be beguiled into giving an even indiscreet extension to remarks originally prompted simply by a friendly interest in that class of Parisians known as Americans.

Americans in Europe are *outsiders;* that is the great point, and the point thrown into relief by all zealous efforts to controvert it. As a people we are out of European society; the fact seems to us incontestable, be it regrettable or not. We are not only out of the European circle politically and geographically; we are out of it socially, and for excellent reasons. We are the only great people of the civilized world that is a pure democracy, and we are the only great people that is exclusively commercial. Add the remoteness represented by these facts to our great and painful geographical remoteness, and it will be easy to see why to be known in Europe as an American is to enjoy an imperfect reciprocity. It may be the Europeans who are the losers by this absence of reciprocity; we do not prejudge that point, and we do not know, indeed, who is to settle it. A great many Americans—by no means all—maintain that the Europeans *are* the losers, and declare that if they don't know us and don't care about us, so much the worse for them. This is in many ways a very proper and very natural attitude; but nothing can be more characteristic of our civilization than the fact that an American may be almost defied to maintain it consistently. Let him be even more patriotic than is necessary, he is constantly lapsing from it, and, when he is in company with Europeans who do nothing to ruffle his usually great good-nature, he constantly takes a tone which indicates that he values their good opinion and that he is rather flattered than otherwise by possessing it. This, however, is a matter to be discussed apart. We wish to mention the last fact which leads Europeans to look upon Americans as aliens—the fact that large and increasing numbers of them elect, as the phrase is, to spend large parts of their lives in foreign lands. When a European sees an American absentee settle down in the country of which he himself is a native it is not surprising that, in the face of this practical tribute, he should be found doubting whether the country the American has left is as agreeable, as comfortable, as civilized, as desirable a one to belong to as his own. The American may carefully explain that he is living abroad for such and such special and limited reasons—for culture, for music, for art, for the languages, for economy, for the education of his children; the fact remains that in pursuit of some *agrément* or other he has forsaken his native land, and the European retains, ineffaceably, the impression that if America were really a pleasant place he would never do so. He would come to travel—yes, frequently and extensively; but he (or rather *she*, for as a general thing, in this case, that is the proper pronoun) would never take up an abode in a strange city and remain there year after year, looking about, rather hungrily, for social diversion and "trying to get into society." Such a spectacle makes the European take the American, as an American, by so much the less *au sérieux*. An Englishman, a Frenchman, a German finds his intellectual, his æsthetic ideal in living in his own country. A great many Englishmen live out of England for economy; a great many Germans emigrate to make a living. But the ideal in each of these cases is to be rich enough to live at home; the dream of felicity is to have a large income and spend it within one's native borders. If we perhaps except the Russians, who do not altogether come into our category, the Americans are the only highly-civilized people among whom the ideal takes another turn. It will probably never be the case that the country will lack a sufficient number of rich residents to "run" it; but we shall probably for a long time continue to see numbers of Americans absenting themselves from the United States in proportion as fortune puts into their hands the means of what is called enjoying life. A great many of them prefer to enjoy life in Paris, where our correspondent who described the "colony" gave a sketch of their situation. They are naturally a puzzle to many of the people they live among, who are at a loss to imagine the compensation that Americans find in a society with which they do not amalgamate for the forfeiture of those social advantages which, as is supposed, gentlemen and ladies enjoy in their own country. The compensation that comes from shops and theatres and restaurants seems insufficient to the average European mind, preoccupied as that mind is with the belief that nothing can be so agreeable as the *life* of one's native land—the animated circle of which one is a member as a matter of course. The average European mind can never understand that for many enriched Americans life at home has never been strikingly agreeable, and that public amusements in a European capital may not unfairly be held to outweigh the social advantages relinquished even in certain capitals of States.

Curiously combined with that argumentative national self-consciousness of which we began by speaking is a profound, imperturbable, unsuspectingness on the part of many Americans of the impression they produce in foreign lands. With this state of mind it is impossible to find fault; it has always been, we suspect, the mark of great nationalities. It has become a commonplace to say that the English are conspicuous for it, and it is highly probable that the ancient Romans—the *cives Romani*—were equally so. But it may sometimes provoke a smile, when the impression produced is a good deal at variance with European circumstances. There is the conscious and the unconscious American; for we, of course, do not mean that the two characters are combined in the same individual. The conscious American is apologetic, explanatory—a pessimist might sometimes say snobbish. But perhaps, after having traversed a certain phase by a sort of Hegelian unfolding, this type is on its way to become unconscious again. Extremes meet, and that is a symptom of great experience as well as of great innocence. The great innocence of

the usual American tourist is perhaps his most general quality. He takes all sorts of forms, some of them agreeable and some the reverse, and it is probably not unfair to say that by sophisticated Europeans it is harshly interpreted. They waste no time in hair-splitting ; they set it down once for all as very vulgar. It may be added that there are a great many cases in which this conclusion hardly seems forced. A very large proportion of the Americans who annually scatter themselves over Europe are by no means flattering to the national vanity. Their merits, whatever they are, are not of a sort that strike the eye—still less the ear. They are ill-made, ill-mannered, ill-dressed. A very good way to get a collective impression of them is to go and sit for half an hour in the waiting-room of any European banker upon whom Americans hold letters of credit. During certain hours of the morning our compatriots swarm, getting their drafts cashed and asking for their letters —those letters which they apparently suspect the banker's clerks of a constitutional indisposition to surrender. The writer of these lines lately enjoyed on several occasions this opportunity of observation, and—from the point of view of amenity—the spectacle was not gratifying. *Are* we the worst-looking people in the world ? the sophisticated spectator, on such an occasion, enquires ; and lest he should be beguiled into giving an answer too monstrous he abstains from giving any at all. One American (of the "conscious" class) has a way of explaining these things—the common facial types, the vulgar manners, the "mean" voices, the want of acquaintance with the rudiments of the science of dress—to another. He says that in America "every one travels," and that the people at the bankers are much better than the corresponding class in Europe, who languish in downtrodden bondage and never have even a chance to show themselves to the world. The explanation is highly sufficient, for it is very certain that for many Americans a journey to Europe is the reward of a period of sordid toil. An American may take great satisfaction in this circumstance ; he may be proud of belonging to a country in which the advantages of foreign travel are open to all, irrespective of "social standing"; instead of being, as in Europe (according, at least, to his theory), only within the reach of the luxurious and the privileged. But the European only perceives that a great many American travellers are remarkably "rough," and quite fails to congratulate either his own country or theirs upon possessing them. The people in question neither know nor care what he thinks about them, and, having examined the antiquities of the Old World, they go westward across the Atlantic with a perfectly good conscience. The European critic, however, sometimes opens himself with striking candor to an American of the introspective class. It is a hundred to one that his tone is patronizing ; but there are degrees of patronage. If it is grossly patronizing the American is offended, and invites him to keep his approbation for himself ; but if it is subtly patronizing the American listens to it with a complacency decidedly at variance with the theory of his more exalted hours—the theory of the sufficiency of the great Republic in every way to itself.

It may be that we shall some day become sufficient to ourselves and lose the sense of being the most youthful, most experimental, and, somehow, most irregular of the nations. But until that time comes some of us may occasionally be caught listening without protest to compliments paid us at the expense of some others. It is only just to say, however, that the American in Europe often enters into what we have called the conscious phase by a great deal of irritation. He finds Europeans very ignorant of a country, very indifferent to a country which, in spite of irregularities, he may be pardoned for thinking a magnificent one. A few Englishmen and Germans know a good deal about the United States —a good deal more than most Americans do ; but it is hardly too much to say that as a general thing, as regards this subject, the European mind is a perfect blank. A great many Americans are very ignorant of Europe, but in default of knowledge it may be said that they have a certain amount of imagination. In respect to the United States the European imagination is motionless ; and it may well seem to an American that there is something ridiculous in a scheme of the universe which leaves out a country as large as an aggregation of European kingdoms. There are many anomalies and crookednesses in the lot of the conscious American, and not the least of them is the fact that the country on whose behalf he is expected to be humble and patient—to wait for further results and withhold inopportune boasts—is an affair which, at times and in certain lights, seems to make this sweet reasonableness an affectation. It is comparatively easy to confess yourself a provincial if you really come from a province ; but if you have been brought up among "big things" of every kind the admission requires an effort. On the whole, the American in Europe may be spoken of as a provincial who is terribly bent upon taking, in the fulness of ages, his revenge.

A FRENCH ESTIMATE OF LORD BEACONSFIELD.

PARIS, September 6, 1878.

A RECENT journey to England has given me the impression, I might say the conviction, that an immense majority of the English people are perfectly contented with the policy of Lord Beaconsfield. Whoever has lived much in England knows how many objections have at all times been raised against the person of Disraeli. In fact, he seemed to unite in himself all that could stand in England between a man and success ; still, he is now unquestionably the leader of England. His portrait is everywhere, and even caricature can add little to the oddity of this strange face, with the piercing eyes, the long, Semitic nose, the lips compressed in a sad smile, the chin adorned with a Mephistophelic thin and pointed beard. I hardly ever spoke to my English friends of Disraeli in old times without hearing him abused, and I have never found myself in contact with him without finding great charm in his quiet manners, in his well-measured and pointed phrases. It always seemed to me that there was nothing ordinary or vulgar in the man ; he was different from the common type. I have heard him attacked even for his excessive politeness. Somebody once told me that the author of 'Lothair' was a snob and took a real delight in choosing heroes and heroines in the upper classes. He was the leader of the aristocratic party, and the aristocrats were never tired of saying that he only represented them politically, that he did not speak or move or act like the "chosen few." So it may be ; but the man who has contrived, with all his disabilities, to impose his leadership on the proudest aristocracy of the world cannot be an ordinary man. Lord Palmerston was for many years a great favorite of the English people ; Lord Beaconsfield is the new Palmerston, with this curious difference—that he possesses not only the confidence of his party ; he has also the confidence of the Crown. No minister has been such a *persona grata* to the Queen, who, since the days of her youth and of Lord Melbourne, has never evinced any preference for the members of any administration. During the life of Prince Albert nobody but himself was admitted to her absolute confidence, and since his death she has lived in a sort of permanent seclusion, and reduced her relations with the ambassadors and the cabinet ministers to a sort of minimum. But now it seems as if Lord Beaconsfield had found the power to fill the royal solitude with something like real friendship.

The Queen has never been indifferent to the foreign affairs of her country. Since the days of her youth she has been in the habit of reading the despatches of the Foreign Office. We know from various publications that she has sometimes entered into great European questions with a real passion. It may be conjectured that she suffered from the position into which England had been slowly allowed to drift under the guidance of ministers who had for their only object to keep England out of the turmoil of European complications. Ever since the days of the Crimean war England had been, so to speak, emigrating from Europe ; she had become a witness, she had ceased to be an actor. The whole face of Europe had been transformed under her eyes, and often without her consent. She had not ceased to moralize on passing events, on the accomplishment of Italian unity, on the Danish war, on the war between Prussia and Austria, on the war between Germany and France ; but she moralized somewhat in the style of the Greek chorus, which had no part in the action of the drama. Her long quarrel with the United States on the subject of the *Alabama* claims had crippled her foreign policy ; so long as she could fear the enmity of the Union, she felt that she could not safely get entangled in any great war. There were not wanting theorists to defend a policy of perpetual and systematic non-intervention. England was told that she had better follow a parochial than an imperial policy ; that "Lesser England" must not be sacrificed to the glory of what was once called "Greater England." The eloquence, the talent, the art of bringing truth home to the people, were, it must be confessed, on the side of the votaries of what I call the parochial policy. Who was there who could well conquer the warm eloquence of Bright, or retort the sarcastic logic of Lowe ? Gladstone, Forster, Vernon Harcourt formed a formidable phalanx which could not well be broken. When the Eastern Question was opened the three Emperors who had prepared its solution and their able chancellors could very naturally believe that England would remonstrate with them but would never begin war in defence of Turkey. It seemed almost impossible for her to enter into competition

with Russia, who had the moral support not only of Germany but of the Liberal party. England had lost for the present her old Continental allies, Austria and France; she was alone. Still, Lord Beaconsfield instinctively felt that in this critical state of things he would better satisfy the British people by a stroke of imperial policy. He did not go to war with Russia; he did not bind himself by any permanent contract with the three Emperors; he made his arrangement with Turkey, and undertook to add the patronage of Asiatic Turkey to the burden of the government of India.

When Prince Bismarck heard of the cession made by Mr. Gladstone of the Ionian Islands to Greece he is said to have remarked that a nation was lost which ceased to take and began to give back. Lord Beaconsfield is of the same mind; he believes that a strong nation, as well as a strong individual, must keep itself constantly in training; every great country must have a great task, and one which appeals somewhat to the higher instincts and the imagination of the people. England will not become a fat Holland; she will work, and conquer, and send her missionaries, her consuls, and her merchants to all parts of the universe. The solid conservatism which must strike every man who visits England is explained by the possibility of throwing all the discontented energies in every direction. Return to England after a ten years' absence and you will see nothing altered; things look unalterable on the Thames, because Englishmen are altering everything on the rivers of India and of Australia. Every bargeman of the Thames who sees ship after ship towed into the docks has visions of wealth and glory. The sentinel who mounts guard at the Horse Guards or before Buckingham Palace knows that the whole army of England proper is hardly equal to two German, Russian, or French *corps d'armée;* but he knows, also, that there are sentinels mounting guard at the antipodes and in almost every latitude, at Gibraltar, at Aden, at Calcutta, who are his brothers in arms. There may be, there is, something very artificial in the stupendous fabric of English greatness; but have not men the right to be even more proud of what is the result of their art than of what is a mere gift of nature?

It is perhaps well that some English statesmen should be systematically parochial, that they should care about the material welfare of the millions of human beings who swarm in the "little island," that they should regard every question in its economical aspect; but even the material prosperity of the people at home is bound up in a mysterious way with the distant prestige of England. Who would be bold enough to tell us what would become of the British people if all her colonies and possessions were taken away from her? The dangers of an imperial policy have been often explained. Mr. Bright one day said, "I doubt if there is ever a time when we are not carrying on a war in some corner of the globe"; but, on the other hand, who would now deny that for the past fifty years the rule of England in India has been a benefit to two hundred millions of human beings? The Anglo-Saxon race, as represented by England in our century, has shown a remarkable capacity for the administration of an impartial justice among the most various races, as well as a capacity for improving the system of taxation. Justice and moderate taxation are the two greatest boons which races like the Asiatic races can hope for. Who can doubt that an Englishman would govern an Asiatic "vilayet" much better than a Turkish pasha? The pasha is a favorite of the harem of Constantinople; he thinks of nothing but plunder; he is a low, ignorant, more cruel sort of Verres; his rule is arbitrary. We know how different is a governor in Bombay or Madras.

Whatever may be the uncertainties of the future, one thing seems certain, and that is the natural decay of the Ottoman rule and the necessity of substituting for it something new. The combination invented by Lords Beaconsfield and Salisbury may be criticised in its details; many objections may be made against it from a purely English point of view. I do not myself think that the old, time-honored British Constitution can be placed in peril by the new powers attributed to the Crown, or that the liberties of England will suffer because a few Asiatic regiments can be moved without the permission of Parliament. I confess that I am more inclined to look on the bright aspects of the future. The suffering populations of Asia will be allowed to breathe and to revive under a new system of administration; they will begin to come in contact with civilization. The Powers of Europe ought not to look with jealousy on such a vast undertaking; they ought, on the contrary, to favor the projects of England. England, on her side, ought to favor the projects of Russia; the Russians have not the imperial qualities of the British administrators, but they have a greater power of assimilation. They have, so to speak, no prejudices of race; they can enter at once into the life of Asia. Between Russia and England a great work can be done. The iron rule of the Turk has produced nothing but ruins, and the civilizing power of England and Russia together must now be substituted for the damning influence of a race incapable of progress. I have not been able to see that France has suffered in any way from the new Eastern arrangements. Surely England will respect her old privileges in the Lebanon, and she has shown that she has no desire to wound our interests in Egypt. France and England can very well work harmoniously in the East, and the increased influence of England in the councils of Europe will not always be without profit for France.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—IX.

AMERICAN PAINTING.

PARIS, September 4, 1878.

IT is not surprising that the responsibility of the American exhibition at Paris is bandied about somewhat, and that it is not easy to say here who is responsible for the very inadequate idea it conveys of even what little good art has been done in America. The prevailing impression one has on entering the room is that one has happened into a *salon des refusés,* whither a few good pictures had drifted in spite of the hanging committee; then one begins to feel that the pictures in general might be and probably are from Paris, or Munich, or Düsseldorf. One looks for something of the veteran Durand, who is always American and individual, and even, since the retrospective character of the exhibition admits Delacroix and Landseer, we might have had something of Cole, which would have been grateful in the prevailing frivolity of the exhibit. And many names I could recall, but miss here, amongst the living as well as the recently dead; in short, I found more room to wonder at what was *not* here than at what *was,* and that is wonderful enough. To begin by saying the most gracious thing after so general a reprobation, one is thankful in the interest of true art for the presence of the pictures of Vedder, especially "The Young Marsyas," and the landscape of La Farge —"Paradise Valley"—both of which in their way should have their places amongst the best work of the Exposition. The "Marsyas" is at once one of the most purely classical and completely natural pictures in the whole international display—severe and correct in the style of drawing, and in color subdued and harmonious, warm, luminous, and grateful. Marsyas sits on the snow under a leafless tree, playing his double pipe in an entire absorption in his art, and the rabbits come trooping like sheep round their shepherd, drawn brown and sharp against the snow-covered ground, all in broad, luminous shadow, to relieve which in the far-off distance the sun tips the snowy hills with rosy light. The landscape is treated with that *juste milieu* between the obtrusive detail of certain new schools and senseless flimsiness of the backgrounds of certain earlier ones, which gives the due realization of a landscape accessory to figures. The frank, unpretending treatment of the subject is underlain by genuine imaginative conception of it, and often as I have passed from one end of the Exhibition to the other I have never failed to study anew this delightful canvas.

One can hardly pretend that Vedder's pictures (for though I single out the "Marsyas" as the most noteworthy, the "Sibyl" has, with a less pleasing subject, the same imaginative vitality, and only a little less simplicity of treatment) are peculiarly American, but it is impossible to class them with the works of any school. He might have learned to paint anywhere for anything we can see; one can only perceive that he has wisely profited by those masters whom we call "old," but who are the only masters of true art work, and who are the basis of all schools which have produced work of the finest type. He has not learned *chic* in France nor brown and dull conventionalism in Munich or Düsseldorf, nor has he the slightest emulation of the distressing intensity of elaboration and local tint which in so many of the leading painters of England keep the eye on the *qui vive* and let it rest nowhere; he has not invented a new combination of pigments by which we may recognize his pictures across the gallery, and to the popular taste he must seem a very tame and uninteresting painter, but to my mind he is the only figure-painter represented in this collection who shows a distinct and unmistakable perception of what pure art is. I do not know where Mr. Vedder studied, or under what masters; I can perceive the influence of the early Italian Renaissance in his thought, and of the best French painters in the color of the "Marsyas," and of the best English work in that of the "Old Madonna." In the "Sibyl" is a certain earnest timidity (or possibly weakness from want of knowledge and detail of forms) in the distances. In general spirit he more resembles Burne Jones than any other of the modern painters, but the resemblance

is in superficial qualities. Vedder's imagination is genuine, and reproduces to him his classical theme. Marsyas and the Sibyl are imaginative realities. The old woman sets her lips together as she hurries along, absorbed in her supernatural mission, determined that those thick-headed Romans *shall* feel the value of the shabby books she offered them—no prettiness, no graces, only an ugly old woman, very like a beggar or a gypsy or a miserly old drudge bent on having her full price for her mystic wares; no theatrical display of the preternatural, no grand robes, no ostentation of the impostor anxious to awe—only a very old, shabby, miserable hag, striding along in a terribly earnest way with her insignificant mystic rolls under her arm, and her mind set on something which will not out with many words. And as she goes along in her wrathful musing "the fire burns," and the smoke of the destruction of the rejected rolls accompanies her to the presence of the incredulous Roman; there is the true imaginative vitality in the thing. The Marsyas, again, is not set to the conventional graces, not posing to the painter, but piping away with all the intentness of his mind, unconscious of everything but his art—as real a satyr as ever a Greek sculptured, felt by the painter as a living thing—believed in by the imagination, if not by the reason. And this is the genuine function of plastic imagination, and these are of its works; and in this, Vedder is in another order of painters from Burne Jones, whose work, with all its graces and facilities, all its subtle emulations of antique and mediæval simplicity, always lacks true vitality, is stamped as *pose plastique* and keeps still the fragrance of its borrowed source. His drawing is less severe, and his color less solid and luminous, in his oil pictures than Vedder's.

A better contrast between the truly imaginative reconstruction of an antique ideal and that mistaken retrospect which emulates archæology in attempts to restore antiquity, could not be given than that between Vedder's work and the restorations of such painters as Bridgman in his "Funeral of a Mummy on the Nile," full of power of a purely executive kind—*may be* full of archæological knowledge—but which is, in all human probability, as unlike anything the Nile ever saw as modern carnival is unlike the saturnalia, but which, were it true in every detail, would not be art, but science. It is a matter of draperies and accessories, and is as far removed from imagination as from art. The interest in such pictures is not legitimate art interest, but belongs to the same category as that in Martin's cataclysmic spectacles, or Pompeian researches, or both combined—marred by the consciousness that their archæological accuracy is more than doubtful, and that, if an ancient Egyptian were to see the picture of Mr. Bridgman, he might mistake it for an elaborate cartoon from *Punch* "taking off" his institutions. In archæology imagination is out of place as much as archæology is in art, and in artistic verity Rembrandt's Roman guard leading Christ to Calvary with blunderbusses on their shoulders is just as good as Gérôme's most elaborate restoration of the scene after the crucifixion. The former loses not a whit of its art-value from its anachronisms, any more than the latter gains by archæological acumen. The true idealist in art seeks to avoid every element that fetters the sense of beauty, and hence to Titian, Correggio, to Michael Angelo and the Italian Renaissance, Greek idealism was a realm to which all pure minds were free, where time and space were shackles unknown, and where imagination was omnipotent master, flying or walking like the gods on the earth, but where, at the same time, the unimaginative painter, coming in with his crutches of archæology and manacles of history, breaks the enchantment and dissipates the gracious shades, leaving only dry bones and wearisome pedantry. Vedder's modest venture into this sacred realm is justified. His work is too good as work, too elevated as conception, to win popularity; but to all who have gone over the bridge that leads from nature to art his Marsyas will not pipe in vain for their hearts' dancing, and time will widen its appreciation.

La Farge's "Paradise Valley" has but one grave fault—perhaps it carries the poverty of the subject to an excess. The theme is so barren that the art is on the strain to make it presentable, and it gives a color of affectation of indifference to his material—and all affectations are faults. But, this granted, the picture is to the landscape of the collection what Vedder's is to the figures. It is a meagre subject, but like the poorest corner of mother earth it is steeped in sunshine, and melts away into space and light and sea-mist inch by inch, like a picture of Théodore Rousseau's. The true secret of landscape painting is not in ranging Alps and Andes and exhausting unknown worlds—curiosity is, no more than archæology, a motive of Art—but in finding for any given scene the treatment which harmonizes best with its character, and brings out what of beauty and interest there is in it. All the best landscapes of the greatest landscape painters have been actual scenes or recollections of scenes, and Turner and Rousseau, the greatest masters of modern landscape painting, have shown their greatness in this trait—that within their limitations (and those of Rousseau were narrow) they divined how best to set off any phase of nature: the imagination caught the type and devised straightway the garb fittest for it. It may be premature to judge Mr. La Farge by one landscape, and I have never seen another, but this one seems to me to be quite in the vein of the noblest landscape art. Given a green valley, sloping in the gentlest and most unpicturesque monotony away from you, not an object to break the scarcely valleyed surface, not even a mass of rocks to help out the distance by little dodges of light and shade; no trees to break the monotony of the lines, nothing more incidental than a lamb in the sun, and beyond the high flat line of the shore a little strip of misty sea and just a band of sky—what better could be done with it than he has done? This "Paradise Valley" would be to any but a painter of true power and insight a Paradise lost; but La Farge has caught its type and tone, and built on them. Barren, bleak, nude it was; he will not even make up a foreground; it shall remain nude as he found it. Not a tree shall be lent to its distances, and the kindly sea that offers its surges is warned away to its distant vapors; not even the trooping kine shall humanize by reflection the solitude—a lamb will be enough to show that it is no upas-valley. The spring-green of the grass, scarcely broken with tint of grey, like a grey and green opal, the band of blue ocean, and the vaporous and uncertain sky shall tell the story alone. Light and space and breathing air fill the canvas from corner to corner—just fact enough to hold by, just view enough to build a great picture on, but earth, sea, and sky are all crowded into it. I said "perhaps" it carried poverty of the subject too far; I don't feel sure that, as an exception, a lesson, a show of his hand to his brother artists, it may not be better than if it had been richer, as Giotto's "O" was; for this very poverty shows the triumph of the art more luminously—only, such things should be the exception, not the rule. Nature has made differences in her scenes, and for us to ignore those degrees of the more or less beautiful is vanity or insensibility. Rousseau, as a whole, sinks below Turner just by this insensibility, for there was no vanity in him.

Perhaps La Farge's work and Vedder's "Sibyl" have for us another value—when it comes to be recognized—that they may show our public that the function of art is not to please ignorance or pander to shallow tastes. One can imagine an artist of genuine power defiantly throwing his art into the forms least calculated to please uncultivation, just to teach it that it is crude and ignorant and false, as all popular taste is, and probably always was and will be. Only the defiance may go too far and fail to educate or to gratify some who are qualified already.

The work that smells of the soil and could not be mistaken for anything but American is not abundant and is mostly very bad. Church, whose rendering of facts and power over detail are almost unrivalled amongst modern painters, has two pictures hung so high that no details can be seen; only one can see that his Parthenon is an absolutely unsurpassable record of what remains of the noblest building of antiquity, and as positions on the line are held by work which any good taste would have hung as much out of the sight as possible, one can only conclude that Mr. Church had an enemy on the hanging committee. Winslow Homer's "Cracking the Whip" is in its way clever and kindly, the memory of a forty-year exile from American boyhood; but it is not, in any great sense of the word, art, nor is J. B. Brown's "The Great Circus"—ingenious and striking though it be in its way, and that not a bad way, only an utterly unartistic one. As realistic work, a perfect kind of photography, street-boyhood taken instantaneously in one of its truest phases, it is scarcely to be excelled, but our art education is not begun till we understand that this kind of realization is not art, and that art is distinctly something which nature is *not*.

W. J. S.

Correspondence.

THE POLITICAL REVOLUTION IN CANADA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: From the language of your journals it appears that the political revolution in Canada is viewed with not unnatural suspicion by the people of the United States as threatening to lead to a tariff war between the two countries.

A change of government here had become necessary on grounds connected with the general state of the administration, which determined

my vote and those of many others, irrespectively of the tariff question. But even with regard to the tariff question I am inclined to hope that, whatever the immediate result may be, the ultimate result will be favorable to the views of those who desire to see the two countries commercially drawn closer to each other.

Canada has been rendered thoroughly sensible by this controversy of the disadvantages of the present situation. As to the direction in which she may be led at first to seek for a remedy, there is, no doubt, some reason for misgiving. But she can hardly fail to be led ultimately to the conclusion that the only policy from which she can hope to derive a large increase of prosperity is one which will give her free access to the markets and other commercial advantages of the continent to which she belongs.

Only let the people of the United States do their part by showing themselves always ready to grant, not a partial and precarious measure of reciprocity, such as has already broken down, but a full and permanent measure of commercial union. In face of such an offer I doubt whether it would be possible for Canadian legislators even to enter on the less desirable course. Yours faithfully,

GOLDWIN SMITH.

MONTREAL, Sept. 27.

ABUSE OF TAXATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If Mr. Brooks Adams resided in New York he might have added to his paper, in the last *Atlantic Monthly*, that very little of the money raised by municipal taxation is applied to the benefit or comfort of the taxpayer. Here is my experience: I own a small house on a side street, not very far from Fifth Avenue and below Thirty-fourth Street. The yearly tax is exactly one-quarter of the sum I could rent it for. The neighborhood is good. In order to get the street swept we pay one dollar and a half each per month, otherwise it would be cleaned twice a year. We pay two dollars a month to a German gentleman to carry off our ashes, etc., daily, as we are not willing to see ash-barrels and refuse-boxes decorating our sidewalk for indefinite periods. We pay twelve dollars a season, each, for watering the street, which would never be done by the city. And in order to sleep comfortably without fear of housebreakers we pay two dollars a month, each, to a private watchman. Twenty-five per cent. of my income is taken from me by the city. What do I get for it? I do not complain. As a good American I am amused by it. I expect more food for amusement hereafter, when one of my neighbors to whom I have lent a few thousands on his house pays me off in fiat money worth fifty, or probably ten, cents on the dollar he borrowed.

Yours, I. W.

Notes.

MACMILLAN & CO. have become the publishers of Mr. W. Robinson's 'Parks and Gardens of Paris,' of which we gave a rather full account in No. 238 of the *Nation*. It is now issued in its seventh thousand, a remarkable proof of the solid worth of so elegant a volume, which is equally adapted to give instruction in horticulture and landscape gardening, and to adorn the centre-table and amuse the leisure hour. ——The applause which even in this country greeted Beaconsfield's tactics at Berlin and seizure of Cyprus showed how little the character of the man entered into the public judgment of his performances. For this reason Charles Scribner's Sons' American edition of the *Fortnightly's* 'Political Adventures of Lord Beaconsfield' deserves a wide circulation. It is issued in paper covers and sold at a low rate.——Paul Lacombe's 'Petite Histoire du Peuple Français,' a wonderfully terse and pregnant narrative, has been placed among their text-books by Henry Holt & Co. For the sake of young students notes have been added by an Oxford instructor, but the work remains one by which adults also will profit.——Mr. F. Leypoldt informs the public that the first volume of his 'American Catalogue' has been compiled and is now in the printer's hands. It embraces books in print and for sale July 1, 1876, entered chiefly under authors' names, but also under the title in the case of books best known in this way. The second volume will be a subject-index. Some idea of the magnitude of the work may be had from the fact that it embraces the publications of more than nine hundred firms. But the difficulties which Mr. Leypoldt has had to overcome in his two and a half years of labor can only be surmised. His purpose is to supplement the Catalogue from time to time, and so keep abreast of the literature of the day. The specimen pages show a very tasteful page in double columns with broad margins. The edition will be limited, and for subscribers only, at a charge of $25 for the two volumes. The demand for it will come primarily from public libraries and booksellers, but many private persons should be glad to lend their support to so useful an enterprise. The manager of the Catalogue is Mr. L. E. Jones, 37 Park Row, N. Y.——We have received the first number of volume iv. of the *Összehasonlító Irodalomtörténelmi Lapok*, a Magyar periodical rejoicing in a reduplicated title expressed in ten languages, *Comparative Literary Journal* being the English of it. The contents are equally polyglott, and even the motto is a Gallicized sentiment from Schiller. Prof. Anderson, of the University of Wisconsin, furnishes the English contribution to the present number. The place of publication is Klausenburg (Kolozsvár), in Transylvania.——An interesting announcement from France is that M. Jules Simon is about to bring out a work in two volumes called 'Le Gouvernement de M. Thiers.' Sampson Low & Co. will at the same time publish an English translation of it.——The death of Dr. August Petermann, editor of the *Mittheilungen*, and superintendent of Julius Perthes's Geographical Institute at Gotha, is one of the severer losses of the year. In knowledge of the history and progress of geographical science and in cartographic skill he had scarcely any rival but Dr. Kiepert, whom he surpassed in zeal for new discoveries, particularly those relating to the exploration of the North Pole, which he actively promoted. His name has appropriately been bestowed on a fjord of unknown extent on the northwest coast of Greenland.——The *Portfolio* for September (Bouton) includes one of the best-grasped effects in landscape it has ever published—a view in Edinburgh by Debaines after Lockhart—and another good etching, Pettie's "Member of the Long Parliament," etched by Richeton. To make us prize these able works it juxtaposes a German etching from Steinle, with all the force of contrast. The literary matter is varied, that accompanying the German etching being so flat that we fortify ourselves with the consideration that Mr. Hamerton *must* some day have had to sit down and read it through, and the rest to the point. The *Portfolio* is still unconscious of the international exhibition now holding.——A library of theatrical biographies and English and foreign plays, extended with inlaid and interleaved matter of great value, will be sold by Messrs. Leavitt from the 14th inst. It is the collection of a manager and adapter of plays in this city, well known for his artistic setting of a favorite stage of the drawing-room order, and for his more recent misfortunes. The "extended" books, comprising, in one instance, nearly fifty portraits of Garrick, and, in another, forty of Pope, are numerous and quaint.

—The sale of Mr. A. J. Odell's library is to begin Nov. 18. Part I. of the Catalogue, prepared by G. P. Philes, has just been issued, a volume of two hundred and fifty pages, costing two dollars. It is a sumptuous work, both in the execution and the printing. When the American collector decides to sell his library, he is as regardless of expense in cataloguing as he is in collecting the books. Neither Libri nor the great Perkins sale, nor any other that we can recollect, was provided with a more showy sale catalogue. Foreign auction catalogues are rarely printed showily; and in our own country, although the Humphreys, Sparks, and Stevens catalogues in one style and the Rice, Field, and Green catalogues in another are handsome, nothing hitherto but the Medlicott has displayed such typographical—shall we say?—extravagance. The titles are given *verbatim et literatim et majusculatim;* capitals, small capitals, italics, black-letter make the appearance of the page delightful to the titulomaniac; and almost every work has a note with an interesting quotation or a valuable reference. Public libraries in general would not think of preparing such schedules of their books; but the one library in this city which is at once private, though it no longer belongs to one man, and public, though it is not yet accessible to the many, is to go far beyond this. In his examination before the committee of the Society of Arts Mr. Arber testified that Mr. Henry Stevens, to ensure absolute accuracy in the catalogue he is preparing for the Lenox Library, has the titles of all the books photographed, probably intending to give them according to the scheme which he explained in his paper before the London Conference of Librarians, on Photobibliography.

—As an instance of shabby cataloguing we must mention the three catalogues of the library, the autograph and the coin collections of the late Joseph J. Mickley, of Philadelphia, which are to be sold October 29–31 in that city. This is the more striking because the contents are out of the ordinary; the library being rich in historical works not often brought to auction, and in some even greater rarities, and the autographs being worth striving for, especially in American lines. A letter of Wash-

ington's written on the last Sunday of his life, and conjectured to be his latest autograph, is among these. As for the coins, Mr. Mickley was a veteran numismatist, and while the collection does not compare with the superb one sold by him some years ago, it is a very good one, with some fine United-States and foreign coins. Amongst the Washingtons we note the very rare Conradt medal. Some further explanation seems required as to the "United States steel dies, hubs," etc., which, if genuine, as they appear to be from the description, should be in the Mint vaults, and if not genuine, should be destroyed. It is a long time now since any really fine collection has been sold at auction. The transfer of the Brevoort collection a year or two ago to the superb Seavey-Parmelee collection (otherwise much strengthened of late) is the principal event of the last three years, which have been particularly barren from the coin collector's point of view. Several notable collections are offered for this winter, including one of American medals, believed to be the finest and fullest ever brought together.

—Collins Brothers, 414 Broadway, have done well to republish as a little tract such portions of the British Workman Public-house Co., Liverpool, as serve to show the economical and social character of this form of philanthropy. The cocoa-rooms, as they are called, are designed to be unostentatious competitors of the dram-shops, having the same freedom of access and the same general appearance (with the bar in front, for example), keeping the same hours, particularly in the early morning, and being at least as cheerful, neat, airy, and spacious as the best of the drinking-saloons. Cocoa, coffee, and tea, at a halfpenny a gill for the first two, and a penny a (gill) cup for the tea, are furnished hot, with bread and butter and cheese and cold pie, or, as in London, Bristol, and Leeds, soup, meat, and vegetables, at like reasonable prices. Men, women, and children are admitted, and the men are generally allowed to smoke and to play games; sometimes a separate room is provided for the women and for men whose wives accompany them. More or less openly an attempt is made to bring religious influences to bear on the frequenters of the rooms; evening meetings are occasionally held, and the employees set the example of signing the abstinence pledge. The Liverpool society kept open last February no less than twenty-nine houses, with accommodation for 3,500 men at a sitting. What is most noteworthy and most encouraging is that these establishments are conducted strictly on a business basis, and this year divided (in Liverpool) ten per cent., free of income-tax, on a capital of £20,000. Here is a useful and promising field for our social reformers.

—A correspondent writes us from Galveston, under date of September 17:

"I note your recent article in respect to the bad sanitary condition of the towns of Louisiana and Mississippi, so fearfully devastated by yellow fever. Permit me, as a resident of the Gulf district, to say that I think your comments, though partly based upon accurate data, are not strictly just, and leave impressions which a closer observation of the fever might remove. It is safe to say that the impression here is universal that the escape of the lower towns of Texas from the epidemic is due to the rather extraordinary excellence of the Galveston Board of Health, presided over by a surgeon of the first rank in the former trans-Mississippi department of the Confederacy; and especially that this result has been reached by the military exactness with which the orders of this board have been enforced in the maintenance of the most rigid *quarantine*, enforced without fear or favor, and sustained against much commercial clamor set up both at home and abroad."

—Mr. Christern sends us the first two *livraisons* of an important work just begun to be published in France, the 'Dictionnaire de Pédagogie et d'Instruction Primaire.' The editor, M. F. Buisson, is assisted by a long array of French scholars, specialists, and educators, who assure the high character of the undertaking. The Dictionary is divided into two parts, roughly to be classed as theoretical and practical, but an enumeration of some of the titles will best explain the distinction. In Part I. are grouped the biographical sketches of eminent teachers—*e. g.*, Aristotle (to whom also, for the events of his life and his philosophy, another article is devoted in Part II.) Here is given, under the respective departments of France, as Ain, Aisne, Allier, etc., the history of public instruction in each; and the same is true of countries, like Austria, whereas in Part II. their general history, physical geography, etc., are described, with reading and dictation lessons subjoined, and lists of works to be consulted. For the rest, we have titles like *abonnement*, school-fees; *abréviations; absences*, with an account of how they are dealt with in the different countries of Europe; *académies*, with a list of the principal memoirs in the 108 volumes of the *Compte rendu* of the Séances et Travaux de l'Académie de Sciences morales et politiques; *acclimatation*, both the Garden of and Society of; *adults*, schools for, the part relating to the United States being longer than the entire article on this subject in Mr. Steiger's 'Cyclopædia of Education'; *affranchis*, wholly concerning the freedmen's schools in this country (but perhaps Mr. Alvord gets too much credit for being the "veritable organizer" of them, and certainly Gen. Howard lost not a leg but an arm in the war); *âge*, with a table of school-ages in each of the United States (wanting in Steiger under the same heading); *anecdotes*, their use, with examples; *Annales de l'Éducation*, with list of principal articles; *anti-Émile*, the two chief counterblasts; *apiculture; apprentissage* (by G. Salicis); *aquarium; architecture* (by Viollet-le-Duc); *armée*, instruction in the service; *assemblées nationales*, their legislation on public instruction from the Constituante down; *associations*, in great number; *autorités*, system of educational authority in various countries.

—Part II. is truly the working teacher's assistant and *Conversations-lexikon*. The first article is *abdications;* then we have *abeille*, with figures and bibliographical hints; *âne; animaux—domestiques, nuisibles, utiles; acotylédons; absorption; acétique* (*acide*); *aérolithes; acoustique; anatomie*—all the round of the sciences. Then come *accidents*, practical directions about the treatments of burns, etc.; *aliments*, with an analysis of foods; *annuités*, etc. Under *aérostats* we have a history of ballooning; under *aires*, the measurement of areas, with figures. *Accentuation* is elaborately discussed, and here, as in the case of *addition, adjectif*, etc., there are exercises for immediate use in the school-room. The French Academy has a place, and a list of the 40 of 1877 is given. Here is Algeria, with a map and *lectures et dictées*, including an anecdote of père Bugeaud's night-cap; Africa, with a map showing Stanley's Congo; the life of Alexander; the history of the Albigenses, narrated by Paul Lacombe, who suggests the misfortune of France in the failure of the Reformation, of which this was the first act, etc., etc. Remarkable also is the article on alcoholics, which contains tables showing the proportion of alcohol in fermented drinks, and others showing the consumption of pure alcohol in France in 1873, by departments, regions, and head. Naturally the northern region, and of it Seine-Inférieure, lead off; in drinking, the south is the most temperate. Where there is most alcohol drunk there is the least wine; and where the wine-culture diminishes, the consumption of alcohol increases. But, on the other hand, the more abundant cider is, the more brandy is drunk—"to help pass the cider." In this admirable twofold scheme we miss only articles on the chief languages. We cordially commend the Dictionary to all intelligent instructors, and bespeak a place for it in every school-library of the higher grade.

—Prof. Huxley delivered an interesting address at the recent meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science. He referred to the time when he was a young member, and the geological section was the scene of disturbance and the field of discussions regarded with great dread by many persons. He then went on to remark that just as in the world's history we find the centres of geological disturbance changing their position, so now we find that the centre of scientific agitation has transferred itself from geology to biology. Striking evidence of the increase in the amount of zoölogical work, at least, is offered by the multiplication of zoölogical publications within the last twelve years, and especially in Germany. Müller's *Archiv für Anatomie und Physiologie*, and Siebold and Kölliker's *Zeitschrift für wissenschaftliche Zoologie*, both publish now two volumes a year instead of one, as formerly. Within this time also there have begun to appear regularly Pflüger's *Archiv für Physiologie*, Schultze's *Archiv für mikroskopische Anatomie*, Gegenbaur's *Morphologisches Jahrbuch*, and Hoppe's *Zeitschrift für physiologische Chemie*. In France there are two new journals, one edited by Gervais, the other by Lacaze-Duthiers. In England, Foster's new *Journal of Physiology* is to be mentioned. It must be added that these new periodicals have not sprung up to replace old ones that have died, but that old and new both flourish. More than this, the learned societies also publish more zoölogical articles than formerly.

—Prof. Du Bois-Reymond's valuable address on "Civilization and Science" has been widely read through its translation in the *Popular Science Monthly*. We wish equal currency might be given to the reply to it by the historian Ottokar Lorenz, in the *Historische Zeitschrift* (in the third number of this year, vol. 39, p. 438), under the title "Die 'bürgerliche' und die naturwissenschaftliche Geschichte." There is in this article no disposition to disparage the service done to historical science by the study of the natural sciences; and it is recognized at the outset that there are departments of history in which natural science alone can labor faithfully. Nevertheless, if there are limitations upon the one side, there

are upon the other also, and it must be confessed that Du Bois-Reymond has not always kept himself within the limits of his own field. In general it is easy to show that the aspect of the naturalist is narrow and insufficient; the principal part of the article is, however, taken up with matters of detail. Probably all who have read the address have felt how inadequate—almost ludicrously so—is the explanation given of the downfall of the ancient world, namely, the lack of firearms, or, at bottom, a deficiency in the technical power over nature. Lorenz points out, what we know well enough from our Modoc and Seminole wars, that these superior arms are not long in finding their way to the savages, and that Odoacer would have overthrown the Roman Empire all the earlier if there had been better weapons within his reach. The moral causes of this great catastrophe Du Bois-Reymond does not seem to notice. Again, where he describes the lamps "that no scullery-girl would tolerate nowadays," but by the light of which "Cæsar wrote his 'Commentaries,' Cicero rounded his periods, and Horace gave the last polish to his 'Odes,'" the reader cannot help asking whether these are not after all a higher production of civilization than kerosene lamps or gas. Lorenz, however, answers pertinently that there is proved here a low degree of *Technik* in regard to the laws of flame; but how in regard to the working in the metals of which the lamp is made? His remarks upon the connection of monotheism with scientific progress occupy a good part of the article and are well worth reading.

ALBERT SIDNEY JOHNSTON.—II.*

NO one can read the story of the preparation for the struggle at Shiloh without great sympathy with Sidney Johnston's own emotions. His candid self-judgment found much that was just in the popular wrath which followed him in the South for his retreat from Kentucky. He did not quarrel with the test of success which was applied to him, but we are impressed with the feeling that his was not the cheerful courage of a man confident in his own capacity to master events and to overmaster the genius of his opponents. The moral prestige was not with him, and he felt it. He had not the hardihood of great courage brought to bay, and striking lion-like at its adversary without thinking of odds. His conversation and his conduct alike show that, though his judgment and the imperative public opinion dictated that he should fight, he was not grasping his army and his subordinates with that impressive will which shows the true commander. The very things that were lovable in him as a man detracted from his power as a soldier. It was no time for modest deferences to others, but for a proper egotism which should rule every subordinate by the exhibition of faith in his own power. Yet he hesitated to assume such a part, and not only deferred to Beauregard in all matters of detail, even to the sketching of the order of battle when battle was determined upon, but went so far as to offer him the actual command on the field in a scene which the latter describes as "one of the most affecting of my life" (p. 549). Johnston's friends and staff heard of this, and protested with earnestness that such a course would close his career as a general. Their language, whilst it shows their faith in his abilities of intellect, is strong implied evidence of their feeling that he lacked the dominant and energetic will necessary to a great commander. At the last moment, when the two armies were almost in contact, Beauregard lost faith in the movement and advised retreat. Johnston felt that he must fight, and adhered to his orders that battle should be given, but we do not find in the report of the discussion of the matter that clear perception of the necessity to fight Grant before Buell could join him, which was the only solid reason for the battle. We should have expected it to be brought forward by him as a crushing answer to Beauregard's proposition, and to be used to make each corps commander feel that instead of holding back they should be eager for the fray. That there should have been any meeting resembling a council of war, which "never fights," is an indication that the officers were not feeling the "grip" of their commander's resolution upon them as they should have done.

The order of battle as sketched by Beauregard and accepted by Johnston was fatally faulty. It might have done well enough in an open prairie, but for the tangled wilderness of an American forest it was absurd. It consisted of three separate lines, one corps to each line, and each under a separate commander. That they should run over each other and get inextricably entangled on a field where manœuvring tactics of any kind but the simplest were out of the question, was a matter of course. Johnston does not seem to have criticised the plan, but to have accepted it as it was proposed. He was in fault also in giving Beauregard no responsible command on the field. The nominal position of second in command is odious to every real soldier. It breeds cavilling and distrust. An army wants but a single head with a competent staff, who, if the commander falls, can promptly notify the second in rank, and assist him with full knowledge of the whole situation. Beauregard appears to have taken no part in the first day's contest, but to have been in his ambulance at the rear in ill health. He consequently knew little of what was going on, and was poorly prepared to assume command when Johnston died.

Looking carefully at the whole narrative, then, it appears that Johnston has the merit of having determined at Corinth to move out against Grant, and on the day of the battle of deciding against the proposals for delay. The tactical arrangements he seems to have left to his subordinate. Once on the field, by common consent, his bearing was admirable. Cool, cheerful, active, he was constantly in the heat of the fire, exposing himself without stint. The faults of the order of battle were such that at an early hour all ordinary organization of corps and divisions was lost, and the scene becomes a rather confused one, in which the only idea visible is that of pushing forward brigades, and even single regiments, as the line met with obstructions in its advance. We look in vain for any systematic grouping of the parts each played. We do not find the commander-in-chief receiving reports from his corps commanders and moulding the whole movement by his own guidance and judgment. There is an impetuous forward rush, and, so far as concerned brigade commanders at least, "every man for himself." Johnston himself, starting in upon his left when the movement began, gradually moved over to the right, encouraging those he met, and setting a fine example of personal courage. Beauregard sends from the rear to know where Breckinridge's reserves shall be sent in. Johnston indicates the left, but takes care to say that it is not an order, and Beauregard must use his own judgment. This illustrates the statement we have made, that he did not feel that he was himself the centre of information and the source of positive and definite decision as to all such movements. If the commander-in-chief does not decide when and where his reserves are to be put in action, we may ask in vain what his functions are. He died, however, as a hero, and so honor at least was safe.

It is bootless to argue whether, had he lived, the result of the battle would have been changed. Equally useless is it to hammer again the well-beaten discussion whether Grant was surprised. The latter tells us he did not expect an attack, but that the usual means of information of the enemy's movements were as fully used as is practicable for any army without its "eyes," as the cavalry is pithily called; for he was all but destitute of that arm of the service. This is the exact truth, and critics may choose the word to express it as suits them.

The book abounds with interesting incidents, showing traits of character in the subject of the memoir that are most attractive, often charming. They prove him a father whom his family might well worship, and a friend who would never flinch or fail one. The story is one which may be wholesome reading for any youth, exhibiting a character which, whether it met with and commanded the greatest success or not, was always true to itself, dignified, uncomplaining, not shifting responsibility for its misfortunes upon others, but nobly bearing its own burdens, and scorning to be a supplicant for favor to any one. Leaving out of view the question of his duty to the Union, whose officer he was, it is the story of a very noble life. His friendship with Jefferson Davis began at the Military Academy and continued without interruption to the day of his death, the President of the Confederacy being one of those whose faith in him never faltered. Had he lived, whatever might have been the result of the struggle at Pittsburg Landing, he would have continued a conspicuous figure in the war. His experience would have taught him much, as it taught his friend and comrade, Lee; and with the same basis of character and intellect, like Lee, he might have grown in military judgment and in confidence in himself as a commander, and perhaps realized the expectations of those who knew him closest.

In those parts of the book in which the writer expresses his own opinions upon history, we see evidence that it is still too early for any man who was a "Confederate" to judge the events of the war without prejudice, though Colonel Johnston has evidently taken pains to avoid extravagance of expression. He fails to see in the origin of the struggle anything more than the fanaticism of abolitionists, who had no respect for the Constitution of the country. He fails to see that the American phase of the anti-slavery movement was only part of the general conflict

* 'The Life of General Albert Sidney Johnston, embracing his Services in the Armies of the United States, the Republic of Texas, and the Confederate States. By William Preston Johnston.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 8vo, pp. 755.

of nineteenth-century civilization with a system that was not only wrong but an anachronism. He fails to recognize, what we think Southern statesmen saw full well, that the determination to restrict slavery to its existing limits was strictly Constitutional, and that they precipitated secession because they also saw clearly that such Constitutional restriction would end in the destruction of the system itself by natural causes, and with no further legislative interference by the general Government. The criticism of the war-measures of the national Government is of a piece with this. He denounces the refusal to recognize Kentucky as a neutral, independent power without seeing that no such neutrality was possible, or that its recognition involved that also of the right of complete secession as well as of neutral independence ; but this denunciation is made ridiculous by the admission that this pretended neutrality was only regarded by the Confederates as a temporary barrier behind which Sidney Johnston might organize his army ; that it "served well enough as a breakwater" (p. 307) while it lasted, and that it was broken at last by Polk's invasion with a hostile army !

No book issued from the Confederate side has more persistently kept up the false argument based upon garbled returns of opposing armies. The largest figures of both present and absent which can anywhere be found are those given as the total of the Union forces, whilst vague and generally uncorroborated estimates of those in line of battle, all sick men, details and other absentees deducted, is given as the total of the Confederates. The bulletins of defeated officers are in substance reproduced as the sifted estimates of the strength of armies ! However this may cater to the remnants of a false pride which cannot endure the thought of being beaten by a force of less than three or four to one, it takes from the work all real historical value in these particulars, as is shown by the contrast when historians of another nationality, like the Comte de Paris, have occasion to pass upon the same evidence. When Johnston retreats from Bowling Green to Nashville without fighting, the mere march of three or four days is stated as a reason for the diminution in his effective force of nearly thirty per cent. by disease alone ; but the armies of Grant and Buell always figure untouched by such causes, and ready to fight with full rosters, according to the returns of the Adjutant-General's office at Washington.

The closing chapters of the book are filled with eulogies upon the deceased general pronounced in legislative halls, and with extracts from newspapers extolling his merits and denouncing the military officers in the Southwest who, in 1866, thought it necessary to forbid such public demonstrations as were then planned, when after four years' burial in New Orleans his body was removed to Austin. There is no room for doubt that the pageant was intended for political or other effect foreign to any supposed necessity for a removal of the remains. We see no evidence offered that his family conceived the plan or desired it. It was a public matter, and the purpose, if any, was public on the part of the Texan legislature and officials. Whilst, therefore, it was a mistake to interfere with it, and the zeal of our officers may not have been limited by the soundest discretion, we think it bad taste to revive all the sensational particulars of the transfer and re-burial, and especially to unite denunciation of the officers who acted in the matter with allusions to the pains taken by the people of Galveston to give negative evidence of their satisfaction when one of them died amongst them of yellow fever.

These, and many other things scattered through the volume, give it its tone, and show that the writer not only holds, theoretically, to the original justice of the 'Lost Cause' and the total depravity of those who conducted the national affairs, but has not yet succeeded in ridding himself of the animosities which seek opportunities to belittle and sneer at those who were prominent on the successful side. On one side only does there appear to be patriotism or devotion to principle or country ; on the other he sees only "the hireling sword" and action upon "precedents drawn from Cossack rule." We regret this more for the sake of the Southern people themselves than from any apprehension that it will affect the judgment of any impartial reader of history. There is no conceivable condition of things in which the buried issues can be revived again. The only result of such tone in discussion is to cultivate among the young men of the South the narrowness which is the essence of provincialism, and to retard their acceptance of that hearty good neighborhood with all their countrymen which is necessary to encourage an immigration on which they must depend for their growth and the development of the resources of the Southern States. We confess to some disappointment in finding that the more prominent of their teachers are so slow in learning this lesson.

Lights of the Old English Stage. [New Handy-Volume Series.] (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878.)—The contents of this volume are mainly a reproduction of a series of articles which appeared in *Temple Bar*, and can hardly be said to consist of much that is original. They make, however, agreeable reading of a light sort, and are full of entertaining anecdotes of the English stage from the time of Shakspere to that of Charles Young and Mrs. Jordan. Of course many of the chapters are made up out of well-known books, as, for instance, that on Young, the source of which is the delightful volume of memoirs published by his son, the Rev. Julian Young. There is not much discussion of what may be called the theatrical problems of the period—the "star" system, "realism," and so on. For those any one who is interested in the theatre must look elsewhere; but the book is replete with anecdotes and reminiscences which raise all sorts of interesting questions. Nothing, for example, is so striking in a modern theatre as the lack of any positive evidence of any critical appreciation of acting as a fine art. The same people come away from seeing Coghlan, and, let us say, the Fechter of ten years ago, with a general impression that it is "splendid," though nothing is more certain than if the acting of either in melodrama be good, that of the other is not so ; for they represent totally opposite schools. In England, according to Mr. G. H. Lewes, the state of affairs is just as bad, and, according to him, the explanation is that we are a race of Philistines, and do not know good acting from bad. But the curious part of the matter is that there was a period when the Anglo-Saxon race showed the keenest critical appreciation of theatrical art ; when it may be said to have been keener in England than it now is in France. To give a few instances taken at random from the volume before us. When Mrs. Siddons first appeared in *Lady Macbeth* she decided in the sleep-walking scene to place the taper on the table on entering, instead of carrying it (as had previously been the custom), in order to go through the pantomime of washing her hands. The innovation was so startling that Sheridan opposed it, declaring that the audience would not stand it ; that it would damn the whole performance. She insisted, and when the taper was laid down a "sensation went through the house." Mrs. Siddons's wonderful acting triumphed ; but the difference with Sheridan and the "sensation" reveal a delicacy of theatrical feeling in the audience and a thorough familiarity with the "business" of the part which seem now (when almost every new Shaksperian actor introduces new "business" of some kind) almost incredible.

Again, it appears to have been the custom at this time, and for a long period, for rival actors to appear on the same stage, to contest the public favor with each other, as in the case of Peg Woffington and Mrs. Bellamy in the "Rival Queens"—a contest with which all readers of Charles Reade are familiar ; so, on the appearance of Mrs. Siddons, Mrs. Crawford enters the lists against her young rival at Covent Garden, and "numbers of old play-goers flocked thither to renew old impressions and confirm doubtful judgments." The new school triumphed, and Mrs. Crawford was obliged to abandon the field. A sort of uprising against Charles Macklin ended in his peremptory discharge by Colman on the *vivâ-voce* order of the audience. On another occasion we find the performance almost ending in a riot because the audience finds that an old play has been palmed off upon them as a new one. It is quite certain that the change from the rudeness of the old manners of the pit to the decorum which prevails in a modern theatre has been accompanied by a change in the character of the audience from an assemblage of play-goers, guided by critics thoroughly familiar with the history and laws of the drama, and coming for the express purpose of enjoying and applauding nice points and detecting flaws, to a "fortuitous concourse" of persons who barely know the difference between melodrama and tragedy, and who almost always mistake the sensational pleasure derived from skilful stage-effects for that which is produced by true dramatic art. We must not confound the "realism," so called, which insists on "real dirt" for Hamlet's grave, or delights in close imitation of nature where close imitation only results in making the unnaturalness of everything more glaring, with æsthetic discrimination. The two things have little or nothing to do with one another. Of course the change from the violence and riot of the old-fashioned pit to the order which prevails nowadays is a gain, and it might be suggested that the critical and discriminating function discharged in the old days by the audience has devolved upon the press. But as a matter of fact it has not. The criticisms of the press in England and America exercise no appreciable influence upon the course of the development of the drama ; and we are, in fine, forced to the conclusion that a radical change has taken place in the character of Anglo-Saxon audiences, a loss

of dramatic appreciation and taste. On the one hand, this is for any lover of the theatre a depressing fact; on the other, the recollection of what the English theatre has been in the past may give us grounds for hoping for a revival in the future.

To the Arctic Regions and Back in Six Weeks. Being a Summer Tour to Lapland and Norway. With Notes on Sport and Natural History. By Capt. Alex. W. M. Clark Kennedy, F.R.G.S., F.L.S., F.Z.S., etc. Map and numerous illustrations. (London: Sampson Low & Co. 1878.)—Ever since the appearance of Lord Dufferin's 'Letters from High Latitudes' holiday trips to the Scandinavian Peninsula and farther north have been growing more and more common, and the literature of Scandinavian travel has of course kept pace with the travel itself. Still, to the great majority of "globe-trotters" an Arctic trip of six weeks is a novel one, and we have examined Captain Kennedy's volume with some interest to see with what ease it may be accomplished. It must be confessed that it is only by courtesy that the journey described here can be called Arctic. The northernmost point was Tromsö, which lies to the south of 70° north latitude. Here we are in the region of the midnight sun, but not of perpetual ice. Still, it is within the Arctic circle and very much farther north than any one ordinarily goes, and for the pleasure of travelling, particularly if accompanied by a lady, as Captain Kennedy was, is probably quite far enough. The route gone over embraces Christiansand, Christiania, Bergen, Trondhjem, the Lofoden Islands, cariole-driving across country, and, last not least, Lapland. The account given of the trip is simple and unpretending, and contains a great deal of information likely to be valuable to travellers, sportsmen, and naturalists. There is no attempt at fine writing, though the pages devoted to the Laps and the reindeer are really interesting. This part of the tour is given in great detail. The Laps were found without great difficulty on the island of Kvalö, off Tromsö, the trip being made in an open boat. Later in the season they are to be found in a valley called the Tromsdal, on the opposite side of the Tromsö fjord. Captain Kennedy and his wife were hospitably received, and found that the inroads of civilization had not as yet had much effect on their hosts, who displayed a genuine savage delight in some mock jewelry which they had brought with them. This satisfaction seems, however, to have been chiefly displayed by the women, the men evincing discontent with the pocket-mirrors brought for them, and demanding money. The life of these Laps appears to be carried on on a communistic basis, to judge at least from the description given of the family dinner, which Captain Kennedy witnessed. The meal was cooked in a large iron caldron, and each member of the family took what may perhaps best be called "pot-luck."

"At a given signal, every one stood up round the steaming caldron, and at once thrust the pieces of meat, which must have been absolutely at boiling heat, into their mouths with their spoons. Men, women, children, and servants all attend these 'feeds' at one and the same time; and there appears to be no distinction drawn between masters and servants, excepting that, we are told, when it happens that a Lap serving in the capacity of a domestic extracts an especially fat and savory piece of venison from the public 'pot,' the custom is for him at once to hand the tidbit to his superior, who seldom is sufficiently bashful to decline it."

The Laps are described as very dirty, very healthy, very drunken, and very religious, though their congregational practice differs from that in vogue anywhere else, as it includes the custom of expressing their disapproval of the clergyman's ideas or manner of expounding them by shuffling their feet on the floor and loudly groaning in concert. The life of the Laplanders being made up of wanderings from place to place to obtain food for their deer, it might be expected that the only form of wealth known to them would be found to consist of these animals. No other sort of property is mentioned by Captain Kennedy, and he refers to one opulent native said to be the possessor of ten thousand deer, which, as he says, sounds like an exaggerated statement, though it should be noticed that the amount of milk produced by the reindeer is very small, three hundred being stated as the number of deer required for the support of a family of six persons. Notwithstanding the dependence of the Laplanders upon these animals for almost all the necessaries of life, the relations between the "tame" deer and their owners are not always amicable, for in driving it not unfrequently happens, according to Captain Kennedy, that the creature will suddenly turn around and attack its master in a very savage manner.

"Under these circumstances the master has need of the utmost dexterity in jumping out of his sledge, which he at once turns upside down, and, covering himself with his 'carriage,' remains *caché* until the deer has tired itself in butting the sledge with its horns, which have the points taken off, so that little harm ensues. The attack over, out creeps the little Laplander, rights his conveyance, and proceeds once more merrily on his journey."

An appendix contains a summary of expenses of the trip, from which it appears that for a period of six weeks—from June 9 to July 16—from London to Tromsö and back again (five thousand miles, following the windings of the Norwegian coast), the total outlay for Captain Kennedy and his wife was £83 6s. 7d., or, in round numbers, four hundred dollars. This included "first-class tickets on the steamers and in the trains," the "best rooms in hotels," and "good food and very fair wine." This may be said to be the most inexpensive civilized travelling of which we have any record, and constitutes of itself a strong additional inducement to Arctic wanderings.

Histoire de la Marine Française pendant la Guerre de l'Indépendance Américaine. Par E. Chevalier, Capitaine de Vaisseau. (New York: F. W. Christern. 1877.)—This book is a carefully-prepared history of the French Navy during the period of the American Revolution. The materials are drawn from official sources, and the style is modest and clear. The introduction gives a short history of French naval affairs from the reign of Louis XIII. to the peace of Paris, and the first book begins with a short account of the events in America which led to the Declaration of Independence and the alliance with France. The fourteen books which follow bring the history to the close of the war.

The repeated successes of England in the great struggles for the supremacy of the seas have led to a pretty wide-spread notion among English-reading people that the French have little claim to greatness as a maritime nation. M. Chevalier's book shows that England had no contemptible enemy. An incident taken almost at hazard shows the spirit with which the war was carried on. The French Admiral Lamotte-Piquet, lying in Fort Royal Bay with three ships of the line, refitting, his sails unbent, his ammunition on shore, and many of his men in hospital, discovered in the offing a fleet of twenty-six French merchantmen under convoy of one frigate, the *Aurore*, chased by fourteen British sail of the line of the fleet of Admiral Parker.

"Notwithstanding the difficulties of the situation, Lamotte-Piquet did not choose to be present as a simple spectator at the capture of our ships. The signal to attack rose to the mast-head of the *Annibal*. Preparations for getting under way were made with an activity and ardor which the sight of the squadron of Admiral Parker served to stimulate. Sailors taken from the merchant ships in port made up the crews. When the *Annibal*, which was the first ship under way, arrived within cannon-shot of the English, the *Aurore* was defending herself with the greatest energy. Shortly afterwards the *Vengeur* and the *Réfléchi* appeared on the scene of action. The French frigate retired under short sail covering her convoy when Lamotte-Piquet arrived. Night put an end to this unequal contest, during which three French ships had fought the greater part of Admiral Parker's fleet."

The author may be pardoned for not dwelling with minuteness on the actions with Rodney of April 17, 1780, and April 9 and 12, 1782. The discussions of those engagements are apologetic and explanatory, and the decisions of the court-martial which followed the latter are given at length.

The book presents many points of interest to an American reader. In it we read of numerous acts of enterprise and daring which find no place in an English history, and we learn to appreciate how much we really owed to the French alliance for the success of the war. It is not, however, for Americans that the book is written. It calls attention to a time when France had recovered rapidly from the effects of a disastrous war, even as she is now recovering. The first words of the preface give the spirit of the book: "The war of American Independence is one of the most glorious epochs of our history. By its results France was enabled to efface the humiliating treaty imposed upon her by England in 1763." In fifteen years after that treaty, which left France without a navy, with the same recuperative energy she is now displaying she was again in a position to cope with England at sea.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Alzog (Rev. J.), Manual of Universal Church History, 3 vols	(Robert Clarke & Co.)	$15 00
Barkley (H. C.), My Boyhood: a Child's Story	(E. P. Dutton & Co.)	1 50
Boston Illustrated, swd	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	35
Brooks (Rev. P.), Sermons	(E. P. Dutton & Co.)	1 75
Brown (Rev. J.), Life of John Eadie, D.D.	(Macmillan & Co.)	2 25
De Rialle (G.), La Mythologie Comparée	(F. W. Christern)	
Fields (J. T.) and Whipple (E. P.), Family Library of British Poetry	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	6 50
Gibbon (C.), Life of George Combe, 2 vols	(Macmillan & Co.)	8 00
Rogers (May), The Waverley Dictionary	(S. C. Griggs & Co.)	2 00
Scudder (H. E.), The Bodleys on Wheels	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	1 50
Sherwood (Mary N.), The Little Good-for-Nothing	(Estes & Lauriat)	1 50
Sleight (Mary B.), Prairie Days: a Child's Story	(E. P. Dutton & Co.)	1 50
Van Dyck	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	50
Warren (S. E.), Commercial Free-hand Drawing	(John Wiley & Sons)	1 00

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 10, 1878.

The Week.

AS we go to press, the returns from the elections of last Tuesday indicate an unexpectedly good result. The fate of the "Ohio Idea" appears to have been hard in the extreme; in spite of it the Republicans have gained thirty thousand votes, and its defeat is not only a just rebuke to Senator Thurman, but greatly lessens his chances for the Presidential nomination. The other main reliance of the Democrats, the gerrymandering of the districts, appears to have proved no more successful; they meant to leave the Republicans but six Congressmen, and already nine are conceded to them, while Foster's district is in doubt. The defeat of Sayler and the probable election of English are also gratifying. In Iowa the Republicans have of course a majority, and apparently suffer no loss in Congressmen. In Indiana the Democrats elect their State ticket, and by report the Nationals probably hold the balance of power in the Legislature which will vote upon Voorhees for the Senate. In West Virginia the Democrats carry all except one Congressional district, and may have defeated there a Republican-Greenbacker. What is surprising and encouraging in all this is, that the soft-money heresy seems to have obtained a much less strong hold upon public sentiment than has been believed almost universally; nowhere, apparently, did the Greenbackers poll so many votes as was anticipated. The victory of the Republicans upon the hard-money platform has come more easily and quickly than there was any reason to believe, and it reverses the inference from the Maine election, that the immediate result would be a temporary defeat of the Republicans.

The Republican victory in Colorado on the 1st instant was gained upon local rather than national issues. The reckless injustice of the Democratic House in seating Patterson over Judge Belford has resulted in the latter's return by a greatly-increased majority, and the known fact that Loveland, the Democratic nominee for Governor, and prospectively for the Senate, would, if elected, represent nothing but Jay Gould and the Union Pacific interest, had more to do with determining the result against him than any question of currency or public policy. The success of the Republicans lies in their having prevented Colorado from being pocketed, like some other Western States, by a corporation.

The *Tribune* published on Tuesday its promised first instalment of Democratic campaign despatches relating to the Florida count. The most important of these passed between New York and Florida between November 30 and December 5, 1876, and appear to have been sent by Henry Havemeyer and Col. W. T. Pelton (Mr. Tilden's nephew) on one side and Manton Marble, C. W. Woolley, and John F. Coyle on the other. The Returning Board opened the returns on the 28th of November, and a decision, it was known, would be reached in a few days. On December 2 Coyle telegraphs Havemeyer: "My hope small. . . . Nothing but cash will avail. . . ." On the same day a despatch is sent without signature to Col. Pelton, at Mr. Tilden's house, 15 Gramercy Park, as follows: "Have just received a proposition to hand over at any hour required Tilden decision of Board and certificate of Governor for $200,000." That this was sent by Mr. Marble seems proved by the reply, also unsigned, but addressed to him: "Despatch here. Proposition too high.(?)" On the day before, however, it appears that Woolley telegraphed to Havemeyer that a similar arrangement might be made for "half of a hundred thousand dollars," and enquired: "Can you say will deposit in bank immediately if agreed?" This was answered by a despatch signed "H.": "Telegram received. Will deposit dollars agreed. [You] cannot, however, draw before vote member received." On the 4th, Marble telegraphs: "Proposition received either giving vote of Republican of Board, or his concurrence in court action preventing electoral vote from being cast, for half hundred best United States documents"; a despatch which clearly refers to the same proposition as the following from Woolley of the same date: "May Woolley give hundred thousand dollars less half for Tilden additional Board member?" These two telegrams were finally answered by an unsigned despatch of the same date, addressed to Marble: "Telegram here. Proposition accepted if done only once. Better consult with Woolley and act in concert. You can trust him. Time very important and there should be no divided councils." This, however, came, as a despatch from Woolley immediately announced, "too late," and his report is confirmed by a telegram from Marble dated the 5th: "Proposition failed. . . . Tell Tilden to saddle Blackstone" (resort to legal proceedings).

The method employed in deciphering this correspondence has been explained by the *Tribune*, and leaves no room for doubt that the translations are correct. They corroborate McLin's otherwise doubtful testimony that Marble attempted to bribe him at the time of the count, a charge which the latter met at the time by calling McLin an "ague-smitten pariah." It will be no doubt urged by the Democrats that Tilden is not connected in any way with the correspondence; but any one who tries to believe this will find his powers of faith sorely taxed. The discovery of the key to the ciphers used is a great "card" for the *Tribune* (the *Times* pays it the tribute of absolute silence on the subject), for the Anti-Tilden Democrats, and the Republicans, who will no doubt use the despatches with effect for two years to come. We must say, however, that we should like to know what inducements were used on the Republican side that neutralized or overcame the influence of the money the Democrats seem to have been so ready to spend. There was clearly a good deal of corruptible material in Florida connected in one way or another with the count and the Board, and it was really more important for the Republicans to secure this than for their opponents, for, from what we know of the Florida election, from the independent testimony of General Barlow, the State had really voted by a slight majority for Tilden electors. Why did money lavishly offered produce no results, and what were the inducements held out that brought the Marble-Woolley plot to naught?

The *Tribune* says that their failure was owing to the direct interposition of Providence. In one of the cipher despatches four words were missing which made it unintelligible, causing a delay—or, as the *Tribune* puts it:

"But if, in the secret purpose of any trusted and sworn member of that Board of three, upon whose action depended the fate of forty millions of people, there lurked a thought of treachery and crime, the God of Nations saved this land from ruin and dishonor, for his lightnings refused, until it was too late, to bear intelligibly the shameful order to consummate the crime, and held their secret until the danger had passed."

We cannot believe, however, that such astute politicians as "Zach" and "Bill" Chandler in their dealings with Dennis and McLin trusted altogether in the God of Nations. We fear we shall never know precisely what saved us from ruin and dishonor until we know what the Republican agents did between the 30th of November and the 5th of December, 1876, and get a glimpse of the secret despatches on their side. We know from their own appearance before the Potter Committee what manner of men the Florida counters were; that some of them, at least, were marketable the cipher telegrams show, and we therefore have our curiosity roused as to the precise means employed by the God of Nations to make them give the Presidency to the right man, and yet satisfy the longings of their cor-

rupt nature for money or goods. That anything in the nature of a miracle, such as change in the quality of electricity or of iron wire, was resorted to for this purpose we refuse to believe. We feel quite sure no such tremendous exercise of power was needed to overrule Dennis or McLin for good in any required direction.

We have commented elsewhere on the curious action of Butler's constituents in the Seventh Massachusetts District in calling on him for his resignation on account of his bad behavior since his nomination two years ago. The convention by which the action was taken recited the various pledges he made to the Republicans of the District before they elected him, described the sad way in which he had failed to keep them, and the abominable manner in which he is now conducting himself in various parts of the country, and ended by calling unanimously for his resignation. One of the most painful features in the canvass is the disposition of the Massachusetts Republican papers to question the General's veracity; most of them have now little hesitation in doubting his word. Imputations of inconsistency, too, are freely thrown out against him, and must be damaging and painful to him from their very novelty. What is saddest of all, however, is the growing tendency which we notice to believe in, and even spread, the old "rebel lies" against him. It begins to be said that he didn't take New Orleans after all; that he traded actively with the enemy around Fortress Monroe, and that he didn't "take care of Ben Hill." Some excitable persons are asking what use he ever was to the party. No wonder the sorely-tried old patriot exclaims in the bitterness of his soul, "O the lying, lying press!"

A correspondence between Governor Hampton, of South Carolina, and Governor Rice, of Massachusetts, about the failure of the latter to deliver up Kimpton has been published during the week, and is not marked by skill or good temper on either side. Governor Hampton's letter had the additional defect of appearing in the newspapers before it reached its destination in Boston. He characterizes Governor Rice's refusal as "a flagrant violation of the supreme law of the land," and adds that his (Governor Rice's) statement that Kimpton was asked for not for trial for the crime charged "but for a different purpose," was "entirely unwarranted," and he "repels the unworthy imputation with indignant scorn." This is in the best Congressional style, but Governor Rice was equal to the occasion. He first "scathed" Governor Hampton, as the reporters say, with a "cutting allusion" to the unseemliness of a lecture from South Carolina to Massachusetts on the fulfilment of Constitutional obligations, and then he alleged that Kimpton *was* wanted for "a different purpose," and, after "hurling back" the scorn, returned the Hampton letter as unfit for the Massachusetts archives. We think this was as judicious a thing as he could have done with it, for that Governor Rice has disobeyed the supreme law of the land there is little doubt, and his only real defence against Hampton on this head is that there is no remedy. This is really the chief justification for the exercise of the gubernatorial "discretion" in these matters, and for the legal quibbling about it, to which we have lately been treated. Moreover, the allegation that it is a perversion of the machinery of extradition to use a man surrendered under it as a witness (and that such use is "another purpose" in a moral or legal sense) about the crime with which he is charged, and of which in testifying he would confess himself guilty, is another quibble, and it is best that the Massachusetts State archives should not contain a charge that the governor has been guilty of it from any responsible source.

Attorney-General Devens has sent a circular to the district-attorneys in Louisiana, Alabama, and South Carolina calling their attention to attempts which have recently been made in Alabama to prevent the holding of Republican meetings, and referring to the statutory provision for the punishment of all combinations or conspiracies for such attempts, and directing them to enforce the law by arrest and indictment, firmly but impartially and fairly. If the district-attorneys are men of good character they can do a world of good, and, in fact, give intimidation a finishing stroke, by doing their duty in the matter, and if Southerners of standing in the neighborhood have any of their old political sense left they will see the utility of giving all attempts to put down bullying prompt and efficient support. This, to put the matter on the lowest ground, is good electioneering policy. What Democratic gain by breaking up negro meetings can equal the damage done by supplying material to the "bloody shirt" agitators at the North?

There have been various alarming rumors from the Indian country during the week. The bands of Red Cloud and Spotted Tail, numbering above ten thousand and able to put three thousand warriors into the field, are said to have taken the war-path and to be on their way westward to the Black Hills, whither the Cheyennes, who left their reservation some time ago, are still fleeing, as well as others of that tribe, in company with a few Arapahoes from Camp Brown, Wyoming. These Indians have long been friendly and peaceful, and were to have been removed last spring to their new reservations. Delay has followed delay, and the attitude of Spotted Tail's band has been more and more unpromising, until some three or more weeks ago they set out for their new home on their own account, and later the Red Cloud band followed their example. The report of their defection is not *primâ facie* improbable, but neither is it improbable that these Indians will stop when they reach their reservation, which they themselves chose, and have no hostile intentions as a body.

Among the minor events of the week the play of the celebrated Australian cricketers in this country deserves mention. They arrived fresh from a long series of triumphs over the best English teams, including Mr. Grace's Gloucestershire Eleven, and with but very few defeats to be explained away. Their first game on this side was with a New York Eighteen, whom they barely surpassed in the first innings, but decidedly in the second, in a match lasting two days. Proceeding immediately to Philadelphia, where the game has been more assiduously cultivated by Americans than anywhere else, they were confronted not by eighteen, but by their own number, and on Thursday the match began. The Philadelphians went first to the bat, and kept their places all day, being put out for 196 runs, in spite of the most strenuous exertions on the part of their opponents. On Friday the Australians took their turn, and they, too, consumed the day, but to their chagrin they were at the close forty-six runs behind the Philadelphians. Their demeanor on Saturday, when they were in the field, showed that they were determined to take advantage of every technicality to prevent the game from going against them, and their appeals from the Philadelphia umpire's rulings finally ended in what, but for the evidence of concert and previous understanding, would have seemed a childish refusal to play any more. They left the field in a body and would, in all probability, not have resumed the game if their receipts had not depended upon it. The Philadelphians were firm in adhering to their position—which was, that if one umpire was dismissed both should be—and after more than an hour's delay the Australians returned to their duty and the innings ended with a total of fifty-three runs. Their own second innings had earned them fifty-six runs, with six wickets in reserve, when the close of the day and their Canadian engagements compelled them to leave the game a drawn one. The nerve (not only in the game but in the unfortunate wrangle with their guests) and skill displayed by the Philadelphians were, considering the greater weight and formidable reputation of the Australians, creditable in the highest degree. We believe it is safe to say that a much stronger eleven could be made up than actually played last week, and that in England itself they would have a fair chance of repeating the record of the Australians.

The failure of the Glasgow Bank is one of those tremendous collapses in which Great Britain considerably outdoes this country, for here the generally reputed safe and solid things seldom break down on a great scale. Curiously enough, too, the last great bank

failure in Great Britain, that of the Western Bank in 1857, occurred, like this, under the famously safe Scotch system, which, however, proves nothing except that every system depends for at least a third of its excellence on the men who work it. Like the Western Bank and Overend & Gurney, the Glasgow Bank has perished through that most insidious of bank diseases, the attempt to save debtors in difficulties by continued advances, or, in other words, the unwillingness to accept a small loss in the beginning. The liabilities are said to amount in all to about $50,000,000, about three-fourths in deposits, but the assets are said to be much better than was supposed in the first moments of alarm. The fact that the shares were quoted at 237 a week before the failure (on a par of 100), and that the liability of the stockholders is unlimited, is a striking illustration of the frightful insecurity in which in our time people live, even with the most perfect legal protection against spoliation. The stockholders number 1,250, most of them, it is said, people of small means and dependent on their income from the bank, which has been paying 12 per cent., so we may fancy what an amount of human misery lies under the announcement of such a failure.

Notwithstanding that there were premonitions of the failure of the Glasgow Bank, its actual suspension created a shock in London sufficient to depress British consols one per cent. Other important failures followed, yet the recovery from the first great shock was, so far as London prices indicate, nearly completed at the close of the week. The bank had no London office, and drafts upon it were not sold in this country; nevertheless, there was much anxiety here, and immediate remittances for London were in sufficient demand to arrest the downward tendency of the sterling bill market. Before the end of the week this demand relaxed, and sterling bills fell half a "point," and they are again apparently on the road to the specie-importing point. Gold, which had not for a long time been above 100½, advanced to 100¾, and receded to 100½ to 100⅝, but the greenback craze is more responsible for the rise in gold than is any commercial consideration. Silver bullion fell in London to 51¼*d.* per oz., the lowest price since the Silver Bill was passed last winter. The bullion value of the 412½-grain dollar fell to $0.8623 gold. The rates for money advanced 1 to 2 per cent. early in the week, but this advance was lost. The reserve of the New York banks was decreased during the week $2,361,250.

There is no doubt that the disenchantment with the Treaty of Berlin and the Anglo-Turkish Convention is going on very rapidly. The Turks have, it is true, done a good deal towards carrying them out—such as the surrender of the Danubian fortresses and of Batum—but the course of events in Bosnia and Albania shows that the effect of the Treaty on which Beaconsfield most relied for its justification, the strengthening of Turkey, has not resulted from it. In fact, that Turkey has been seriously if not fatally weakened by what has happened can no longer be denied. There is, too, great and growing uncertainty as to whether the Sultan has now authority enough to carry out any reforms in Asia Minor, and as to what will happen in case he refuses or fails. To crown all, twenty-five per cent. of the force occupying Cyprus are down with the fever, and there appears to be no doubt that the island is terribly and permanently unhealthy and cannot be garrisoned without serious loss of life. This could be borne if it were not that the cold-blooded have begun to ask what its strategic value is, and nobody seems ready with an answer. If it is to be used as a base of operations against anybody it is against the Russians, four hundred miles off on the mainland, and a fever-stricken island seems, at best, a poor place to move from against a powerful enemy at that distance.

The news from India seems to portend war with Afghanistan, and n fact at this writing there are rumors afloat that fighting has already begun. All attempts to bring the Amir to reason have failed, and he has been reported at Simla as saying that he had seven crores of rupees, all of which he would spend in war. Troops are in the meantime rapidly concentrating on the frontier, in order to strike a decided blow before winter, and any day may now bring the news of a collision. The Liberal view of the affair in England is that Lord Lytton, the present governor-general, is a "viewy," romancing politician, like his master at home, and equally fond of startling effects; that he has by teasing and threatening forced the Amir, who was perfectly friendly in Lord Mayo's time, into an attitude of hostility; that the coming of the Russian envoy was the natural consequence of the quarrel over the Turks, but that he might have been got rid of by a friendly remonstrance addressed to St. Petersburg; that, instead of this, a bullying course towards the Amir has been resorted to, in the certainty that he would resist and thus furnish an opportunity for cheap theatrical victories, which would cover up the more and more patent failure of the Berlin Treaty and keep alive the cockney bellicoseness; that if the attack covers more serious designs than this it is a blunder of the first magnitude, inasmuch as it would result in the abandonment of a short and defensible frontier for a line of indefinite extent, and add a mountainous province peopled by a hardy, fierce, and untamable population to the already gigantic responsibilities of the Indian army and treasury.

Turkey, it now appears, pursued the same course towards Austria which she has been pursuing towards Greece. After, on one pretext or another, putting off signing a convention with regard to the occupation of Bosnia, in spite of the efforts of Count Zichy to bring her to a conclusion, she has issued a circular note, very like the one she issued about the Greek claims, addressed to the Powers, and asking for another decision as to Austria's right to occupy Bosnia at all, and calling on them to stop the advance and check the excesses of her troops until the decision is reached. In fact, as in the case of the Greeks, the note talks as if the Berlin Treaty had settled nothing, and was simply a bundle of suggestions, which is an amusing view for the Turk to take. The cause of this procrastination is said by the best-informed Constantinople correspondents to be the invincible belief of the Turks, which long experience has done something to justify, that when they are in a scrape something will turn up to help them out, so they put off any irrevocable step as long as possible. It will be observed that it is only as regards Russia that they have done much to carry out the Treaty, and they would probably not have done anything but for the presence of the Russian troops close to Constantinople.

The effect of these performances at Vienna is, of course, very exasperating, and though they help Andrássy by rousing popular animosity to the Turks, they have almost fatally embarrassed him financially. He has spent the 30,000,000 florins for which he was allowed credit in the beginning, and will probably need as much more, and Herr Von Szell, the Hungarian Minister of Finance, acknowledges that the problem is too much for him by resigning, and the other ministers have followed his example, but are to occupy their places provisionally for the present, and probably until the meeting of the Diet. The Hungarians are really on the verge of bankruptcy, and the danger of a war with Turkey, combined with the unpopularity of the Andrássy policy from the beginning, makes the situation a very serious one for the Empire. The final extinction of the resistance in Bosnia is a help to a solution, but the expenses of occupation and reorganization must be still forthcoming, for Bosnia and Herzegovina are exhausted and will probably yield little in taxes for three years.

The Anti-Socialist Bill has come from the hands of the Committee with various modifications, of which the principal ones are the change in the court of appeal from the decisions of the police, of which we spoke last week, a more precise definition of the offence, and a limitation of the duration of the act to two years or two years and a half; the exemption of booksellers and circulating libraries, and the refusal of the power of banishing Socialist agitators. To this last change the Government is strongly opposed, but it seems likely that the majority of the Reichstag will hold firm about it, and that the Government will eventually give way.

THE REPUBLICAN BUTLER.

GENERAL BUTLER does not often make contributions to a controversy which deserve attention or respect; but some of his remarks in one of his addresses in Massachusetts the other night were very suggestive. He was speaking of the attacks now made on his character by the Republican papers of the State, and he asked, with great force, how it was, if his character was so bad, that he had for eighteen years occupied such a high position in the party, in the constant receipt of honors and marks of confidence, and that only two years ago he had been nominated in a Republican district and returned to Congress over the head of Judge Hoar, one of the most respectable and respected Republicans in the country. In fact, he had, he said, and with truth, for fifteen years been a "leader in the party" to whom good Republicans looked with trust in all times of danger and distress. These observations naturally produced a good deal of effect on his auditors. They have been considerably strengthened by the late action of the Republican Convention of the district which he now represents in Congress—the Seventh. At their meeting on Wednesday week they drew up an elaborate series of resolutions, giving Butler's political history for the last two years—that is, since they nominated him for Congress in 1876—and closing with a demand for his resignation, all of which were passed unanimously, and with great applause. The first of these resolutions is very remarkable, and as a specimen of the ethics of conventions and caucuses goes a good way to give Butler even now an air of respectability. It shows that Butler, when *seeking* their nomination for Congress in 1876, addressed a letter to the Republicans of the district in which he declared that he was opposed to a return to specie payments, but that as the party had decided on it he would "bow to the decision." In other words, he made no secret of the fact that he was at heart a repudiationist, and only accepted hard-money doctrines for the purpose of keeping his standing in the party and getting back into Congress. With this confession on his lips, and knowing his character, public and private, quite as well as they know it to-day, the Convention nominated him, and sent him to Washington to advocate theories of finance in which they knew he did not believe, and support legislation which he considered injurious. In other words—to sum the matter up in a few words—they became confederates with him in a game of fraud and hypocrisy which he made not the slightest attempt to disguise. Under these circumstances it does seem a little hard on the old man to have the Convention now reproach him with "trading with the enemy for the advancement of his personal fortunes," and declare that his promises are only a "kind of fiat currency, having no intrinsic value; cheap, delusive, and irredeemable." The resolutions acknowledge, moreover, that the Republicans of the district "braved much obloquy to honor him when he had been dishonored elsewhere." The reasons why he was "dishonored elsewhere" were, in fact, those which the Convention give for dishonoring him now—false pretences, fraud, hypocrisy, treachery, intrigue, and "trading with the enemy," and they were just as well known and as thoroughly credited in 1876 as they are to-day.

His political career, indeed, for twenty-five years has been one long "trade." It is but just to him to say that at no period has he ever pretended to the possession of principles, or to belief in the possession of them by any one else, but has always been ostentatious in his admiration for tricky and successful "trade." In dealing with questions of international law or government liability, which do not lie within the jurisdiction of the courts or the police, he has always shown a kind of boisterous joy in cheating, and a deep contempt for scruples. A correspondent of the Boston *Advertiser*, in view of these facts, commenting on the course of the Convention, pertinently asks:

"How many of our Representatives in Congress, how many of our scheming politicians, how many of our political workers . . . wear the mask over the face of their convictions? General Butler was bold enough to openly avow his opinions; he was also bold enough to advocate them in the face of his plighted agreement and positive promise; how many of our political workers are like General Butler in everything but his bold, impudent independence of spirit? We live, it is true, in an evil hour, but let us not imagine that all the evil of the hour is confined to one man and his followers, or that it is *all* on the surface, like cream on the top of milk. The reformation that we need in this nation is a complete moral and ethical reformation, a thorough-going reformation of the *inside*, of the very soul and heart of the nation."

He unfortunately cites Wendell Phillips in contrast to Butler as an example of a sincere though wrong-headed politician; but he forgets to add that, as regards Butler, even this moralist stands in precisely the same category with the Republicans of the Seventh District. Nobody has more ardently advocated the General's retention in public life or made lighter of his defects of character, so that the "complete moral and ethical reformation" will have to embrace even the great orator himself.

The bearing of this on the conduct of the canvass against Butler in Massachusetts is important. We have no expectation that he will be elected, but we are afraid that just as he is, with all his sins upon his head, the strength of his supporters will surprise and shock a great many excellent people next November. The weapons on which his adversaries are relying most are charges of gross dishonesty and inconsistency, but we make bold to say that they are not producing a particle of effect, for the simple but very cogent reason that the Republicans themselves disregarded them when they thought that Butler could be useful to them. During the last eighteen years they have in the most ostentatious way taught the masses who are now hurrahing for Butler and who are going to vote for him—the laborers and artisans and sorely-pressed farmers, whose education is small and whose ethical perceptions are constantly blunted by the pressure of necessity—that if a man is "sound on the main question," that is, can be relied on to carry out the party will on some point which happens at the time to be considered most important, his moral character is of no sort of consequence. Under this teaching the Butlerite constituency which is now frightening Massachusetts from its propriety has been steadily growing, not in that State only, but all over the country. Exposures of Butler's knavery produce no effect on it, because it thinks that, knave though he be, he will be faithful on the "main question"—that is, the multiplication of dollars and the spoliation of bondholders and capitalists. In other words, though he may have lied and cheated and stolen ever so much, he is sure "to take care of Ben Hill"—for they, too, have their "Ben Hill"; and we, who have been for fourteen years pointing out the danger of Butler to the party, and the infinite damage to public morals which the support of him by respectable men was working, may be pardoned for recalling the time, not so very long ago, when leading Republican moralists were as much amused by charges of rascality against him as the motley crowd who frequent his meetings are now. The acceptance of him during the war was pardonable enough, because in war any rascal may save an empire, and he was, in the excitement of the time, able to commit one of the greatest of his frauds by persuading people that he was a soldier; but the party dealings with him since 1867 have been absolutely indefensible, and everybody who believes in the moral government of the world ought to be glad that he has lived long enough to take the field against the party at the head of the crowd whom it has helped him to deceive and debauch. It is in this way, rather than by preaching, that politics are purified.

If it be asked, Why say these things now, when all influences are needed to secure his defeat, and to save the public credit from the party with which he is acting? the answer is that it is only during a canvass that these little historical lessons receive any serious attention. The fight once over, they assume the character of sermons, by which the active politicians profess to be greatly edified, but to which they never think of listening. Moreover, Butlerism will not be killed or the Republican party be purified by this or any one election. The insincerity which has been its curse of late years, and which is at this moment causing many of the leaders to hesitate whether they will "go in" for hard money, for unlimited green-

backs, or for Mississippi murders and illicit distilleries, will not pass away with the present crisis. No party can save the public credit which is not managed by men who, as Cromwell said, "know what they are fighting for, and love what they know." We have to get rid of the doctors who practise homœopathy and allopathy as the patient pleases, and of the pastors who are ready to preach Universalism or eternal damnation as a majority of the congregation may desire. The Republican party was not built up by charlatanry, and cannot be saved by it. It must be led by men who dislike Butler not because he has become useless, but because no good cause can be served by him or his kind.

THE CONSTITUENCY OF THE NATIONALS.

TO describe the National party as the party of discontent, as it has been called, does not convey much information, and is entirely uninstructive in regard to means by which it may be disarmed or dissipated. Every new party is a party of discontent. What individualizes a party is that which is the cause of its dissatisfaction and the methods by which it proposes, in its changes and reforms, to remove what is objectionable and to amend the condition of things. The Socialists of Europe are thus a party of discontent, but there is little in the present American movement which is closely cognate with the popular agitation in France or Germany. The Nationals are not Communists, and there is no use in trying to make them out such. The few men who displayed the red flag in Brooklyn last summer add but a small contingent to the new party. It is not they who are putting the public faith and the material prosperity of the nation in danger. In fact, there has been too much of the cry of Communism in the campaign. In this country, as yet, there is no scheme fairly afoot for the levelling of private property or the regeneration of society. Kearney has led many people, who are easily frightened, astray upon this matter. He was merely a noisy fellow, without anything that could properly be called a following, who has obtained notoriety as a novelty. Men similar to him undoubtedly swell the ranks of the National party, but they are merely social camp-followers, the material which make up the vicious and mob-loving class in all cities. To look on Kearneyism or on Socialism as the causes of the present wave of political change is not merely to make an error but it is to miss the real object of danger. Wherever Communism exists the keynote is of a different sort, and there is something of its nobler and ideal side, its cry of humanity, its vision of universal kindliness among men; but with these there is no sign of sympathy in our American politics. The National party is a home product; it gathers up and mingles with itself many elements, but essentially it springs from our own economic difficulties and trials. It has a place in practical politics, it has defined its immediate aim, it has declared its method: it looks for an immediate success not merely in the sense of winning a great political victory, but in restoring material prosperity, in setting mills and factories in motion, and invigorating all trade and industry.

The men who make up the party are uncounted, and the estimate of their numbers exists only in the vague fear of threatened political defeat. It is clear from this ignorance as well as from direct report that the constituency of the party is recruited to an alarming extent from men not open ordinarily to plans of repudiation, but who are on the whole industrious, intelligent, and respectable. In New-England the farmers, who have had the benefit of whatever public schools could give them, have joined the party in large numbers apparently, and throughout the West this class forms the largest portion of the Nationals. Many of these men were sincere patriots in the war; they are not regardless of the nation's honor, and will assent to payment of the bonds in whatever the Supreme Court shall declare to be lawful money for that purpose, but for themselves and the country at large they demand greenbacks. They are, of course, the debt-owing class. They are told, truly enough, that the money they received for their mortgages and notes was of not much more than half the purchasing power of the money they are now compelled to pay to redeem these. On the other hand, it is vastly more difficult to get money now than then. They have seen times grow worse, the prices of their products lessen, harder earning and harder saving, and less and less hope of discharging their debts, and the prospect of their standing again where they can begin to provide a competency for their old age is constantly receding. The solution which the greenback party offers for their difficulties seems plain, simple, and, to them at least, without substantial dishonesty. Inflation will bring high prices, but that is what they are longing for, since they expect to produce more than they consume and to obtain a larger margin for saving. Inflation will make money worth less, but that is what they desire. In short, their plans look to bringing back the purchasing power of money to the same standard which it had when their own debts were contracted, and to the bringing back of the same condition of things, as regards exchange of commodities, which obtained when, under the impression that that condition would be permanent, they contracted debts which a continuance of their prosperity then would have allowed them to discharge. Paper money made those times, they think, and paper money will bring them back. If it be urged, finally, that the last result will be a repetition of general bankruptcy, they think they will be bright enough to keep out of it the next time.

That this course of thought and condition of mind exist among many of the middle classes—among the men, that is to say, on whose integrity and political sense legislation depends for its own honesty and wisdom—has been clear for some time. Their unexpected activity in attempting to realize ideas in which few political leaders agreed with them, is all that is new in the situation. They have joined the operatives and workmen of the towns and cities, who have been more vociferous and who wish inflation as the concomitant of high wages and employment, with which it before appeared, and this party is organized and formidable. Undoubtedly there is a large element in it which represents unadulterated dishonesty, and which is deliberately endeavoring to make the sharp practice of their private business a rule of public policy; but the fact that the body of the party contains so many industrious, intelligent, and respectable men is the hopeful side of the situation. These latter have not thought out the situation, and the strength of the greenback movement is the crudity of its thought. When information is given to the voters, and such clear, concise, and striking statements of financial facts and laws are being made as are contained in the speeches of the President, of Garfield and Schurz and Bayard—when these are discussed everywhere and the material for judgment placed fully before the voters, the effect cannot fail to be marked. The further problems appear, the minor issues of ways and means of maintaining Government currency, the question of administrative detail, the dangers of centralized financial power, the recollection of the older men about the earlier political struggles over the financial questions before the war—all these come to the surface, and there must follow a great modification in the views and support of the main body of the new party. This is what makes ultimate Republican success probable, if that party continues to hold the pronounced position it has now taken. The danger, however, is not to be obscured by hopes of its speedy passing away. At present there is a numerous and sanguine party which looks to making the Government the author and controller of the currency directly, and at placing in the hands of successive Congresses the virtual command of the rate at which all private debts shall be compounded for, from month to month. This may be done merely from ignorance, from a wish to do something, no matter what, to relieve the burden of debt, or from other causes. But it must be met by the diffusion of information in regard to facts, by printed statistics, by strong, earnest, and uncompromising statements of the inevitable failure of the hopes of the greenback party wherever it may gain the ascendant. It has been pointed out that the greenback party is strong now where last year it was weak, and that it has disappeared virtually from places where last year it was rampant. This indicates that discussion and new knowledge are fatal to it, and is evidence to the Republicans that, now that they have fastened once more on a principle, as Mr. Curtis said at Sara-

toga, they ought not to let it go until the currency is finally withdrawn from party politics by a final redemption of all paper dollars of the Government.

THE TENURE OF LAND IN ENGLAND.

A CORRESPONDENT of the Cincinnati *Gazette* writing from London the other day gave some interesting information about the salary of the English bishops, and, by way of illustrating the nature of the rector's property in the glebe and church and churchyard, compared it to the estates of the great landowners, saying: "Nearly all the large estates in the kingdom are under the law of entail—that is, the descent is fixed, and the owner cannot sell it or change the course of descent. However, when all interested parties are agreed, the estate may be disentailed by special act of Parliament." This passage has been widely copied, and falls in with the belief popularly held in this country about English land-tenures, but there is hardly a word of truth in it. There are no entailed estates in England ; the law makes them impossible. It is true a man may entail his estate by will to his heirs male or heirs female, but any tenant in tail can under the Statute 3 and 4, Will. IV., chap. 74, by filing a deed in the manner there prescribed bar the entail and acquire the property in fee and dispose of it in any manner he pleases, provided there is no person entitled to a life-estate in it, in which case he must obtain that person's consent. There almost always is such a person, so that it is not often that a tenant in tail can convert the property into fee simple ; but this is due not to the operation of law, but to custom embodied in what are called "marriage settlements," freely made by the persons owning the property, and it is these which foreigners constantly take for perpetual entails. When a man owning an estate marries he usually "settles" his property by a deed, giving it to himself for life, and then, to secure his wife's jointure and portions for his younger children, to his eldest son, and then to his other sons successively in tail, in case the eldest has no issue ; then to his daughters as tenants in common in tail, "with cross-remainders"—that is, the interest of each going to the others on her death without issue—and finally, in case of failure of all issue and death of the wife, back to himself in fee. This is all the entailing that is ever done or can be done, and it only goes beyond the power of entail in the State of New York in the fact that it gives the estate to persons not in being at the time of the settlement. Perpetual entail has not been known in England since Taltarum's case, in the time of Edward IV., as all students of Blackstone are aware, the judges at that time having introduced the power of alienation by the clumsy legal fiction known as "fine and recovery," which was abolished by the act of Will. IV. Practically, except in the case of estates granted for public services, such as Marlborough's, Nelson's, and Wellington's, no estate can now be entailed longer than the lives of persons in existence and twenty-one years thereafter.

In the ordinary course of things the property, on the death of the father, passes under the settlement to the eldest son, who takes it subject to his mother's jointure and the portions due to his younger brothers and sisters ; but if he has not joined his father in resettling it, he can, subject to these encumbrances, do what he pleases with it. Usually, however, he does join his father in resettling it, on his coming of age or on his getting married, in order to adapt it to altered circumstances. He may, for instance, be willing to agree, in consideration of an allowance given him by his father, to join in increasing his mother's jointure or the portions of his younger brothers and sisters, and, in any case, he will wish to fix anew the course the estate is to take after his death, and thus the settlement is pushed one generation farther forward. But all this is the result of family feeling, enforced and sustained by the opinion of the class. A man need not make this kind of settlement on his marriage if he does not choose ; a son need not join his father in resettling the property if he does not choose. A man may keep his land in fee, and convert it into fee, if he pleases, and leave it to his children share and share alike, after satisfying the claims of tenants for life, if there are any. There is nothing in the law to hinder him. What does hinder him is tradition and prejudice, and the strong desire of his sons and daughters "to keep the family up" and have the credit of belonging to it, rather than put an end to its prominence and distinction by dividing the property. Undoubtedly great hardship and great evil often result from this custom, and it seems on its face a violation of natural justice, but it is to the bulk of Englishmen of the upper and middle class consecrated by usage, and seems part of the fitness of things. Every manufacturer and merchant looks forward as the object of his highest ambition to buying an estate in land and settling and resettling it in just this manner, in tail male or tail female, with remainders and cross-remainders, and his sons may impose on Americans and Frenchmen with stories of strict entail which nothing but the omnipotence of Parliament can bar, but there is no such thing within his reach.

Similar errors constantly float through our newspapers and political speeches about the law of primogeniture in England. The popular notion is that by the law of England property in land *must* go to the eldest son. It will be seen from what we have said above how little foundation there is for this. The "law of primogeniture" prescribes that in case the owner of an estate in fee dies without a will the land shall go to the eldest son. But there are only very few owners of estates in fee, and they hardly ever die intestate. In fact, landed property, owing to the practice of settlement, rarely passes even by will, and almost never by the Statute of Distributions. We doubt if there are fifty landowners in England who hold under the rule of primogeniture. The English owner of a fee can dispose of it by will, just as he can here. He may give it all to his daughters, or to his youngest child, or to a hospital, just as he pleases. The reason which usually leads him to leave it to his eldest son is the one which influences American fathers in dividing their possessions equally among their children—education and public opinion. There are in England strong opponents of this custom of primogeniture for reasons which were ably set forth by Mr. G. C. Broderick in the volume of 'Cobden Club Essays' for 1871-2 ; and they would, if they had their way, destroy it by legislation ; but this legislation would have to take the form of interference with freedom of bequest, somewhat like that which prevails in France under the Code, and, once entered on, it would be difficult to confine it to real estate. If successful, it would have an effect on English society reaching far beyond a mere change in the law of real property. It would democratize it in a way to which no approach has been made by the reforms of the last sixty years. What keeps English society essentially aristocratic in its upper strata, and proud of aristocracy in its lower strata, is the prominence of *families* as distinguished from individuals, and the degree to which individuals are helped and dignified by family prominence. If the customary disposition of property which maintains the family distinction, and makes one member of it at least a man of weight, were prohibited, there would probably be a very rapid transfer of political power to the "Poor Boy" and "Self-Made Man," and a complete disappearance of the individual weight and influence which still enables English politicians in a greater or less degree to guide public opinion, and even in some cases to stand against it; for there is no doubt that the men of no family in particular, of whom there are many brilliant examples in English politics, derive more or less force and courage from the state of things which aristocratic politics has created—that is, from the self-confidence which even ordinary men derive from having a "house" behind them. The class on which the present social arrangements press hardest is the daughters, who are mercilessly sacrificed on the family altar. The younger sons eke out their scanty portions in the professions, or seek fortunes of their own in emigration ; but the daughters are turned out of their homes when their father dies, and, if unmarried, often lead on small incomes, all over England and the Continent, forlorn lives, which they try in a pathetic way to dignify by allusions to their "high connections" and bygone magnificence.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—X.

FRENCH PAINTING.—II.

PARIS, August 28, 1878.

THE five landscapes of M. L. G. Pelouse are among the most attractive and satisfactory pictures in the galleries. Perhaps the finest of them is "The Valley of Cernay" (it should be remarked that the titles of his pictures are given with geographical exactitude ; he means each work to be taken as a portrait of the place named ; this view has been taken in the Department of Seine-et-Oise). This is a large upright picture, showing a foreground in tangled woods, the trees not large nor very thickset, but all the foreground dense with undergrowth. It seems to be autumn ; the higher trees have shed most of their leaves, while still the saplings and underbrush are green, as is the fashion in American woods as well as in middle France ; the ground is deep with dry leaves that have accumulated in low places. The tree-trunks and branches are carefully studied and beautiful in arrangement, the drawing of the low bushes very charming, and between the tree-trunks is a pure, pale sky delicately graded. This picture was in the Salon of 1873. A picture of about the same size, and also of woodland, from the Salon of 1876, is called "Woodcutting at Senlisse (Seine-et-Oise)." Here also it is autumn, but the barred clouds of a warm and glowing sunset are seen between the

trees, which are drawn upon the sky in strong *silhouette*. These pictures are worthy to be hung beside the landscapes of any living men of any school. In trying to compare them with the best landscapes in the other galleries here, one is led to wish that in some future exhibition a Landscape Room might be organized, in which picked and representative landscape paintings of different nationalities might hang side by side. Judging by the present Exhibition, it would not need to be large. The French school of landscape painting may be supposed to be well represented, but certainly we should not wish to take from it the work of more than six or seven painters to put in competition with the best of other nations. Of other nations it is not possible to judge; they may not be adequately represented in their exhibits here; but it is certainly strange that so very few landscapes come from England, the country which the Continent takes to be entirely given over to that branch of art. But to return to M. Pelouse, who would assuredly be one of the chosen delegates from France to such a congress, his other three pictures here are all of interest, and all are from the Northern coast region, from the Departments of Finisterre and Manche. In the Salon this year he has two admirable pictures; evidently he is a large producer, and it is greatly to be wished that pictures of his should be taken to America by some of the picture-buyers. None of this year's works, however, are marked with the star which means "still in the artist's possession."

M. A. E. Pointelin has but one picture in this year's Salon and one in the Exhibition. As M. Pelouse works in Brittany, so M. Pointelin's pictures come from the other extremity—from Burgundy and the frontiers of Switzerland. The Exhibition picture, which is not given the place it should have, is called "A Table-land in the [Department of the] Jura." It was in the Salon of 1876 and was bought by the Government, though the artist seems to have received no other recognition. The picture of this year is perhaps the finer of the two, "A Plain in the Côte-d'Or." Slender trees seen against a tranquil sky, low banks and broken country, stretch of grass-grown upland, and subdued light and color, seem to be this painter's chosen department. His talent is seen from fewer points of view than that of M. Pelouse; but in each case it seems that these French natuarlistic landscape painters are cautious, and are limiting themselves to simple subjects and avoiding mountains and crags, and great panoramic effects, and *tours de force* of all kinds. Certainly they are busy in painting nature for nature's sake, and it is a way of work which will hold its own.

M. C. Bernier paints landscapes on a very large scale. His picture of "Sabot-makers in the Woods of Quimerc'h, Finisterre," is remarkable in this respect, for the foreground tree-trunks are perhaps one-fifth the size (the *scale*, that is) of nature. Nor must the reader suppose that the picture is any the worse for that. These big trees are exceedingly solid and well-rooted, and the perspective of the forest, with the distance among the trunks, very skilfully and artistically managed. "A Farm at Banalec, Finisterre," is another strong picture. The observation of nature is not so delicate, the rendering of tree-form not so subtile, as in the works of the two men named before The design is more like the work of the older men, and may be considered as a piece of transition from the painting of effects to the painting of natural scenery.

The work of M. A. Segé is perhaps more naturalistic. His picture, "The Oaks of Kertrégonnec, Finisterre," is one of the ornaments of the French Gallery—a landscape of singular beauty, in spite of very visible defects. The foreground is dark green in general effect. There are no shadows. It seems all to be in the shadow of a light cloud. The middle distance, where the oaks are, is in a more defined cloud-shadow, and the six strangely-formed trees, drawn out in line, rise in dark masses against a distant country in full sunshine and a light sky. It is a little theatrical. It does not reward close examination and long acquaintance quite so well as it promises, but strikes the eye at once with all it has to show. Still, in spite of that, it is one of the important landscapes of the Exhibition. It is from the Salon of 1870 and the Museum of the Luxembourg. "Les Chaumes, Eure-et-Loire," shows a flat field with sheep, yellow stubble, and, beyond, a crowded village, the houses set thick together, as if seeking mutual protection, as is the fashion of farming villages in some parts of France. The portrait of this little hamlet, taken from a half-mile distance across the fields, is graceful and pretty. The plain stretches away like the sea, and a far-distant church rises out of its hazy blue like a mountain.

Of Charles-François Daubigny, recently dead, there are nine pictures, several of them very large; but no one of them is quite equal to the one or two pictures in which he seems to add other men's talents to his own, and to paint with a lightness and delicacy not common to him. Such rare pictures are not all in the national collections; it is not long since one was for sale here in Paris which had a charm unknown to the large canvasses now in the Exhibition; it may well be that they belong to an earlier time. His apparent determination to paint nothing but grey mottled skies, with enough dark earth below to give the skies some light and space by contrast, seems to have led to a monotony of gloom which cannot but be regretted. To take the most attractive picture, perhaps, of the five very large ones here, "Les Coquelicots," there is a fine distance, flat and large, stretching away toward the horizon in a way that is a sure sign of the true landscape painter; the foreground, half-covered with the big red poppies, is a beautiful piece of decoration, the subdued reds managed with a skill to excite envy in the mind of the most trained designer, and among them a grey donkey admirably painted, a picture in himself; over all bends a firmament of dappled clouds, with some rather refined gradation of color. Why is all this in the dark? It is not evening nor morning twilight; it is like a picture seen in a dark room; the contrast one longs for between sky and earth, the *high-light*, so to speak, of the sky, the artist has chosen to ignore, as it seems to us with ruinous effect. There are some denials one does not make with impunity; art allows of almost any road toward excellence, but to leave the weight and mass out of mountains, the sense of true growth and natural ramification out of trees, or the light out of the sky, is to ruin your landscape—that is, as a landscape; there is still a chance for it as a decorative panel, and this picture is fine in that way, as has been said above. No. 228, "Snow," is especially admirable among these paintings. It is soft and black-and-white and "sloshy," like melting snow under a cloudy sky. No. 225, "Spring," is spring without spring foliage, and it is odd to find that called by the vernal name which has the hues of autumn. The work of this artist is really of many degrees of excellence, and though all is able and strong, all is not equally delightful. Moreover, these things that annoy one in pictures of value would remain unobserved—along with all the rest—in pictures which did not enchain attention and demand study.

The younger Daubigny has two pictures in the same room with those we have been describing of his father. One of them is a curious contrast with No. 225, for it is spring, indeed, though not so called, all pale-green foliage and white blossoms—a very lovely little picture. And in the same room M. Defaux has a picture of precisely similar subject with, and very like to, M. K. Daubigny's picture. These two need to be seen more closely; they don't bear being hung on the second line, for in these galleries the light is none too strong, and the "dado" is very high—probably for monumental effect and dignity—over three feet; so that, if a fairly large picture is on the line, the second line finds its horizon ten feet above the floor, which is too high for the examination of delicate work. These unlucky galleries! In the gloomy weather we are having this August the pictures in some of the rooms, as notably in the small rooms of the British section, cannot be seen at all for days together; and it often happens that one seizes the opportunity granted by a moment of clear sky to hasten through a furlong of rooms to see something remembered in a dark corner—which has become as dark as ever when it is gained.

But M. Lavieille's works can be seen, for they are on the line in a brightly-lighted room. This artist is put down as a pupil of Corot, but is not a very young man, although his work continues to be very like that of his teacher. Resemblance and imitation apart, it has many of the graces which we find in Corot's work.

Madame La Villette ought, perhaps, to have been named among the painters who seem to be naturalistic in their tendencies. This artist's preference is for the bright light and color of out-of-doors, rather than the conventional twilight supposed necessary for so much of landscape art of our time; and the pictures are interesting. Of M. Masure's work this could be said, and more than this. But in the Salon this year are two pictures of his, unfortunately almost exactly like one another, and as each is very much like this, one is a little chilled in the natural admiration excited by the skilfully-painted sea and the agreeable landscape. There are too many instances of an artist repeating a successful piece of painting until it is mechanical, and has lost all charm.

Without naming other landscape painters, the exigencies of space require that we should go back to the subject of a former letter, and consider some of the pictures which are, in the best sense, peculiarly French—pictures of effect, the work of painters whom painters love, as Miss Mitford might have said. And first we will take Jean-François Millet, who indeed is not represented in the Exhibition, but who is so great and so recent an influence in French art that it is well that the Rue Laffitte

gallery is open contemporaneously to show to students the three-score works of his there collected from the galleries of half as many owners. Millet is the gentlest of artists, the least theatrical, the simplest ; his pictures are small, rather deep than bright in color, exceedingly simple in subject ; nearly all relate to country life, and that of the humblest peasantry. His field laborers are the unadorned verity, in dress and occupation; he does not select; he gives his peasant a fork and sets him to spreading manure as readily as ever Leopold Robert brought home his dancing and ribbon-bedecked harvesters. But to all these poor people is given a dignity which your heroes and martyrs generally have to go without in art. The historical painters might learn of Millet how to be grand, if they could learn such a thing. In "The Angelus," belonging to Mr. Wilson, and now on view, Rue Laffitte, two peasants in the fields at evening hear the bell across the country, and stop work for the momentary prayer ; it is not a large picture, perhaps four feet long, but what largeness and simplicity of treatment, what pathos in the subject, and what a strange dignity, as of human nature embodied, in the two village people in sabots and coarse woollen ! Now it is always a most fascinating subject of enquiry : the reasons for great artistic merit in a work of art—the physical causes of a moral effect ; that in which consists the value and beauty of a work of art, in what touches, what tints, what peculiarities of handiwork. It is the most tempting enquiry possible; but unluckily everybody has to pursue it for himself, and only a little can be expressed in words for the edification and help of others. It seems so small a cause for such a great result, when you word it. Your interlocutor says, "Pray tell me where do you see the marked excellence, the unusual beauty and strength you speak of ?" and when you explain, your words sound weak to yourself, and are easily forgotten by your Telemachus. To return to sculpture for a moment : the splendid work of Paul Dubois, mentioned in former letters, has something in it which reminds one charmingly of the early Italians, of Donatello, and a bright pupil can see that, if it is pointed out judiciously. He can see that resemblance, if both Dubois and Donatello are in presence ; but suppose a complete ignorance of the older master, and an attempt to explain the peculiar charm and value of the living one by comparison to the inferior work around. The difficulty is that artistic superiority lies in such a thin layer of marble, in such a hair-breadth of line on paper, in such indescribable *nuances* of color on canvas.

And so with Millet. The peaceful dignity of his figures seems to lie in the simplicity of the means by which the effects of attitude, drapery, and surface are produced. It is necessary to paint the skirt of a girl at work so that it shall look like woollen, and like drapery in folds, and of a certain blue ; and Millet does it easily, with few touches, with little display of skill. The folds and creases of a man's sleeve are actually the only means by which the movement of the arm is indicated ; many painters, and good ones too, put elaborate work into that, and succeed. Horace Vernet was famous for his knowledge of all the gestures and movements of a soldier, as shown in the folds of his clothing. But this Millet does without cutting up the general mass of his figure into disconnected parts, his work is united, single ; and from this, together with a most lovely and mellow system of color, not elaborate but skilfully made the most of, it comes that he gives to his humble figures an artistic dignity which others do not get—perhaps do not think of nor care for. He has made one or two splendid etchings, among a number of slight ones, and those contain the same strange power and virtue. It is an art that lacks versatility, many-sidedness, variety ; it is limited ; one is not of the few immortals when one can willingly confine one's self to so small a range. But, after all, it is not quite the same thing to be referred back to some giant of the sixteenth century. It is good to go there and sit at the feet of Luini (and just now there are frescoes, newly added to the Louvre by Luini and his school, of the greatest beauty). But we look to the art of our contemporaries for the modern sentiments, for pathos, for humble tragedy, for sympathy with poverty and the shadowed life of labor, and find all this supremely well expressed in the works of Millet.

R. S.

IN SCOTLAND.—I.

EDINBURGH, September 25, 1878.

NOW that the metropolis is so inanimate I hardly need apologize to you for writing from a livelier place than London. It is not making an exorbitant claim for Edinburgh to say that at present it deserves this description, for it has simply gained by the departed life of its sister capital. This afternoon, with a military band playing in the long green garden below Princes Street, in the shadow of the magnificent mass of the Castle Rock, with a host of well-dressed people collected to listen to the music ; with the brilliant terrace above adorned with prosperous hotels and besprinkled with tourists divided between the attractions of shop-fronts and the striking picture formed by the Old Town and its high-perched citadel—this admirable Edinburgh looked like a very merry place. Scotland is a highly convenient play-ground for English idlers, and Edinburgh, during the early autumn, comes in for a great deal of the bustle produced by the ebb of the southern tide. For the last six weeks this annual current has been irrigating (not to say irritating) the Scottish moors and mountains ; and it is hardly too much to say that at this period you must come to Scotland to see what England is about.

When I came hither myself, a little more than a fortnight ago, there were still plenty of members of the large class which has autumnal leisure to spare, hurrying northward. The railway-carriages were occupied, and the platforms of the stations ornamented, by ladies and gentlemen in shooting-jackets of every pattern and hue. I say "ladies" advisedly, for the fairer members of these groups had every appearance of being sporting characters. I do not know what may be the feminine costume of this particular period in America, but here it consists of a billycock hat with a very small brim, a standing collar of a striped or figured linen, like that belonging to a "fancy" shirt, a scarf in a sailor's knot, a coachman's overcoat, made of some cross-barred material like the nether integuments of a "nigger-minstrel," and a petticoat clinging as closely as a pair of tight trousers and effectually completing the illusion. The proper accessories of such a figure are a gentleman draped rather more redundantly, and an aggregation of luggage consisting of a good many baskets and bath-tubs, of several *fasces* of fishing-rods, and divers gun-cases that look like carpet-bags flattened and elongated by steam-pressure ; the whole set off by a couple of delightful setters or retrievers fastened to the handle of a trunk, and, amid the bustle of the railway-platform, turning themselves about and sniffing at this and that in touching bewilderment. A friend of mine, an American, was once asked to mention the two features of English life which had made most impression on him. He hesitated a moment, and then he said, "The dogs and the children." The children apart, it is worth coming to Scotland simply to encounter the very flower of the canine race—the beautiful silken-eared animals that follow in the train of the happy Englishmen who have hired a moor at a thousand pounds for six weeks' grouse-shooting. England is certainly the paradise of dogs ; nowhere are they better appreciated and understood. But Scotland is their seventh heaven. Of course all the Englishmen who cross the Tweed have not paid a thousand pounds down as the basis of their entertainment, though the number of gentlemen who have permitted themselves this fancy appears to be astonishing. Tourists of the more vulgar pattern, who have simply come to enjoy the beauties of nature and to read the quotations, in the guide-books, from Sir Walter Scott, are extremely numerous, and Scotland, as regards some of the provisions that she makes for them, takes on the air of a humbler Switzerland. One must admit, however, that though the Scotch inns are much better than the English, they do not push their easy triumph very far; they bear the same relation to the Swiss hotels that the scenery of the Highlands does to that of the Alps. But if their merits are not unalloyed, it is not for want of resolution—as, for instance, in the matter of the table d'hôte. The table d'hôte in the British Islands is essentially an importation, an exotic, a drooping and insalubrious flame. But like all new converts the Scotch innkeepers are immoderate ; they are of the opinion that of a good thing there can never be too much. A couple of days since, at Stirling, I was invited to be present at a table d'hôte at half-past eight A.M. The idea was sufficient to make the bodies of Meurice and Francatelli turn over in their graves. I am bound to admit, however, that I countenanced this matutinal heresy by my presence ; and I again had occasion to reflect upon the extreme punctuality with which, in the British organism, the desire for copious supplies of animal food asserts itself. A week ago, at a table d'hôte at Ballater, just after the company had seated itself, there came a great thump at the head of the table —a rap which caused me to start with the apprehension that I had inadvertently introduced myself into a spiritualistic *séance*. I was speedily reassured—a gentleman growled out a "grace." Nothing, in effect, could have been less spiritual than this performance ; but I wondered what, even from a material point of view, the shades of Francatelli and Meurice thought of it.

"This admirable Edinburgh," I said just now; and I must venture to emphasize the fresh approbation of a susceptible stranger. The night of my arrival here was a superb one; the full moon had possession of a cloudless sky. I saw, on my way from the station, that it was working wonders on some very remunerative material; so that after a very brief delay I came forth into the street, and presently wandered all over the place. There is no street in Europe more spectacular than Princes Street, where all the hotels stand in a row, looking off, across the long green gulf that divides the New Town from the Old, at the dark, rugged mass of the latter section. But on the evening of which I speak Princes Street was absolutely operatic. The radiant moon hung right above the Castle and the ancient houses that keep it company on its rocky pedestal, and painted them over with a thousand silvery, ghostly touches. They looked fantastic and ethereal, like the battlements of a magician's palace. I had not gone many steps from my hotel before I encountered the big gothic monument to Scott, which rises on the edge of the terrace into which Princes Street practically resolves itself. Viewing it in the broad daylight of good taste, I am not sure that I greatly care for this architectural effort, which, as all the world knows, consists of a colossal canopy erected above a small seated image of the great romancer. It looks a little too much like a steeple without a church, or like a hat a great deal too big for the head it covers. But the other night, in the flattering moonlight, it presented itself in all respects so favorably that I found myself distinctly what the French call *ému*, and said to myself that it was a grand thing to have deserved so well of one's native town that she should build a towering temple in one's honor. Sir Walter's great canopy is certainly an object which a member of the scribbling fraternity may contemplate with a sort of reflex complacency. I carried my reflex complacency—a rather awkward load—up the Calton Hill, whose queer jumble of monuments and colonnades looked really sublime in the luminous night, and then I descended into the valley and watched the low, black mass of Holyrood Palace sleeping in its lonely outlying corner, where Salisbury Crags and Arthur's Seat seemed rather to lose than to define themselves in the clarified dusk. The sight of all this really splendid picturesqueness suggested something that has occurred to me more than once since I have been in Scotland—the idea, namely, that if that fine quality of Scotch conceit which, if I mistake not, all the world recognizes, is, as I take it to be, the most robust thing of its kind in the world, the wonder after all is not great. I have said to myself during the last fortnight that if I were a Scotchman I too should be conceited, and that I should especially avail myself of this privilege if I were a native of Edinburgh. I should be proud of a great many things. I should be proud of belonging to a country whose capital is one of the most romantic and picturesque in Europe. I should be proud of Scott and Burns, of Wallace and Bruce, of Mary Stuart and John Knox, of the tremendously long list of Scotch battles and heroic deeds. I should brag about the purple of the heather and the colors of the moors, and I should borrow a confidence (which indeed I should be far from needing) from the bold, masculine beauty of my native mountains. Above all, I should take comfort in belonging to a country in which natural beauty and historical association are blended only less perfectly than they are blended in Italy and Greece; whose physiognomy is so intensely individual and homogeneous, and, as the artists say, has so much style.

I am afraid, however, that I am sketching here a fancy picture of Scottish conceit; the chief characteristic of this great gift being its extreme independence—the fact that it is much more personal than national. An Englishman believes in England and a Frenchman in France, but a Scotchman believes in—a Scotchman. The acute Scotch intellect—the *perfervidum ingenium*—believes in itself. Of the frankness with which it can acknowledge national shortcomings I find an interesting example in a speech which Principal Shairp, of St. Andrew's, who was lately the successful candidate for the chair of Poetry at Oxford, has just had occasion to deliver at Edinburgh. The main subject of his remarks was the existing defects in some portions of the present Scotch educational system; but before he had done he devoted some observations to a cognate topic—the tone of Scotch manners. These he described as rather rough and rude, dry and wanting in urbanity; and he attributed the defect to the influence of those two principles which he declared to be paramount on this side of the Tweed—sectarianism and the love of money. "Mr. Matthew Arnold had spoken of the uncivilizedness of Glasgow. That was strong language; but he dared not deny it when he remembered what he himself had seen in walking down the High Street of Glasgow on a Saturday night—a spectacle of human hideousness of which, he believed, no other civilized country could produce a parallel." Among various remedies for this state of things Principal Shairp, as befits a professor of poetry, recommends the perusal of the great bards and the cultivation of music. I am afraid the poets and singers would quite lose their way in Glasgow High Street. It is not for a visitor who has received none but delightful impressions to pretend to agree with Principal Shairp; but there is nothing invidious in saying that an American coming into Scotland after a residence in England cannot fail to be struck with the democratic tone of the common people. They address you as from equal to equal, they are not in the least cap-in-hand, and they are frugal—almost miserly—in the use of the "sir." This is as good a basis of good manners as any other, though of course one can't answer for it when Principal Shairp's "sectarianism" comes in. But I have really no business even to quote such expressions. I have encountered in Scotland but a single sect—the sect whose religion is hospitality.

Correspondence.

GREEK TOMBSTONE RELIEFS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is well known that the transfer to the United States of the Di Cesnola collection of Cypriote antiquities was not regarded with complacency by the archæological students of Europe. They considered the proper resting-place of such a collection to be where it could be easily accessible to the majority of scholars chiefly interested in its study and best able to use it. It may not, however, be as well known that the same scholars are put to a similar discomfort by the transportation to America, by tourists, of other articles of equal archæological importance. That such treasures should be brought to this country is certainly a ground for congratulation among Americans; but this very circumstance lays upon their present possessors the duty of preventing them from becoming practically valueless, by encouraging efforts to make them available to the greater world of scholars on the other side of the ocean. It is in an effort of this kind that the writer seeks to interest the readers of the *Nation*, and in particular those most directly concerned.

Professor Conze, of the Royal Museum of Antiquities in Berlin, is at present engaged, under the patronage of the Vienna Academy, in the preparation of a work on Greek tombstone reliefs. No pains have been spared to make the projected work as complete and exhaustive as possible, more than 28,000 florins having been already spent in the preparation and purchase of photographs for it. While the greater part of the materials for Professor Conze's work are either in Greece or in the museums of Western Europe, he has been informed by dealers in antiquities in Athens that a not inconsiderable number of Greek tombstone reliefs and inscriptions, some of them of importance, have been bought by American tourists and are now in the United States. It is the attention of these gentlemen that the writer desires specially to attract; for Professor Conze's work will lack completeness unless photographs and descriptions of the antiquities in America are also consulted and included, photographs and descriptions which the author is exceedingly anxious to obtain.

The writer, accordingly, urgently requests all Americans who have such antiquities in their possession, whether private persons or guardians of museums, kindly to inform him of their address, giving at the same time a brief statement of the size or nature of the relief or inscription in question. On receiving these items, he hopes to make special arrangements by which photographs may be taken and scientific descriptions made for Professor Conze's use.

The importance of such tombstone reliefs and inscriptions in illustrating an interesting phase of old Greek life has recently been pointed out by Professor Mahaffy in his 'Rambles and Studies in Greece,' and more recently with greater fulness of detail by Percy Gardner in his essay "The Greek Mind in the Presence of Death" (*Contemporary Review*, December, 1877).

John H. Wright.

Dartmouth College, Hanover, N. H., Oct. 2, 1878.

Notes.

THE 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual' for 1878 has made its appearance with gratifying evidence of the general co-operation of the trade. Mr. Leypoldt states in his preface that a French Annual is projected, in addition to the English, German, and Italian imitators of the American.

He promises to insert regularly hereafter a short-title index to all works in the 'Annual' not contained in the 'American Catalogue' now on the press.——Charles Scribner's Sons have published a new edition, considerably revised by the author, of Prof. Perry's 'Political Economy.' The preface, now for the first time written, pleasantly describes the causes which led to the writing of the work, and makes some acknowledgments of special indebtedness.——Porter & Coates will publish next month a 'Fireside Encyclopædia of Poetry,' both English and American, collected and arranged by Henry T. Coates. It will be illustrated with steel engravings and very thoroughly indexed.——A Life of the late Charles J. Mathews, the comedian, has been undertaken by Charles Dickens. Other English announcements are a 'History of Sennacherib,' translated from the cuneiform inscriptions by the late George Smith, and edited by the Rev. A. H. Sayce; 'The Bibliography of Ruskin,' prose and verse, from 1835 to the present time, privately printed by R. H. Shepherd; 'A Dictionary of the Anonymous and Pseudonymous Literature of Great Britain'; and 'Karamania; or, Life in Asiatic Turkey,' a book of travel in Cilicia, Isauria, and parts of Lycaonia and Cappadocia, by the Rev. E. J. Davis.——Eduard von Hartmann contemplates publishing this month his new work on Ethics, which is to complete his system of philosophy.——Late musical intelligence from Europe is to the effect that Verdi's new opera, "Montezuma," in five acts, is shortly to be brought out at the Scala, in Milan; that Wagner's "Götterdämmerung" was performed for the first time in Munich on September 15 ("Siegfried" had already been performed several times with great success), and that the composer began on the 22d at Leipzig a series of performances of the same drama.

—Students of European history will find the 'Stammtafeln,' by H. Grote, of Hanover, published last year at Leipzig, very serviceable. They profess to be the only thoroughly scientific genealogical tables ever published, and this scientific character is defined as consisting in the uniform practice of placing under one another only persons who stand in the same line of descent, and side by side only persons in the same degree; by this the tables possess the precision of a map. There are 452 of these, occupying 526 pages, beginning with the Achæmenidæ of Persia and ending with the Bishops of Dorpat—for not the least valuable feature of the book is the lists of Bishops, Abbots, Grand Masters, etc. There is, however, one important reservation. The tables were drawn up by the compiler to assist him in his numismatic studies (they have been forty years in preparation). The point of view, therefore, is not of historical but numismatic value and interest. Only those princes, it would seem, who coined money of their own right are included. While, therefore, we have every petty prince of Germany, France, and Italy, the noble families of Great Britain (and the ecclesiastics as well) are omitted. The Roman families are not given, notwithstanding the great importance of the Roman family coins in numismatology; for the reason, we suppose, that those were issued not by the heads of families as such, but by magistrates, who had the privilege of putting their personal or family devices upon the money which they coined. The coats-of-arms are minutely described, and geographical names not only have their Latin and other equivalents annexed, but are briefly described—*e.g.*, "Bretagne, *breton*, Britannia (Little-Britain, in contrast to Great-Britain)." There follows an appendix of 24 pages, *Calendarium medii ævi*. Days are described in mediæval documents, it is said, either by the Roman method (as *die IX ante cal. Maias* =April 23), the modern method, or by reference to church festivals; and the six tables that follow afford a complete key to both movable and immovable festivals. Three additional tables give the Golden Number, the Sunday letter, and the union of the two, for both the Julian and the Gregorian Years, of modern as well as mediæval times—that is, the Perpetual Calendar. Of course so compressed a calendar as this does not undertake to supersede the authoritative works upon the subject, like that of Wattenbach. It is made only for handy use. The tables without the calendar are published also as the ninth volume of the compiler's 'Münzstudien.'

—The dramatized version of "Clarissa Harlowe" at Wallack's having proved, as we suspected it must, unsuccessful, was replaced a short time since by the "School for Scandal." This has now been succeeded by Holcroft's "The Road to Ruin"; and other standard comedies are to follow. The "School for Scandal" is almost the only one of Sheridan's plays which can really be said to "hold the stage." The day of "Pizarro" appears to have gone by; the taste of the theatre-going public has so totally changed that it is almost out of the question to find either actors or audiences for it. The "Critic" is seldom now brought out, probably because the muse of *bouffe* and burlesque has run such riot of recent years that delicate extravaganza seems tame. The "Rivals" reappears at long and increasing intervals, but the "School for Scandal" seems endowed with perpetual youth. This is no doubt due to the very quality for which it has sometimes been criticised, the polish and elaboration of its wit. In bringing it out Mr. Wallack has preserved most of the play, and has not modernized the stage machinery as is sometimes done. The principal innovations appear to have been introduced in remorseless "cuts" of *Maria's* part—not a bad plan with such *Marias* as we generally have inflicted upon us, but still, to our mind, a dramatic blemish. The play is one which cannot be improved, theatrically any more than in any other way. It was written by an experienced manager, and an enormous amount of labor was spent upon it. To rearrange it, or modify it, is generally to substitute the work of an inferior hand for that of a master. The cast at Wallack's was, on the whole, very good. Mr. Gilbert's *Sir Peter Teazle* is probably as excellent a piece of acting as is to be seen on our stage, and is really now of considerable archæological value, as Mr. Gilbert is one of the few actors we have who has a sufficient respect for conservatism and tradition to act his classical parts as they have come down from the past. His *Sir Peter* is the traditional *Sir Peter* of English comedy. It is not original, not the acting of a genius; but it is the character as Sheridan created it. If a fault is to be found with it it is that it is a little too essentially a reproduction, a picture of a character rather than a character; that is to say, you cannot see Mr. Gilbert's acting of the part without having the authorship of Sheridan brought forcibly to your mind. His *Sir Peter* is a Meissonier portrait, something to be studied with interest and wonder, which challenges the minutest scrutiny, but about which there is never any illusion. Of the remaining parts *Lady Teazle* (Miss Rose Coghlan) was perhaps best done. If any one had any doubts of Miss Coghlan's great theatrical talents her acting of this character would certainly dispel them. Her range is very wide, but comparing her *Countess Zicka* in "Diplomacy" with this part it is easy to see that she is better in comedy than in tragedy. Her acting in all the earlier scenes struck us as beyond criticism. The "screen scene," however, appeared to be too much for her. Still, it must be said that Mr. Barron's hypocritical villany as *Joseph* was made so sombre as to render her situation most trying. Mr. Coghlan's *Charles Surface* was very good, and Mr. Wallack is to be congratulated on having secured his services for the winter in place of Mr. Montague. With all respect for Mr. Montague's memory, it cannot be denied that Mr. Coghlan is a better actor.

—The past two years have witnessed the definite addition of Coney Island to the number of places that have an annual "season," and consequently afford a topic for the industrious reporter to write up. The "reportorial" imagination, however, is much affected by mere size and numbers, and the press in dealing with the subject has mainly devoted itself to taking a daily census of the afternoon Beach population, and to dwelling with surprise upon the facility and comfort with which from ten to fifty thousand men, women, and children are fed, bathed, and transported to and from New York. The "running" of the Island has been, no doubt, a remarkable feat, but not, we think, the most interesting thing in connection with it. A correspondent called attention last year in these columns to the very slight extent to which the natural advantages of the country in the neighborhood of New York have been brought into play for the amusement and recreation of the two millions of people who live within a few miles of the City Hall, and the great bulk of whom live there all the year round. Saratoga and Newport are not for them. The Catskills, which ought to be within easy reach, are really nearly a day's journey away, and hitherto the South Side of Long Island has been almost inaccessible except for determined and energetic pleasure-seekers. It has often been observed of New York that, unlike Boston, it has no "suburbs," as if Providence kindly placed "suburbs" near some cities while omitting to do so in other cases. But "suburbs" are less often given by nature than produced by the work of man; and there could not be a more striking proof of the camp-like civilization which has hitherto flourished in New York than the trifling attempts that have been made, till recently, at the improvement of the surrounding country, or its use for such purposes as Coney Island is now put to. That something is at last being done may be welcomed as a great moral step in the history of New York—an indication that the attention of the public, hitherto absorbed in the national pursuit of getting a living, is at length beginning to turn in the direction of the art of living itself. One of the principal differences between the United States and other countries has always consisted, according to foreign ob-

servers, in the disproportion between the time and thought devoted to the business of making and of spending money. The connection of this criticism with the question of "suburbs" and "resorts" is obvious. Coney Island has always presented an extraordinary opportunity for just such a use as has at last been found for it. Its peculiarity is that it is within a few miles of the city, that it is on the open ocean, and that it offers in the two miles of its length a gently graduated surf, beginning at the extreme upper end with a mere ripple, increasing to good-sized breakers at the other. The beach is a hard one, over which carriages easily make a high-road. Why have these advantages never been made use of till now? Because, it seems to us, it has only just dawned upon us as a people that the enjoyment of life may be made a subject of rational study, and hence a generation of purveyors to this rapidly-developing national taste is only just beginning to come into being. Stated mathematically, it is clear that the first thing required was the application of a large amount of capital expended for the express purpose of making the place sufficiently attractive to overcome that inertness which keeps all the human family at home until they know of some better place to go to. Twenty years ago this capital would have been expended, could it have been got for the purpose, in the erection of a gigantic and ugly hotel, and then people would have been left to go or come as they pleased. This has always been a favorite means of reducing the pleasures of life to a minimum; Niagara as it used to be might be cited as a favorable instance of its successful application. But at Coney Island all is quite different. The capital is spent with a view to attract the pleasure-seeker, and he is consequently attracted. The fact that he is not simply one of a herd to be penned up or to be let loose, but has tastes and senses, is pleased with careful and polite treatment, and dislikes to be uncivilly spoken to and brutally knocked about, is recognized and acted upon. If he bathes, he is not simply shown the water and told to strip and walk in, but is provided with a comfortable bathing-house (by far the best we have seen on the Atlantic coast), in which he finds those much-needed cautions as to his behavior as a bather the neglect of which with ignorant persons so often results in death. If he dines, he finds an excellent dinner provided for him, where he is not waited upon by a savage whose behavior makes him sigh for the days when slavery existed, but by a trained waiter who understands his business. Strangest of all, if he wishes to ride, he finds that he is not at the mercy of rapacious hack-drivers, but is absolutely in one of those regions of romance where a fixed tariff (and a very low one) prevails. For these reasons it is easy to see why Coney Island has been loudly "hailed" as a distinct addition to American civilization. That it should be the product of American ingenuity and capital, and should have proved such a mine of wealth to its creators, is an indication full of promise for the down-trodden lover of rational and healthy enjoyment, who has hitherto in the United States been looked upon as one having tastes perhaps to be tolerated, but hardly to be encouraged.

—Dr. Hanslick, the Vienna critic, contributes to the July and August numbers of the *Rundschau* two articles on musical affairs at Paris during the Exposition, from which it appears that but little has been offered there to call for enthusiasm on the part of a cultivated musician. The theatres and opera-houses are of course crowded nightly, although what they offer is neither new nor well performed. The Grand Opéra has for months confined itself to six operas: "Le Prophète," "L'Africaine," "Les Huguenots," "Tell," "Faust," and "Der Freischütz" (the latter as introduction to Délibes's ballet "Sylvia"); and yet the manager every night pockets his twenty thousand francs, and is about to retire with a handsome fortune. The secret of his success lies in the fact that everybody buys his ticket in order to "see the house," doubtless the finest of its kind in existence, although Hanslick regards it as on the whole too "luxurious, too much overladen with gold, too loud in its colors." The decorations, costumes, ballets, and processions are excellent, but the stage boasts "not one enchanting voice, not one true dramatic talent." This is pretty strong language, considering that it is applied to an institution which formerly led the musical world. It will sink still lower if it persists much longer in excluding from its répertoire the works of Wagner, Berlioz's magnificent "Benvenuto Cellini," which has been called a second "Fidelio" by a high authority, and the promising works of Saint-Saëns, who has now also turned his attention to the dramatic field. The Opéra Comique has also sadly degenerated since the Exposition of 1867, and has now no prominent names on its bill. Its ensemble, however, is good, and it also deserves credit for its Sunday performances of the otherwise neglected works of older masters, such as Grétry, Monsigny, and Isouard—unlike the Grand Opéra, which never goes back beyond 1830 ("Tell" and "Robert"). As if to atone for this narrow conservatism, arrangements were made for a series of no less than sixteen orchestral and chamber concerts, to be devoted exclusively to the works of French composers since 1830. For reasons which need not be specified these concerts were soon found tiresome by the gradually-diminishing audiences. Nor was the series of "national concerts" much more successful, to judge from the accounts given in the daily papers. For financial reasons England, Austria, Belgium, and other countries were not represented in this series.

—In the department of musical instruments only the French manufacturers are at all satisfactorily represented. Germany is, of course, entirely absent, and England and America have each neglected to send their two most prominent piano firms—Broadwood and Collard, Steinway and Chickering. At the Vienna Exposition of 1873 Steinway was also amongst those absent, but his influence was extremely conspicuous, for even then his overstrung system had been almost universally adopted by the piano manufacturers of Germany, Austria, Italy, Russia, and other countries. The French alone have hitherto refused to submit to "the world-conquering influence of the Steinway construction," evidently in order to cap the climax of their absurd musical conservatism. Of the Austrian pianos exhibited the best are those of Herr Ehrbar. This maker exhibits his latest invention, which consists in a contrivance, easily attached to any piano, by means of which any note or chord can be prolonged at the will of the performer, independently of the ordinary pedal. This invention must be regarded as one of great importance. Dr. Ambros says: "Hitherto the pianist has been the slave of the pedal, now he is its unlimited master." Another not so recent invention on exhibition is Wolff's "transpositeur," which enables vocalists to transpose mechanically an accompaniment to a higher or a lower key. More remarkable still than these ingenious arrangements is Mangeot's "Piano à claviers doubles renversés." This is a piano with two sets of keys or manuals, the second of which has its keys reversed so that its lowest notes correspond with the highest in the first, and vice versâ. A great virtuoso can perform wonders on such an instrument, but for general use it is certainly too difficult to win favor. According to Hanslick, the point to which piano manufacturers should now direct their attention is to prevent the too rapid deterioration of pianos, due, in his opinion, to the sinking of the sounding-board. Whereas most other instruments improve with time, pianos, the most expensive of all, generally lose their value after eight or ten years' wear.

GREEN'S HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH PEOPLE.*

MR. GREEN has recovered the lost art of historical narration. This is his peculiar title to fame, and it is one which no contemporary English or American writer shares with him. Take, for example, the eminent historians whom Mr. Green, with equal grace and candor, acknowledges to be his "masters in the study of English history." The reputation of both Professor Stubbs and Mr. Freeman is too widely spread and too well founded for any apology to be necessary when we point to the fact that neither of them possesses the peculiar talent which distinguishes their pupil. Professor Stubbs is, for knowledge, for width of information, for soundness and weightiness of judgment in the strict sense, unrivalled. His masterly grasp of his materials, combined with his utter freedom from verbosity or from a desire for display, enables him to compress a mass of facts into an inconceivably narrow space. One of his pages contains as much matter as a dozen ordinary essays. But to these great gifts he does not add the capacity for striking narrative. He knows himself, but he does not make visible to his readers, what are the critical events of an era or what are the ruling ideas of an epoch. Mr. Freeman has a brilliancy and force of his own, but it is the brilliancy and force of an historical controversialist rather than of an historian. The habit of repetition and the mania for controversy are fatal to the production of histories which are to have beauties of form. It is the more allowable to point out the literary shortcomings of authors to whom every student owes a debt of gratitude, because these defects are, under one shape or another, shared by every Englishman who has within the last thirty years written on history. Mr. Froude, for example, can, when he chooses, be sufficiently brilliant. His works are marred at least as much by defects of form as by the faults of substance which excite the violent diatribes of Mr. Freeman. Froude's histories come, it is true, to an end, but they cannot be said to be brought to a termination. Of the order and distribution of

* 'History of the English People. By John Richard Green, M.A.' Vols. I., II. London: Macmillan & Co.; New York: Harper & Bros.

his subject, of clear narrative, of the composition of a complete work, he knows nothing. Even Macaulay, with all his brilliancy and clearness, published rather a series of pictures than a history which, like the works of Tacitus or of Gibbon, should form an organic whole. The scheme, if so it can be called, of his history was from the first planned on so large a scale that even had his life extended to its full term the work must still have been the uncompleted monument of the talents of a writer who had every historical gift but the power of compression.

The reasons which have led modern writers grievously to neglect the formal merits of historical composition are worth consideration, but are easy to discover. The main cause lies in the increased attention bestowed upon the substance of history. We have at last learnt the great lesson that the primary duty of an historian is the investigation of facts and the weighing of evidence, and by a natural reaction have overlooked the immense importance of reducing the results of investigation into narratives which shall be at once lucid and graphic. Add to this that additional knowledge increases the difficulty of narration. When every fact with regard to a transaction is known, or supposed to be known, the task of describing the transaction becomes simple. But when the quantity of information to be obtained makes it difficult to master the whole facts of a case, a clear statement of these facts within a limited space becomes a feat only to be achieved by infinite skill and labor. If the accumulation of new facts has increased the difficulty of historical narrative, the awakening of historical conscientiousness has tended to the same result. Tacitus himself must have doubled the length of his works had he wished in every case to deal out absolute and impartial justice to friends and foes alike. You may paint Laud or Cromwell in a few striking and impressive epigrams, if you regard the archbishop simply as a fool and a bigot and the Protector simply as an unmannerly hypocrite. But from the moment you attempt impartially to appreciate the good and bad in the Anglican saint or the Puritan hero, you find that your narrative increases in length and loses the impressiveness which is due to sharp-cut and terse statement. No one can read Mr. Gardiner's slowly-growing 'History of the Stuarts' without perceiving that a writer of more than ordinary ability is oppressed by the weight of his knowledge and hampered by the morbid desire for the attainment of an attitude of ideal impartiality. The question then naturally suggests itself, How is it that Mr. Green has triumphed over the difficulties which, in recent times, have prevented other writers from presenting historical narratives in anything like a satisfactory form?

The first and main answer to this question is that he has quite legitimately entered into the labors of other men. Professor Stubbs, Mr. Freeman, Gneist, and a host of other laborers in the same field have, as regards the earlier history of England, gone through the toil of investigation, and Mr. Green has made himself the exponent of their views. Let no one, however, conceive that this art of narrative, though it is a different thing from investigation, is in itself a light matter. It requires, above all things, the gift for selecting the main and essential points of each event, and for throwing aside minor matters which cannot be referred to without hiding from the reader the essential features of the history which the writer presents to his view. The second answer to the enquiry how Mr. Green has achieved his success is, that he has won it by the possession of a marvellously keen eye for the leading features of his subject, and by an equally marvellous boldness in leaving out of view altogether the minor details with which inferior writers perplex both themselves and their readers. Whoever will study Mr. Green's description of social life in early England, the sketch of Alfred or the picture of Oxford in the Middle Ages, will see with what fulness he describes what is really remarkable, just because he refuses to deal at all with topics which do not square with the scheme of his work. If any evidence is needed that he has pursued the only method by which a history of moderate size can be made either interesting or instructive the proof may be found by comparing his 'Short History of England' with Mr. Kitchin's 'History of France,' which is the work of a sensible, well-informed writer, and deals with a subject as attractive as the history of England, but has the two fatal defects that it is not readable and is not worth reading. Its dulness and its uselessness arise from the same source. It contains brief descriptions of many things, such as the battles of Louis XIV.'s reign, which, unless for those who need to study them in detail, are not worth narrating at all, and, just because it contains matters which ought to be omitted, the book does not give full accounts of the great crises in the annals of France.

Impartial critics must, in estimating the causes of Mr. Green's success, add that he exhibits a boldness and originality in the judgment of historical characters which, if it increases the attractiveness of his work, is not always calculated to gain the confidence of cautious students. His avowed belief in the intellectual capacity of King John may be taken as one of those paradoxes with which ingenious writers lighten the toil of composition. But it is a kind of paradox which ought to be left by serious authors to the writers in weekly periodicals, who, as they are bound to be amusing, prefer point to accuracy. The sketch, again, of Dunstan is surely a little fanciful. Our own knowledge of the saint is, we confess, of the slightest. We are willing to believe that Mr. Green's picture is derived from good authorities; but though it be the case that Dunstan was skilled in embroidery, this is surely not a leading trait in his life. Mr. Green cannot mean that the thousands of young ladies and young gentlemen who will learn history from his pages should remember Dunstan as the man who did needlework. Nor would it be impossible to point to other faults in Mr. Green's treatment of various subjects which come before him; and if investigation of his errors be needed, we do not doubt that the Irish schoolmaster who undertook in *Fraser* to hunt up the mistakes of the 'Short History' will be ready to administer any correction needed by its larger successor. It is, however, when criticising the work of a man of genius, far more important to point out exactly wherein his genius consists than to detect his minor deficiencies, and the end of this article is achieved if we have made clear to our readers that Mr. Green's special characteristic among historical writers is the care which he has devoted to the art of narration.

In his second volume he deals with a period which his masters in the history of England have hardly touched. When at some future day we notice his account of the Reformation we may take an opportunity of considering his views on the most important crisis of modern European history.

Sensible Etiquette of the Best Society: Customs, Manners, Morals, and Home Culture. Compiled from the best authorities by Mrs. H. O. Ward. (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1878.)—From the formidable list of authorities given in an appendix, as consulted or quoted in this treatise, it would appear as if the subject of good manners had occupied the attention of the foremost minds of the human race from the days of Aristotle and Socrates to those of Spurgeon and Dr. Holland; and in the largest sense of the word this may be true. It will be seen from Mrs. Ward's title that it is a broad view of the subject that she takes. Her book might more properly be said to deal with the conduct of life than with that narrow department of it which comes within the limits of etiquette. There is almost no situation or condition in life for which some appropriate advice may not be found in her pages. Chapter xi., for instance, is on requirements for happiness in married life, and we can cordially recommend it to those about to marry, though some of its most striking passages are marred by a slight obscurity. "Coquetry," says Mrs. Ward, "has been compared to the thorn which guards the rose, flirtation to the slime of a worm that has crept over the fair petals." To grasp the full beauty of this requires reflection—more reflection than the casual reader will, perhaps, give. But this is unusual. Most of what is said is perfectly plain, as when Mrs. Ward declares of men in general that "as they look down the vista of the past" they "can remember how they were devoted to women the memory of whom fails to call up anything but a vague sort of wonder how they ever could have fallen into the state of infatuation in which they once were"; and immediately adds, possibly lest this one-sided statement arouse an inter-sexual bitterness: "The same with women." The only thing connected with marriage that can strictly be considered as coming under the head of etiquette is the marriage ceremony, and with regard to this Mrs. Ward's directions are full, minute, and, so far as we know, correct. On some of the points we could have wished a little more latitude. It may be customary for the bride to breakfast in her own room on the wedding-day, but clearly there may be exceptions to this, as in case she has no room in which breakfast can be brought to her. Again, if the wedding is to be in the evening, must she take all her meals in her room, or must she take breakfast there and lunch and dinner with the family? A great part of the chapter is devoted to the behavior of the parties after the marriage. In this they are given very excellent advice, concluding with some appropriate quotations from the Old Testament.

Etiquette is a branch of knowledge of which it is emphatically true that a little learning is a dangerous thing, and it may be on this account that Mrs. Ward treats it exhaustively, and, refusing to confine herself to the rules which govern ordinary social intercourse, goes down to the very sources of manners, and shows on what moral basis they rest. Many of

her explanations strike us as remarkably true, as, for example (to cite a very trivial one), the reason given for the dropping of the word "polite" in answers to invitations—that its use appears to suggest the possibility of impolite invitations from the sender. She has, however, it seems to us (being an earnest thinker on a subject which is, to say the least, of a light order), made the mistake of overlooking one explanation of rules of good-breeding which is very fundamental. All the rules which govern people in the "best society" must be subservient to the end for which society exists—and that end must be conceded to be, in the main, amusement. Balls and parties, dinners and breakfasts, and all the forms in which "society" appears, are forms devised for the common end of entertainment. Of course this entertainment is subject to those moral restraints which are recognized by the persons who compose the society, but their main end is amusement. It is not self-improvement, it is not "culture"; it is pleasure. Most of the laws recognized at one period or another with regard to conversation in society may be traced to this. When men and women meet in society, it is safe to say that the general object of society will not be advanced if the men talk about subjects which the women cannot understand, or *vice versa*. Thus, although there are in the abstract no more improving subjects of discourse than religion and politics, or the education of the young, it has nevertheless not been generally regarded "good form" (it is difficult to say what is "good form" just now in conversation) for men in general society to engage in religious or political controversy, nor for women to talk about their children. In the same way, subjects which may arouse bitter feelings are necessarily avoided, not from a spirit of Christianity, but because the exhibition of bitter feelings brings other persons' innocent enjoyment to an end. This great fact, that society exists for selfish ends, and only recognizes morality so far as it is obliged to do so, explains many of the conventional rules which govern its behavior. Everybody has read in John Stuart Mill's autobiography his remarkable declaration that nobody ought to mix with his fellows without remorse, unless on every occasion he can distinctly feel that his intercourse with them has resulted in self-improvement. It is quite safe to say that the adoption of this rule would bring society, as we know it, to a speedy termination, simply because society, as we know it, does not exist for purposes of self-improvement. Mrs. Ward, like many other reformers, does not appear to have firmly grasped this great fundamental truth.

If good-breeding could be taught by a book, Mrs. Ward's would serve the purpose very well. Short of its compulsory introduction, however, in the public schools, we do not see how it can become a final authority. People do not, as a matter of fact, learn manners from books, but in the process of education, and by mixing with the world, and perhaps by an inherited aptitude. In the United States the absence of all court etiquette and class distinctions makes the art of behavior much simpler than in England, and at the same time much looser. The essential characteristics of good manners are, however, much the same the world over, and, notwithstanding what may be said of the vulgarity and bad manners prevailing in the United States, we are inclined to think that, taking in all classes of society, there is more good-breeding in this country than in any other in the world. In fact, it is with us a good deal as it is with education. As a nation we are well educated, but in the possession of a class of highly-educated men we are behind most of the leading countries of the world. So our average manners are very good, far above the average manners of England ; but for countries in which there is a large class of well-bred persons who really control society, and are looked up to with unaffected respect as setting its laws, we are still obliged to turn our gaze to the effete despotisms of the Old World.

The History of Dartmouth College. By Baxter Perry Smith. (Boston : Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1878.)—"In the preparation of this work the writer has deemed it better to let history, as far as possible, tell its own story, regarding reliability as preferable to unity of style." These opening words from the preface are seen by the patient reader to be apologetic, for the author's literary skill is quite unworthy of the task he set himself, namely, to compose the standard history of Dartmouth College. There have been plenty of sketches of this history, from McClure and Parish's (in their 'Memoirs of Eleazar Wheelock') down to Nathan Crosby's alumni address in 1875, but no work to rank in relative importance with Peirce's or Quincy's 'History of Harvard.' Mr. Smith has labored diligently, has sought and collected a large amount of fresh information, has brought the history down to the present year, and nevertheless his narrative lacks form, method, and clearness. What he means by "unity of style" is really orderly arrangement, which need by no means be abandoned because one has to cite a great many authorities, as Mr. Smith seems to suppose. He is not even aware of the help which judicious typography affords in avoiding confusion, else he would have employed at least two sizes of type for the main text, in which letters and other documents, and long extracts or special contributions are mingled inextricably (except for quotation marks) with his own writing. That portion of Dartmouth's history which affords any scope for narration—its *Sturm-und-Drang* period—is all embraced in the first half-century of its existence, and this should have constituted an organic part by itself, with a summary account of the progress of the institution since 1820. "The record of the lives and labors of the teachers" should have constituted Part II., and could have been made as interesting as any biography. Finally, more might have been relegated to the appendix than is to be found there.

So far as what we have called Part I. is concerned, a much more distinct impression will be gained from Mr. Crosby's address before mentioned than from the 125 pages of Mr. Smith. The latter, for example, only casually alludes in a foot-note (p. 257) to the extraordinary state of things lasting for two years, during the charter contest, when the college was attended by students acknowledging two sets of instructors, officers, and trustees, each pretending to be *the* college, and both by tacit agreement exercising authority over their respective adherents without wrangling or violence, pending the decision of the court. The college was worth being founded if only to procure that decision. Mr. Smith makes the issue sufficiently plain, but he might have cited evidence of its far-reaching effects in unexpected directions. The charter trustees foresaw its importance for other colleges, but even they did not suppose that slaughter-houses might be interested in it. Perhaps the most striking instance of "letting the history tell its own story" is in Mr. Smith's indirect treatment of Dr. Nathan Lord's departure from the presidency on account of his copperhead sympathies during the Rebellion. In a chapter headed "Character of President Lord," a paragraph on him as a teacher is immediately succeeded by this one (italics ours) :

> "The following extracts from the official records of the Trustees are deemed worthy of insertion *in this connection* in order to a full understanding of the circumstances attending President Lord's resignation."

Then the Trustees and Dr. Lord speak for themselves. This champion of the divine right of slavery naturally resented being censured for his "opinions and publications on questions of Biblical ethics and interpretations," simply because the Trustees supposed them "to bear unfavorably upon one branch of the policy pursued by the present administration of the government of the country." But he nevertheless took the hint and withdrew in time.

This work, in spite of the defects which mar its readableness, will always be valuable for reference. It is well illustrated with portraits and fac-similes by the heliotype process.

Geographical Surveying. By F. de Y. Carpenter. (New York : D. Van Nostrand.)—This little treatise, written originally, as it appears, for the purpose of presenting to the Geological Commission of Brazil a general sketch of the plan proposed for mapping the immense territory of that Empire, in connection with the Geological Survey organized by the late Prof. Hartt, appears in Mr. Van Nostrand's excellent Science Series, and forms a useful contribution to the popular science literature of our country. Its author, formerly connected with the geographical surveys of the Engineer Department under Lieut. Wheeler, proposes the name Geographical rather than Topographical Surveying, to distinguish the kind of work necessary for covering a large extent of comparatively unexplored country (when thousands of square miles must be mapped in a season) from the slow and detailed surveying which indicates every man's farm and house, as carried on by the Government surveys of Europe. While the former should be based on determinations of primary points no less accurate than the latter, the intermediate details are to be sketched in by methods of approximation, which will present with sufficient accuracy the general physical features of the region surveyed, and the method may therefore be called *geo*-graphical rather than *topo*-graphical, as describing the surface of the globe, rather than of limited regions or places. This has been the system pursued by our various Government geological surveys in the Rocky Mountain region ; and the author mentions the work of Hayden's, Powell's, and Wheeler's surveys, from whose experience he has drawn his material, but neglects to give credit to the forerunner and, in one sense, the originator of all these, that of the 40th

Parallel under Mr. Clarence King. As he avoids all formulas, and presents his subject with clearness and precision, the work will be found pleasant reading for all interested in geography.

A Rebel's Recollections. By George Cary Eggleston. Second edition. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1878.)—We are glad to see that the popularity of Mr. Eggleston's 'Recollections' has proved sufficient to warrant a second edition. The book is almost the only one of the kind that the war produced, and will, as a faithful picture of life in the Confederate army, probably increase in value as time goes on. Those who engage in an unsuccessful civil war have seldom the good luck to have their story told as they would have it told; and this must, above all, be the case if a great moral question is involved in the victory of the other side. Mr. Eggleston does not undertake to prove those on whose side he fought to have been in the right; he merely begs the reader to assume at the outset that the Southerners believed they were fighting for their rights—that they were mistaken as to what those rights were, but that they were as sincere in their defence of them as their opponents. He then discusses cursorily such topics as "the men who made the army," the temper of the women (which, according to our observation, was not very different from the behavior of women generally in time of war), the extraordinary history of Southern financial legislation (a history which makes it seem almost incredible that there can be now an inflationist in the South), and some of the chief characters and events of the war. The book makes a life-like, and we should think an accurate, picture. Mr. Eggleston has many virtues as a writer—a good power of description, a strong sense of humor, and a sympathetic appreciation of character. His sketches will be found full of interest.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold (M.), Poems	(Macmillan & Co.)	$2 00
Beecher (Mrs. H. W.), All Around the House	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Cowden Clarke (Charles and Mary), Recollections of Writers	(Chas. Scribner's Sons)	1 75
Dartt (Mary), On the Plains, swd	(Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger)	50
John-a-Dreams: a Tale, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.)	30
Peck (Prof. W. G.), Elementary Arithmetic	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)	60

Fine Arts.

ETCHINGS BY SEYMOUR HADEN—NEW SERIES.

A SERIES of twelve selected etchings by Mr. Seymour Haden has lately been receiving subscribers at the rooms of Messrs Hogarth, of Mount Street, Grosvenor Square, London. In connection with the publication of the set a small room was hung with the plates of this distinguished amateur, whose position is certainly at the head of contemporary English landscape art in aqua fortis. This second appearance of Mr. Haden in an issue of collected specimens for general suffrage seems to be even more successful than the first was, in 1866, when he made his entrance into the public view with the immediately appreciated "Études à l'eau forte," at Colnaghi's. The present twelve consist of five which have not before been seen outside a limited circle, and of seven more or less familiar to Mr. Haden's admirers.

To the volume of his first studies he appended some remarks, first communicated to the editor of the series, M. Philippe Burty, in private correspondence. All that he displayed, these letters declared, were begun and finished in the open air; and Mr. Haden's present sketches, as well as those of 1866, give an impression of the truth of this. The artist, he repeatedly urged to his eminent correspondent, is born and not made; whatever study may do it cannot create an artist; sometimes it may rather confuse, misdirect, and even extinguish his light. The vulgar mind, again he declared, never produces the beautiful; if it did it would cease to be vulgar. It further appears from this correspondence that landscape is Mr. Haden's choice, and that in whatever he strives for he insists on rapidity of treatment, feeling no care for detail or finish. The new etchings are to be examined in the light of these theories, which evidently are still in full force; they show the clear, unhesitating perception, then the instant rendering by the hand of all that there was any care to perceive.

The first of these twelve is the "Dusty Millers," a sketch of careless, vivid force, with delicacy of distance lending saliency to the buildings, to the men in action, and sluice of water in the foreground. The second is a sea-piece of rough combing waves in front of St. Michael's Mount, Cornwall; a turbulent moving sky meets the sea in the right-hand corner, both showing the strength of impending storm, and the waves swell and foam in free lines of energy. In the first and second states of No. 3, "The Mill-Wheel," there is breadth of color in the wheel with the foliage shading it, as relieved against the higher value of the building; the first state has less depth of this color, with a gain of refinement. No. 4, "The Three Sisters," three grouped trunks against a forest background, shows strong play of lights through the arched and branching trees, and a sure choice of composition. The fifth etching, "Purfleet," presents a waterside Thames neighborhood, with refinement of distance as calculated through an infinite recession of barges and river craft, and daring delicate cloud-lines selected so as to hint a vast perspective of air. No. 6, "The Complete Angler," is illumined by a fore-space of pure light, against which are measured the many gradations of color over the background of sheds and trees. No. 7 is a water-meadow; here, in a subtle accumulation of piled-up and emphatic lights, is a brilliant river under broad sunshine, fringed by distances of trees breaking into the far-away hills with glowing effect, and a dazzle of rays through cloud, to all of which a broken framework of a waterway in bold drawing gives relief and the suffused distant quality necessary. The foreground of rushes here, and that of herbage in the fourth plate, show Mr. Haden's high knowledge, his bold decisiveness, and rapid selection of character forms, while his other attainment, of breadth and relief, is declared in every example.

The remaining plates are in Mr. Haden's deeper color, except No. 10, "Windmill Hill"—an upland scene with windy tree-tops and tumbling clouds in Rembrandt-like impetuousness of light-and-shade. The eighth etching, "On the Test," is an evening mystery on still water, with, in several places, a retirement into deeper tones than the ordinary etcher can get without opacity and loss of flavor. The ninth, "The Moat House," prolongs the charm of melancholy gloom through ascending forms of poplar and witch-elm trees, and expressive edges of chimney and roof, while the play of line and posture in the nearer trees is a study of changing emphasis. No. 11, "Battersea," is in perfect evening gloom, which a struggling moon is striving to relieve. The twelfth and last plate, "Grim Spain—Burgos," shows, in a sweep of summary execution, the walls and towers which confer the character of austerity rising in varied line and elevation, and advancing out of the distance, without a break in the transition, until they culminate in foreground edifices of harshest gloom.

The appreciation that attends, in London, on whatever Mr. Haden decides to publish, was shown in the Burty sale there of plates selected by that agreeable critic, out of his unwieldy collection, as adapted to English taste. This sale was held some two months back, and in it the earlier studies by Mr. Haden brought four times their publication value, the one hundred and twenty etchings included fetching an amount equal to $2,570.

These remarks, in their preparation, have been facilitated by the inspection of a collector's hoard in this city, well known in several countries for the rarities it comprises. Among the Seymour Haden etchings, for example, it embraces proofs and states not to be found in the chalcographic department of the British Museum, and several specimens of which Mr. Haden himself has no duplicate. From the large "Calais Pier" in its finest state, down to experimental sketches like the dog "Puff" and the portrait of Mr. Cole, the connoisseur in question possesses an almost complete setting forth of Mr. Haden's talent, in its tentatives and its development.

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HENRY HOLT & CO., NEW YORK.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 17, 1878.

The Week.

THE *Tribune* has published the cipher despatches relating to the canvass of the electoral vote in South Carolina, and, although the interpretation of some of them is in part conjectural, the revelations are black enough. It appears that Mr. Smith Weed, the confidential agent of the New York managers, arrived in Columbia on November 13 to watch the count, and on the same day he telegraphs for permission to use "a few dollars" to secure the Returning Board; he places the sum at first definitely at $30,000, which, under various developments during his six days' negotiations, rises to $50,000, $75,000, and, finally, to $80,000, at which price the bargain was definitively concluded; and, exulting in his success, Mr. Weed went north to Baltimore, where he had ordered the money to be brought. Throughout it is clear that he acted with the consent and approval of the New York managers, who agreed to furnish the funds, but without the knowledge of the other Northern Democrats on the spot. The plot failed for reasons which do not appear, there being nothing so definite even as a refusal of the lightning to carry a telegraphic message. The failure may have been due to the apparent fact that the Hampton and Tilden wings of the party acted at cross purposes and clearly distrusted each other, since frequent reference is made to trading by both factions. Mr. Weed very soon saw that if the Democrats obtained an order from the Court to prevent the Returning Board from exercising other than ministerial functions, Tilden electors would not be chosen, the returns on their face being for the Republicans, and he was in continual fear that his bribes would be of no avail, because the Board by the Democratic tactics would be deprived of the power to alter the returns. Finally, it will be remembered, the Democrats did change front, and the Court ordered the Returning Board to correct the electoral vote by the precinct reports.

The second plot which is revealed by the last of the despatches aimed at destroying the victory won by the Republicans through the Returning Board. The two legislatures, Republican and Democratic, were each without a quorum, and it was announced that whichever should have a quorum of members holding certificates of election from the Returning Board would be recognized by the President. Bribery was again resorted to to purchase four senators and "a couple of negroes" for the Democratic side, after which the Hayes electors were to be discredited and certificates issued to the Tilden electors by the State government; meanwhile an extraordinary scheme was born in New York and dictated to the corrupt court of South Carolina, and partly carried out; it consisted in issuing a *quo warranto* against the Hayes electors, and, in case of their refusal to recognize the jurisdiction of the Court, they were to be imprisoned for contempt; as the writ was made returnable on the day when they would have to assemble to cast the electoral vote, and they would then be each in a separate cell of the prison, the vote would not be cast and the election would be secured to Tilden. These plots all came to naught, but no one who watched the course of affairs is much surprised at the revelation, for it has long been certain that there were dark doings during the count.

The Washington correspondent of the *Herald* gives an account of the preservation of the Democratic telegrams published by the *Tribune* and of the disappearance of the Republican ones which is very circumstantial, and tallies with a version which has been for a good while current in well-informed circles since the agreement was made by the two parties just before the Electoral Commission met not to examine each other's record any further. Both the Field Committee and the Morton Committee at that time demanded the telegraphic despatches on both sides, but Mr. Orton, of the telegraph company, refused to surrender them, and came to Washington and told Morton that the despatches would compromise conspicuous men on both sides and make a horrible scandal, and that he had better not press for them. He then showed them to representatives of both parties, who saw that they would bring disgrace on prominent men, but said they did not care and would insist on publication. Orton, finding he must surrender them to some one, then surrendered them to Senator Morton, who used what he got out of them dexterously to overcome the Democratic opposition to the count after the decision of the Electoral Commission, and it is suggested that they were found among his papers after his decease. What is needed now to make the despatches a real instrument of purification and not a mere party weapon is the publication of those on both sides. If it is made plain that the Republican cipher covered no rascality the party gain will be immense, and if it did not, and the despatches exist, of course no good Republican will object to their production.

The final returns from the elections of last week confirm the collapse of the National party in the West and the wisdom of the Republican leaders in making hard-money principles the real party platform. In Ohio, the State which was really the key of the situation, the National vote is hardly more than one-twentieth of the total vote cast; in Indiana there is but a slight Greenback gain over last year, but the Nationals elect one Congressman by Democratic votes; in Iowa the party united with the Democrats, but the combined forces elected only two Congressmen, and these of Republican antecedents. On the other hand, the Republicans gain nearly thirty thousand votes in Ohio, elect the State officers and nine out of twenty Congressmen, and obtain in Iowa a greater majority than last year. The party loses only in Indiana, where it was handicapped by the defection on financial questions of all the Republican Congressmen in the last session, and by the consequent difficulty of adjusting the recent record of the party and its present position in regard to resumption. The Democrats, on the other hand, adopted the popular delusion, and absorbed all infected by it. They carry the State by an increased plurality, a majority of the Legislature in both branches, thus ensuring the return of Voorhees to the Senate, and six out of thirteen Congressmen, while a seventh, the Nationalist, is also their candidate. The defeat in Indiana is very similar to that in Maine, and its teaching is the same, except that the Democrats retain their full party strength and show that their principles are loose enough to admit all the Nationalist extravagances. In Ohio the defeat of Foster, who had an adverse majority of three thousand to overcome, and who lost the election by only eight hundred votes, is to be regretted; but he becomes the strongest candidate of the Republicans for the Governorship. Mr. Sayler, the aspirant for the Speakership of the next House, was unexpectedly defeated, and the figures seem to show that he owed his election last year to repeaters. He and several other defeated Democrats talk of contesting their districts before Congress.

The Democratic Convention at Syracuse, so far as it consisted of a fight between the Tilden and anti-Tilden wings of the party, appeared at the time to result in a drawn battle. Tammany secured admission to the Convention; but at the same time the anti-Tammany forces scored a victory, though a narrow one, in the nomination of Mr. George B. Bradley for the Court of Appeals. But the main contest turned, as it always does now in such cases, upon the possession of the State Committee, which has the calling of next year's Convention. This body has now been for a year in the hands of Mr. John Kelly, and it was clear that the Tilden wing of the party could not regain their lost control of the "machine"

unless they could capture it. In their attempt to do so they appeared at first to have succeeded, for the new Committee on coming together immediately after the Convention refused to "organize," and this refusal was looked upon as equivalent to a victory of Mr. Tilden's friends. Last week, however, the committee finally did "organize," and in a way to dash to the ground the hopes of those who have been longing to see the "one-man power" supplanted by what may be called the "other-man power." The Committee selected as chairman its old chief, Purcell, the same follower of Kelly who had been at the head of it for a year past, and this step was immediately followed by the selection of an executive committee, with Mr. Augustus Schell for chairman, and, we believe, one Tilden Democrat included among its members.

The importance of this action in its effect upon city and State, if not national, politics can hardly be overestimated. As politics are managed now, the possession of the State Committee is the key to the possession of the "machine." The reason of this, of course, is that the Committee, which used to be a mere device to keep alive the party organization from year to year and to summon conventions, has now become a sort of extra-legal despotism, and regularly "fixes" the convention to suit itself, by giving seats to those whom it pleases. Hence, the mere fact that the Tilden wing of the Democrats probably had a majority of the uncontested seats in the Convention this year made no sort of difference, nor that there were powerful contesting delegations from this city, for the Committee got over all difficulties by allowing the Tammany delegates to vote on their own credentials. The same thing is reasonably sure to be repeated next year, so that the Tildenites have suffered what is to all appearances an overwhelming defeat; and Mr. Tilden's chances of ever appearing on the surface again as a Presidential candidate are of the slightest. In this city Kelly's victory entrenches him in an almost unassailable position, and, provided he does not outrage public sentiment by too high-handed measures, he can govern it as long as he pleases. As his victory has been obtained by the assistance of the old Canal Ring, and rests on the basis of an iniquitous bargain between Conkling and Tammany Hall, it cannot be said (whatever view may be taken either of the Tilden income-tax question or of the cipher despatches) to be a gain for the cause of good government.

The Republicans of Missouri at their convention on Wednesday week adopted the most creditable platform which has proceeded from any Western State. Its language is clear and decisive. It repudiates all soft-money doctrines, even the double standard, and joins Massachusetts in demanding that "our currency shall at all times be convertible into coin at the will of the holder, and that both coin and currency be kept at par with the gold standard of the world"; declares for resumption at the date fixed; denounces those who are placing labor and capital in opposition; and, in reply to a nullification plank of the Democrats, resolves that the State courts are inferior to the Federal courts. Missouri has in late years received the name of the Robber State; such declarations as these will go far to save her honor by showing that there is a minority of remarkably firm principles. The Convention is also to be thanked for the signal defeat it inflicted on ex-Postmaster Filley, who vainly attempted to "capture" it, while to crown his discomfiture the Convention declared its confidence in the Administration. It reached its acme of excitement, however, when a delegate brought in a resolution nominating Grant for the Presidency in 1880, when there was "unbounded enthusiasm," "cheers," and the like; but this exhibition of feeling was thought sufficient without any formal embodiment of it in the platform.

The "new rebellion" which fluttered the Republican heart last summer, and has been dragging out an uninteresting career in Tennessee, has appeared in a novel and exciting form in Arkansas. There some enterprising "outlaws" seem to have massed their distilleries in a sort of fortified camp, flanked by rifle-pits, whence they bid the Collector and United States Marshal murderous defiance. In reply to enquiries from Secretary Sherman in regard to the remedy for this state of affairs, Attorney-General Devens has written a letter, stating the well-known fact that by easy inference from the Judiciary Act of 1789, by the decisions of his predecessors and the uniform practice of the Government, the Marshal should be aided by the army as a *posse comitatus;* but that as there was nowhere an express grant of this authority, by the law of Congress last session such a use of the army is forbidden. Should the Marshal be unable to execute the laws, however, the President must issue a proclamation, command "the insurgents" to disperse, and then, should they remain obdurate, he may use the utmost power of the land and naval forces of the nation to "suppress" them. A better *reductio ad absurdum* of the unprincipled law of the last Congress forbidding the use of the army as a *posse* could not be had; but the actual fact that it is necessary to convert a handful of lovers of cheap whiskey entrenched about a few copper kettles into "insurgents," involving Presidential proclamations and civil war, before they can be lawfully dispersed, reads like an interpolation into serious history from 'Gulliver's Travels.'

If party platforms and campaign cries were always as hollow in Canada as in the United States the career of the new Administration across the border would interest us but little. There are, however, several reasons for thinking that the protection agitation will end in something more than a change of deal. The depth and extent of the public feeling on this question may have been exaggerated for party purposes, but the feeling is not wholly a forced one, and will not lack organized expression when the time comes. Then the commercial depression is likely to continue, and nothing can make the present commercial relations between the two nations anything but a constant source of vexation. Finally, the amount of capital which the Grits fancy they can make out of the separatist tendency of the protection movement will keep Sir John Macdonald mindful of the pledges—the very moderate pledges—of the canvass. The *Globe* takes great pleasure in reproducing Mr. Goldwin Smith's recent letter to this paper, and emphasizing with italics his conviction that a full commercial union with the United States will presently be seen to be Canada's true policy, and that an offer of this on the part of the United States could not be withstood by Canadian legislators. The *Globe* says plainly that "just as separation from Great Britain would inevitably follow upon commercial isolation, so would a political union with the United States inevitably result from a commercial union on the basis Mr. Goldwin Smith indicates"; and it abuses him for his effort at once to weaken the British connection and to damage the chances of a treaty of reciprocity. That a Zollverein would be hastened by a retaliatory tariff there can be little doubt, while anything short of such a tariff would only alienate England without constraining the United States to come to terms which can manifestly only be dictated by the weightier commercial community. We may witness an attempt at half-way measures, leading eventually to that identity of tariffs which, reasonable as against the rest of the world, would be absurd towards us; or we may be able, by proper advances at the right time, to cut short the process, to the great gain of both countries.

It has been an eventful week in the financial markets of London and New York. The Bank of England on account of the prevailing distrust, which was heightened during the week by the failure of Heugh, Balfour & Co., with liabilities exceeding $10,000,000, and in order to prevent gold exports to New York, held two special meetings of directors on Monday, and advanced the discount rate to 6 per cent. In New York the Treasury called upon the old 4½ per cent. bond syndicate to transfer $3,000,000 of gold and receive in return the United States bonds held as collateral security for the payment. This fact was taken advantage of by speculators, who advanced the price of gold to 101⅛, and extorted nearly a quarter of 1 per cent. per day for its use. This, of course, upset the foreign-exchange market, and bills on London fell to the point at which gold could be imported. As a part of the general plan the stock market was made

weak, and on Monday the Wall Street markets opened with every prospect of a panic. At this juncture Secretary Sherman appeared at the Sub-Treasury, and, after a conference with bankers and others, gave an order authorizing the United States Treasurer and the Assistant Treasurer here to pay in advance called 5-20 bonds, allowing interest to the date of payment. There are $50,000,000 of these outstanding on unmatured calls, and the knowledge that gold could be obtained in case of need dispelled the panic, and in its place there was by Monday noon a bounding stock market. The sharp rise caused several failures, and the week closed with the Stock Exchange demoralized. The price for silver bullion in London fell during the week to 50½*d.* per oz. The bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar fell to $0.8469. Secretary Sherman met the bullion dealers during his visit to New York, and gave them to understand that he would hereafter buy silver bullion by public bids, and that he would take 400,000 ounces per week. It was after this became known that silver in London fell to 50½*d.*

The excitement in England over the Afghan trouble increases as the details are more fully known. The only hope of peace now lies in a suggestion made by the Paris *Temps*, and supported by a comparison of dates, that the Amir has really not had time as yet to answer Lord Lytton's last letter considerately. But the stoppage of the Chamberlain mission showed a deliberateness which could hardly have come from anything but positive instructions. In fact, Ali Musnud, the commander of the fort which commands the Khyber Pass, told Major Cavagnari, who was sent forward to parley with him, that under his instructions he would be authorized to shoot him, but forebore out of personal friendship. The English press of all parties joins in calling for prompt punishment of the insult, while, of course, differing widely in opinion as to the causes which have led to the crisis. The *Daily News* says that, in so far as the Indian policy of the Government has not been taken from 'Tancred,' it has been taken from a memorandum drawn up by Sir Henry Rawlinson in 1868, when Disraeli was in office, but which at the time made no impression. Sir Henry has always been a firm supporter of the policy of reducing Afghanistan to a dependency, and probably of occupying Herat. The general expectation now is of a short campaign for the seizure of the passes before the snow falls, and then an advance on Cabul in the spring, if the Amir does not come to terms. On the Continent the affair is generally accepted as the result of Russian intrigues, and as indicating the beginning of a prolonged struggle between the two Powers, both in Asiatic Turkey and in Central Asia.

What makes Russia a sharer of the Amir's responsibility in English eyes, through her merely sending an ambassador to Cabul, is that it was specially agreed between Lord Clarendon and Prince Gortchakoff, in an interview on Central Asiatic affairs which they had at Heidelberg in 1868, that Afghanistan would be treated by Russia as in a sense a dependency of British India, and that Great Britain would be responsible for the Amir's good behavior towards the Russians, or at all events would use her influence to see that he kept the peace. Lord Lawrence, than whom there is no higher living authority on Indian affairs, has written to the *Times* strongly deprecating an attack on the Amir, both as an unnecessary display of strength, and as likely to tend to a total breakdown of the Indian finances.

Gambetta's Romans speech, in which he took such strong grounds against "the Clericals," and recommended the abolition of the exemption from military service now enjoyed by the Catholic theological students, is creating a great deal of excitement, and more than one bishop has taken the field against him as a pamphleteer. There is more or less question whether his attack was made because he really feared the Ultramontanes or because he wished to retain his hold over the extreme wing of his own party, and the contrast it presents to his recent moderation has caused a good deal of surprise. The Clericals, however, seem to have gained little wisdom, and M. de Falloux, one of the ablest of the religious Conservatives, has been moved by their violence to address them some words of warning against the folly, of which they are now constantly guilty, of connecting religion with hostility to the existing political régime. Gambetta's position towards the Ministry, too, is puzzling the public a good deal. He is really the leader of the majority in the Chamber, and yet he announces himself opposed to the conversion of the five per cent. rentes into three per cents, which M. Léon Say is now proposing and people are asking what will be the effect of this divergence of views when the Chamber meets. This opposition of Gambetta to the conversion illustrates curiously the difference in the view of the public creditor taken by the French Radicals and that taken by our Greenbackers. French credit has improved so much since the war that the conversion at a lower rate of interest will be quite easy, but Gambetta says it would be unfair to the bondholder, who lent the money in the hour of trial, to lower the value of his investment now that the Government is strong and prosperous. Our Greenbacker view is that the bondholder who lent in the hour of our trial is a rascal, who has made too much out of us already, and who, far from getting even a lower rate of interest on his loan, ought to get nothing at all.

The new régime at Rome does not seem likely to help the Clericals in either France or Germany. Pope Leo XIII. was at first supposed to be a moderate, and likely to abate the extravagant pretensions of his predecessor and come to terms with the Italian Government and modern society. He has already, in his Encyclical *Inscrutabile*, called for the restoration of the temporal power; and he has now gone further, and has given, in a letter to the Cardinal Vicar in June last, as a reason for his not leaving the Vatican, the existence in Rome of Protestant temples and schools, and the godless schools of the municipality, in the midst of which he could not, he says, "attend, respected and tranquil, to the duties of his Pontifical ministry." In explanation and enforcement of this view the Cardinal Vicar has issued instructions to the parish priests of Rome, in which, after calling their attention to the schools for boys and girls, and churches or "temples," set up by the Protestants in Rome, he excommunicates the architects, contractors, foremen, and artists concerned in their erection; the persons who attend worship or furnish music in them, the printers and compositors who make Protestant books, or posters announcing Protestant meetings; nobody, in fact, who has anything to do with bringing such temples and schools into existence, or carrying them on, is exempted from the curse, except the bricklayers and hodcarriers. These "additional rules," it is announced, have received the Pope's express sanction after having been submitted to the College of Cardinals. Last month, too, in an address to a deputation, the Pope indicated what he would do with these pest-houses if he had his way, and what he expects the Italian Government to do for him. "It is greatly to be deplored," said he, "that in this our Rome, the centre of Catholicism, august seat of the Vicar of Jesus Christ, it is permitted heterodox sects to erect temples, open schools, and diffuse corrupting publications among the people, while to us it is not given to oppose, as we would do, an efficacious remedy against inundating impiety." As he had already used all his spiritual weapons against it, this efficacious remedy must mean the arm of flesh. It is easy to see what valuable ammunition talk of this kind furnishes to the Radicals. They have, at least, got the arm of flesh for which His Holiness sighs on their side, and they mean to make him feel it. But how is it that Christ and the Apostles were able to carry on their work in the presence of wicked schools, temples, sinful architects, contractors, and bill-posters, without the aid of the army and navy? Another curious exhibition of the intractableness of the clerical temper has been shown in Marseilles, where the new bishop, availing himself of an old and obsolete law of the Consulate, insisted, in defiance of the entreaties of the authorities, on having the streets lined with troops when he came to take possession of his diocese, a guard of honor of thirty soldiers at his heels, and a salute of artillery.

THE CIPHER TELEGRAMS.

IT will be a great pity if the publication of the cipher telegrams serves no better purpose than discrediting Mr. Tilden and his agents in Florida during the canvass of the Presidential vote. After what was known of the attempt to purchase a vote in Oregon, there is nothing very surprising in the attempt to purchase a vote in Florida or South Carolina or anywhere else. But the Florida revelations fix on Mr. Tilden in a way in which the Oregon story cannot be said to have done the responsibility of conniving, at least, at an effort to purchase the Presidency. Of course his name does not appear in the Florida any more than in the Oregon transaction, but the negotiations were carried on, in the one case as in the other, from his house in New York, and by his nephew and confidential agent, and, however likely it may be that the nephew took upon himself the sole care of a piece of corruption involving only $8,000 in money, only the extraordinarily credulous will be got to believe that a case involving $100,000 in money, or even $50,000 in "United States documents," was not brought to his notice, and did not get the benefit of his personal superintendence. It has been well observed, too, that the conduct of the business bears intrinsic marks of Mr. Tilden's hand. A bold as well as shrewd man, who thought himself entitled to the Presidency and was determined to get it even if he had to use corruption for the purpose, would never have left things in such a position that he would have to be consulted by telegraph as to the price to be paid. He would have seen at a glance that no cipher would be recondite enough to conceal such a bargain. He would have put a large sum into the hands of an agent, sent him down among the carpet-baggers with instructions to do what he thought best, and never to communicate with him on the subject. But it was painfully characteristic of Mr. Tilden to have nobody on the spot authorized to bind him; to chaffer on the price through the telegraph; to be too late with his final offer, and then to have to "saddle Blackstone" as a last resort.

But then it must be admitted that, no matter how much damaged Mr. Tilden may be by the revelations, his overthrow has no great political importance. He was probably already sufficiently discredited, or sufficiently unfortunate, to make his nomination a second time very improbable. Even if they have made it impossible they have not accomplished very much, nor is it likely that they will do the Democratic party very serious mischief. Nothing would do this but a sharply-pointed contrast, and the materials for this do not seem to exist. If, for instance, the Republican telegrams sent by the managers to Florida during the period covered by the *Tribune's* revelations were forthcoming, and they showed that the tactics of the Republicans had been absolutely pure, and that their hold on the local Returning Board was simply that of sympathy and duty, the effect on the public mind would undoubtedly be very great. But so long as these telegrams are withheld or unpublished, the suspicion will prevail and will grow stronger with reflection that after all we have only heard the story of the Kettle, and that if the truth were known about the Pot its indignation would be much less impressive. It is alleged, however, that we shall in all probability never see them; that they were destroyed, according to the Washington correspondent of the *Herald*, by the late Senator Morton; but the few telegrams of Mr. William E. Chandler's produced before the Potter Committee are sufficiently mysterious and sufficiently suspicious to make us long for the remainder. If this be all true, the Republican reputation for moral superiority to their opponents must depend on the charity of individuals, and on the charity of many it will impose a severe strain, for it must be admitted that the conditions under which they went into the contest before the Returning Boards and their course since the victory have not been such as to inspire confidence. The effect of Mr. Hayes's abstinence from personal participation in the canvass was lessened by the audacious establishment of the Republican headquarters in the Department of the Interior; by the appearance on the stump of several members of the Cabinet, with every Federal officer at the South working actively under their orders as an electioneering agent; by the failure of his friends to perceive the responsibility imposed on them by the fact that the result of the election actually gave the power of awarding the Presidency—in Louisiana, discretionary power—to the members of their own party, and these men of no character in the community in which they lived. In fact, the situation as it presented itself towards the end of November, 1876, instead of inspiring caution and reserve in the Republican managers, filled them with an exultation which was, under the circumstances, indecent, and which they made no attempt to conceal. Their demeanor filled the public mind with suspicion, and prepared it for fraud, and favored the revolutionary temper of the Democrats which found expression in threats of violence and attempts at bribery. The good effect of the President's abstinence was finally destroyed by his indiscriminate bestowal of offices on the Southern counters who gave him the Presidency, and on the principal Northern managers who acted as their prompters or assessors. In fact, even rudimentary notions of the proprieties of the case seem to have been wanting in him and all his prominent supporters. When we mention that he nominated McLin—Marble's "ague-stricken pariah," and most probably the scamp with whom the negotiations were opened in Florida—to a United States judgeship, and that the bench was saved from his presence by the Senate, we produce a fact which of itself will cause thousands to hesitate, even in the presence of the *Tribune's* revelations, before deciding that the Democrats were the worst after all.

The discredit of the affair as it stands now, indeed, reaches the whole breed of political managers and "practical men." Nobody can make up his mind that when the Tildenites were tempting the Florida counters with "United States documents" the Republicans were urging them to the practice of virtue. With its present knowledge of the character of these counters, as revealed both by their appearance before the Potter Committee and by the telegrams, the question which suggests itself to nine men out of ten is, What was the inducement which prevented Dennis or McLin from selling himself to Tilden? How was it made worth his while to give the State to Hayes? These questions will naturally be asked, too, when the South Carolina and Louisiana ciphers are unlocked. In each one of these States a small party of disreputable persons knew they had the Presidency for sale. It appears that Tilden was willing to buy? Why were his offers refused? The Republican correspondence might answer these questions; nothing else will. Even if they go unanswered, however, enough is known to impress the public mind with the enormous importance of such a change in the electoral machinery as will prevent any man from being able to offer the Presidential chair to the highest bidder. We cannot make counters or candidates always pure and virtuous, but we can take away their chance of selling and buying, and it is in attracting popular attention to this subject and stimulating Congressional action on it that the publication of the telegrams will probably do most good.

THE PRESENT PHASE OF THE EASTERN QUESTION.

THERE are not among high and responsible positions any more uneasy than that occupied just now by the British Prime Minister, and the prospect of a near issue from his troubles does not seem bright. Since he came home from Berlin and got his Garter, everything seems to have gone wrong with him. The promulgation of the Treaty of Berlin, instead of causing, as he led his worshippers to expect, a deep calm to settle on Europe, was received as a signal for general fighting on a small scale. The Treaty provided that the Austrians were to occupy Bosnia and Herzegovina, partly for the good of those provinces and partly as a favor to the Sultan; but as soon as they appeared the Mussulman population rose on them, and the Porte protested against the occupation as an outrage. Moreover, the "consolidation" he has undergone, so far from strengthening the Sultan, has roused resistance to his authority, even among the Mussulmans. Those of Rhodope are in arms against him, and those of Albania have formed a powerful confede-

racy for the purpose of defying him, and have begun operations by murdering his principal general, and threaten him with a force of some kind, which is estimated at 100,000 men. The Russians, too, have taken upon themselves the duty of administering the new province of Eastern Rumelia during the next nine months, and refuse to hand it over to the International Commission, and have offered for the Sultan's acceptance the remains of the Treaty of San Stefano, by which he binds himself to pay $60,000,000 of war indemnity, exclusive of the territory already ceded, and $2,000,000 indemnity to Russian subjects residing in Turkey whose interests have been injured by the war. It is true that the Treaty of Berlin makes the claims of existing creditors of the Porte take precedence of this war indemnity, but there is not much comfort in this for the Turk, because he can cheat his individual bondholders with impunity, while Russia will not be cheated, but will get her $60,000,000 some day or other, either in money or lands, and will keep the debt hanging over the Sultan's head *in terrorem* until the day of settlement.

The Sultan, too, is not answering very well to the description given of him in the House of Lords by Lord Beaconsfield and Lord Salisbury. They said he was a "powerful and enlightened monarch," eager for reform; but even the London *Times*, which has been doing its best to put a good face on the Treaty of Berlin, is forced at last to give up this picture of His Majesty. To call him "powerful" any longer, or to say that he had been strengthened by the process of "consolidation" he had undergone, would only excite a smile; the theory of his enlightenment and virtue is failing, too, in the light of unpleasant facts. An order, with carte blanche as to price, for twelve Circassian girls as a Bairam present for his harem from his aged and loving mother, arrived in Asia the other day, in a district in which the troops have received no pay for two years, and both officers and men were in rags; and now the Constantinople correspondent of the *Times* makes, with the endorsement of the editor, a most sorrowful confession with regard to the prospects of reform under British protection in Asia Minor. He says that it is a mistake to suppose that the system of plunder and oppression, or rather oppression for plunder, to which the unfortunate inhabitants are exposed is the fault of the local governors. It has its source in the Sultan's palace. "Reforms to be made in Turkey," he says, "must begin at the top of the social ladder—that is, in the Sultan's palace and harem, and in the official circles at Constantinople." The reason is, that the extortion practised on the unfortunate people by the tax-gatherers is the result of requisitions made on the governors by the palace favorites at the capital. When the woman, or eunuch, or pasha who happens at the moment to have the Sultan's ear is in want of cash she or he gets leave to apply the screws to somebody, and one of the pashas of the provinces is called on for the amount, which he squeezes out of his subjects in any way he can, knowing well that failure will lead to dismissal, and transmits it to his "influence," as they call it in Washington, keeping, of course, a moderate amount for himself and his friends. So the *Times* correspondent is forced to confess that "the reforms must begin in the Palace of Dolma-bagtche"—or, in other words, the very last place in which the Sultan would admit the need of reform. In fact, he even objects to any attempt at reform in the provinces under British superintendence, because he fears that he may yet be forced into the position of a dependent Indian rajah. The only move in the direction he evinces any desire to make is reform through his own officials, by means of a loan guaranteed by Great Britain; but this he has been assured is not likely to be forthcoming.

In Asia Minor itself the hopes excited by the first news of the British protectorate have died out. The Armenians are emigrating in large bodies into Russian territory, apparently not crediting the Jingo stories of the horrors of Russian rule as compared to the gentle sway of the pashas. The Kurds, too, who appear to have been momentarily alarmed by the news that the British were coming, have taken courage again, and have resumed their raids on the Christians of the plains. To crown all, the disenchantment of the British public about the acquisition of Cyprus appears to be complete. The island is found to be nearly as unhealthy as the West Coast of Africa. A quarter of the small garrison is in the hospital, and every season seems to have its peculiar malaria. There are no roads, no public buildings, no harbors, and no revenue with which to construct them. The tenure on which Great Britain holds the island is uncertain, and so is the system of law by which it must be governed. All this could, however, be borne patiently if it possessed real strategic advantages—that is, if it offered a convenient base for the protection of the Euphrates valley or for the defence of the Turco-Russian frontier in Asia. That it would serve this purpose the Ministry undoubtedly in the beginning either believed or expected other people to believe. But this notion, already all but abandoned by the public, has received a *coup de grâce* from Mr. Archibald Forbes, after a prolonged visit to the island, in an article in the *Nineteenth Century* entitled "The Fiasco of Cyprus." His condemnation is all the more weighty from the fact that he too, he confesses, was dazzled by annexation in the beginning, and does not dislike "Imperialism." He pronounces the place incurably unhealthy, too unhealthy even for the Ghoorkas, "children of the sun and of the swamp as they are." He shows that strategically its occupation was a huge blunder, or, worse, an attempt at imposition. As a post for the defence of the line of Batum-Ardahan-Kars, he compares it to a position in the middle of the shrubbery of a man's back yard for the defence of his front door. Furthermore, he points out that England might be turned out of it at any time by an agreement between Turkey and Russia. He scouts the idea of reforming the Turk in Asia Minor, and recommends that when the attempt to reform him has been tried for a few years England should abrogate the Treaty "and evacuate Cyprus."

If it be asked how came the Ministers to assume such a burden of responsibility as the reform of Asia Minor, and to accept or ask for such a useless possession as Cyprus, of the character of which they were clearly ignorant, the answer, now generally acknowledged to be correct, is that they did it in great haste and in a sort of desperation to cover up their defeat in the negotiations with Russia, and turn public attention away from the unpleasant revelations of Lord Salisbury's double-dealing made by the publication of the secret Memorandum. That the exposure of the deception would come so soon, probably few persons imagined when the two plenipotentiaries came home from Berlin, but its promptness seems to have been due to their utter ignorance about the island. They saw on the map that it lay near the coast of Asia, which was enough for the author of 'Tancred,' and they seized upon it with loud shouts as a most valuable prize. It was very characteristic, too, of the Premier and his policy that he should have sent ten thousand men and a powerful fleet of iron-clads to take possession of it when one hundred policemen would have sufficed, and it looks as if luck had begun to run against him when we learn that eight thousand had to be promptly sent away, and that the keeping of the remaining two thousand there begins to be talked of as cruel as well as useless.

We have, however, reserved to the last the most serious feature in the situation. That Beaconsfield was worsted, outwitted, even at Berlin, by Bismarck and Gortchakoff, very few even of his admirers now deny. The neutral Continental press is almost unanimous in admitting it. All the theatrical drapery by which he sought to disguise it has been ruthlessly torn down by the mere march of events. Even the *Mémorial Diplomatique*, which has been his firm supporter against Russia, admits, first, that he committed a great and irreparable blunder in letting Russia get hold of Bulgaria and the Balkans, which are really the key to Constantinople, and must in the hands of a strong military power dominate it; and secondly, having committed this blunder, in trying to repair it by the somewhat ridiculous expedients of the annexation of Cyprus and the Asiatic protectorate, instead of becoming the patron of the Greeks, as the rising and able race of the Levant, and pushing them into power and prominence. It now seems likely that this mistake, serious as it is, was aggravated beyond measure by the quarrel in Afghanistan. The severe test applied to the Amir's friendship and courtesy by

the despatch of Sir Neville Chamberlain, seems beyond question to be the result of a policy planned before the magnitude of the defeat at Berlin had been fully perceived, and it will probably plunge the Indian Empire in a war which, even if successful in the highest degree, will impose new and serious responsibilities on a country which shows an annual deficit of $20,000,000, and in which taxation has been already carried to the highest endurable limit, and in which the romantic Governor-General has actually within two months roused the anxiety or hostility of the feudatory native princes by threatening them with the loss of the last sign of their independence, their standing armies.

These trials and complications would be serious enough, even for the most accomplished juggler, if they had to be met with industry prosperous and the revenue rising. But it is safe to say that the financial outlook has not been so gloomy in England since 1815, and there are certain features in it which are unprecedentedly threatening. The country is threatened with the permanent loss of certain markets which have played the leading part in building up its commercial greatness during the last sixty years. If this involved simply a transfer of capital to new enterprises the crisis would be one which called loudly for peace and economy. But it probably involves far more than this. It probably involves the total loss of vast masses of capital now sunk in mills and machinery, and a period of frightful distress for a large population of operatives who must make for themselves new fields of labor. The failure of the Glasgow Bank and of the great firm of Heugh, Balfour & Co. in Manchester are universally taken as the signs of the coming storm. When it bursts, it is impossible to believe that the singular person into whose hands the country has put itself will not disappear amid the shame and indignation of his dupes.

THE PROPOSED NORTH-AFRICAN INLAND SEA.

MALTA, August 16, 1878.

ONE of the most interesting features of Tunis is a chain of depressions, termed by the natives *shotts*, that lie between thirty-three and thirty-five degrees north latitude, east of six degrees east of the meridian of Greenwich. The proposition to flood these depressions, transforming them into an "inland sea," is reported to have the approval of the eminent engineer Lesseps, and to be on the eve of presentation to capitalists for the formation of a company. It is a scheme of such magnitude and universal interest that it merits general attention and careful examination.

We are indebted to the French for all the accurate knowledge we possess of the region of the *shotts*, and chiefly to Captain Roudaire and his party, who, under the auspices of the Minister of Public Instruction, made an exploration of the region in 1876. Captain Roudaire had previously been engaged on the survey of Algeria, and had already examined that part of the region which is in the limits of that colony. His report is accompanied by a map, and, from whatever stand-point it is judged, it stamps the author as a zealous and intelligent explorer, and, above all, as a man of singular ingenuity and credulity. The report has called forth many criticisms, of which the most able are those of A. Pomel, senator from Algiers, and Professor Fuchs, mining engineer. M. Pomel is well known as an explorer of North Africa, and a careful student of all its peculiarities. M. Fuchs was employed by the Bey of Tunis to make a geological exploration of the regency to ascertain its mineral resources, and made a very careful examination of the country bordering the Gulf of Gabes, and especially of the ridge which separates this gulf from the easternmost *shott*.

The chain of *shotts* lies close to the steep southern slopes of the Aures mountains, the easternmost spurs of the Atlas range, and in the northern part of a vast undulating plain, broken by occasional masses of rock that sometimes attain the dimensions of mountains, and by numerous beds of water-courses now dry. The plain is neither sandy nor entirely barren. The surface is a loose soil, and covered with tufts of low herbs and occasional patches of grass. Water is scarce, but wherever a spring or a well supplies a sufficient quantity for irrigation it is surrounded by an oasis covered with date-trees, and cultivated in grain, yielding only enough to support a scanty and steadily diminishing population. Rain seldom falls in winter and spring, never in summer and autumn. In mid-winter the temperature usually reaches seventy-five to eighty degrees Fahr. during the day, and falls to and below the freezing-point in the early morning. Copious dews are frequent in all seasons. The summer temperature often rises to one hundred and thirty degrees Fahr. during the prevalence of the *gibleh*, or south wind, and it rarely falls below eighty degrees Fahr. except for a few hours of the night. Vestiges of ancient towns and roads abound in this region, and verify authentic historic records that it was once populous and fertile. The cause of this remarkable change, according to the advocates of the scheme, is that an upheaval of the sea-shore of Gabes Gulf, aided by accumulations of the desert sands, shut off the waters of the Mediterranean from the *shotts* in comparatively recent times; and that by excess of evaporation and absorption over precipitation the lakes gradually dried up, leaving the region without moisture sufficient for cultivation. If this theory were correct, flooding the *shotts* by means of canals would be the remedy needed to reproduce former climatic conditions and transform the arid waste into a productive and valuable territory.

Professor Fuchs is of the opinion that the *shotts* never constituted a gulf connected with the Mediterranean, but were salt lakes, the saltness being due to washings of the pliocene ground. Instead of an accumulation of loose sand, the barrier between the *shotts* and the Mediterranean "is formed of calcareous and sand-stone hills, the strata of which form a part of the eocene ground." This barrier existed at the time of the filling of the lakes, and in modern times has only experienced an upheaval of forty-nine feet, which could have had but little if any influence on the desiccation of the region. This is due to a "cosmic phenomenon of which the first phase coincided with the Alpine diluvium, and which inaugurated in this region, and even in a zone more vast, extending across Asia and America, a period of drought which is perhaps not ended yet." If this theory be correct the remedy cannot be accomplished by man. Professor Fuchs concedes that the evaporation from the flooded tracts would be sufficient to effect a material change in the climate of the adjacent region, but contends that this change, while beneficial to vegetation, would be the opposite to man, owing to the malarial exhalations arising from ground alternately submerged and exposed to the sun's rays, which would be the case for a considerable space around the *shotts*. He contends that the inevitable lack of free circulation would cause a gradual transformation of the submerged basin into an immense saline in the course of a century.

It would be interesting, if your space would permit, to examine the enthusiastic flights of imagination indulged in by the more irrational advocates of the scheme. Among them is the astounding assertion that the climatic changes that would result from flooding the region of the *shotts* would extend even to Southern Europe. In order to avoid all semblance of partisanship, the details that follow will be taken exclusively from the official report of Captain Roudaire. From this it appears that the total area of the *shotts* is five thousand and ten square miles; that of this only three thousand and ninety square miles are actually below sea-level; that the mean depth of this area is about eighty feet, the extreme one hundred feet, and that a considerable part of it around the margin of the *shotts* is very nearly at the sea-level. The area of nineteen hundred and twenty square miles, with a mean elevation above the sea of sixty feet, intervenes between the Mediterranean waters and the area that is actually below sea-level. The shortest distance between these is one hundred and two miles. But Captain Roudaire disposes of this barrier by asserting that "the waters accumulating in the bed [of the Jerid *shott*], situated at the bottom of an immense basin, have formed there a subterranean lake, the waters of which lie under a crust, more or less resisting, of salts and sands mingled. This strange lake, which has so often swallowed up travellers that venture upon its treacherous crust, is not one of the least curious features of the region of the *shotts*." He seems to have omitted to make the only test that would prove the correctness of this theory—boring through the "crust." To the objection that caravan routes cross "this strange lake" in every direction, he answers that "this lake is subdivided into several parts by subterranean sills that uphold the upper crust" and are the foundations of the roads. The writer took pains to investigate this subject, and learned from observation and from the natives that the area referred to contains several beds of quicksands and numerous bogs that are well marked and easily avoided during daylight, but that the caravan routes always cross the *shotts* in direct lines between the oases on opposite sides near the borders. Captain Roudaire's ingenuity seems to have been stimulated rather than exhausted by this remarkable theory, and his plan for overcoming the difficulties that he candidly admits are superficially apparent, merits attention. From his report it appears that the distance across the barrier in a straight line

from the shore of Gabes Gulf to the nearest edge of the "subterranean lake" is twelve miles; the lowest section is one hundred and fifty-two feet above sea-level. The barriers between the *shotts* are together ten miles across, and the lowest sections have a mean elevation of one hundred feet. Captain Roudaire maintains that by admitting water to the "subterranean lake" it will burst its "subterranean sills," the crust will fall in, and the waters will overflow into the next *shott*, and from that into the next, until the equilibrium is established. He insists that the force of the current thus created will be sufficient to enlarge the canal to the required dimensions for supplying evaporation and permitting free navigation. He estimates the total cost of the work at five million seven hundred and ninety thousand dollars. Admitting that the subterranean lake will burst its sills, there remain, according to Captain Roudaire's measurements, twenty-two miles of cutting to be made through a mean depth and mean width of one hundred feet. The cut would, therefore, involve the removal of twelve hundred millions of cubic feet of matter in a region almost destitute of water and provisions and without labor. Yet the estimate of Roudaire is only half a cent per cubic foot.

Rejecting wild theories and wilder estimates, we arrive at the following conclusions about the Inland Sea: the total area *below sea-level* is about three thousand square miles; the mean depth of this area may be about eighty feet; the shortest distance from the Mediterranean waters to the nearest point at sea-level is one hundred and two miles; twenty-two of this has an average elevation of one hundred feet, and eighty of sixty feet; the latter is over the bed of a *shott* in which quicksands and bogs abound, the remaining surface being very hard. In order to supply the excess of evaporation and absorption over precipitation it would be necessary to construct a canal with capacity for the passage of about ten millions of gallons of water per minute. Professor Fuchs estimates the cost of cutting such a canal through the barrier between the Gulf of Gabes and the nearest *shott* (twelve miles) at about fifty-eight millions of dollars. The cost of the remaining ninety miles would increase proportionately with the distance from the base of supplies, the sea; even if it did not, and admitting the practicability of constructing a canal through quicksand, the total cost of flooding an area *one-tenth that of Lake Superior* would be about five hundred millions of dollars. The only return would be a water-way to the heart of Algeria exclusively for the benefit of a sparsely-populated French colony with nothing to export.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—XI.

MACHINERY.

PARIS, Sept. 30, 1878.

THE two machinery halls are so designed as to leave a clear open space to the ridge of the roof, unhampered by truss-rods or other supporting members. The structure is built with frames of riveted iron about thirty feet apart, which rise vertically from the ground on each side of the hall, and, curving together, form slightly-pointed arches, which support the light wooden covering of the roof. The effect is very light and fine, and it is undoubtedly a good construction when properly designed; the only criticism to be made is that the untied arch springs from a high vertical wall: it is an arch without a tie and without abutments; in reality it is no arch at all but a curved truss, whose real strength can be accurately computed, but is not that of the arch whose apparent strength it has.

As in the display of goods the general effects seen at Philadelphia are wanting, so in a less degree, in spite of the fineness of the halls, the machinery is perhaps less effectively arranged. The one want is that of some central feature of surpassing interest, which was supplied at Philadelphia by the Corliss engine in the south transept of the Machinery Hall. At Paris, steam-power is distributed through the buildings, but it is distributed simply as steam; here and there, in the different nationalities and departments, wherever needed, small steam-engines are found, placed there by the exhibitors, but there is no single engine of special size which the unmechanical visitor stops to admire. The exhibition of machinery is not confined to these two halls, but many of the interesting things are shown elsewhere. The agricultural machinery is generally placed in annexes, and there are several annexes devoted exclusively to machinery of special classes.

The exhibition of railroad rolling-stock from France and some other Continental nations is very full and interesting. The American exhibition in this department is specially poor and uninteresting. The only American locomotive is one sent by the Philadelphia & Reading Railroad, and which does not represent the later and better types of either freight or passenger service. The special features of American locomotives—their general flexibility and the ease with which they adapt themselves to inferior tracks, as well as the great tractive power which has been developed by the Mogul and consolidation patterns of freight locomotives—entitle them to a rank at least equal to the best foreign machines, while they are much better adapted to the wants of colonial railroads and to new countries. It is interesting to note the great variety of devices for transforming the compartment passenger-carriage into a sleeping-car; many of them are really very good, though they are generally much more complicated than the systems with which we are familiar, and they do not furnish accommodations for many passengers. A Pullman sleeping-car is shown in the American department, but it is one built for an Italian railroad and is somewhat narrower than those used at home, and not equal to the latest cars in finish and decoration.

Passing from the most movable to the most fixed of subjects, there are few matters which deserve a more careful study than some of the artificial stones exhibited. The artificial stones which have been patented and made in the United States have commonly been newly-invented compositions, which, from their costliness or their worthlessness, have had little other effect than to prejudice people against all kinds of artificial stone. The French artificial stones are of another kind. They are made simply of cement, sand, and stone; their composition is the same as that of the hydraulic mortars which have long been in use, and their peculiarities are only in the excellence of their manufacture. Artificial cements, of the kind commonly known as Portland cements, are used, but special care is given both to the manufacture of the cement and to the manipulation of the mixture which is to form the stone. The results are astonishing, producing plain stones, like the well-known béton-Coignet, of which monolithic arches of over a hundred feet span have been built, or, by working into the mass fragments of colored stones, products which, when finished and polished, are equal in hardness and beauty to many kinds of variegated marble.

In the centre of the Palais de l'Exposition stands the pavilion erected by the City of Paris. Here, besides works of art and other matters, are shown maps and models illustrating in almost every particular the public works of that city, from the model of a section of a new boulevard, showing the street buildings, sewerage, and water supply, to the models of small parts of sewers showing the system of construction and the machines used for cleaning and inspection. Besides these models, there may be seen in an annex close to the river, immediately below the Champ-de-Mars, full-sized specimens of the sewers and machinery. All the newer sewers are made of artificial stone, and a visit to the sewers themselves, which may be made with much less discomfort than is experienced on a trip through the London underground railway, shows that the perfection of the system is equalled by the excellence of construction.

G. S. M.

DUMAS'S 'ENTR' ACTES.'

PARIS, Sept. 20, 1878.

UNDER the name of 'Entr' Actes' Alexander Dumas has just published two volumes made up of all his writings which are neither novels nor comedies. He means to show, I suppose, by this modest title that these articles have been but an amusement for him. It is difficult to find a suitable title for a collection of heterogeneous pages, written at very great intervals and on entirely different themes. "Entr' Actes" is a new name; it is as good as "Essays," or some such designation. The title is modest, if the writer is not, and I must say that he is not. We find in these two volumes an unknown Dumas—Dumas the politician. We are, of course, favored with his particular views on the modern drama and on some social questions, such as the question of divorce and of the status of illegitimate children. These questions are a sort of atmosphere in which Dumas draws his breath. But we find, besides, Dumas as a statesman or would-be statesman, and it seemed to me interesting to follow the development, what the Germans call the *Entwickelung*, of this unknown Dumas from the earlier days of his youth to the present period.

His first political articles appeared in 1848 in a newspaper called *La Liberté*. Dumas was then quite a young man, and it may be supposed that he had been seized by the Republican fever which followed the Revolution of 1848. It was not so. We find him in the opposition, full of hatred and of contempt for the political adventurers who had overthrown the constitutional monarchy. In the first article, entitled "Les faux Polonais," he gives an amusing account of the invasion of the National Assembly on the 15th of May by a popular mob, under pretext of bringing in a petition in favor of Poland:

"On some papers thrown among the National Assembly I read this:

'Silver will cease to be currency in France. All private property is declared national property. A tax of six hundred millions is put on the infamous city of Paris. Family is abolished.' What a touching progression! To re-establish the guillotine and have the daily butchery of the *bon vieux temps* was not in accordance with our actual habits. These gentlemen, who are all of a very mild disposition, desired that the condemned should have at least as little regret as possible at the hour of death. They first took away all their property and threw them into complete misery; then they were taxed, which disgusted them a little more; then family was abolished, and by this means they had nobody to regret, and when they were dead nobody had to weep over them."

Paris at that time was protected (is protected the proper word?) by the National Guard, by that famous sword of which Prudhomme (the typical bourgeois of Henri Monnier) proudly said: "Je m'en servirai toujours pour défendre les lois et pour les combattre au besoin." Dumas tells the story of a National Guardsman who, at the very moment when Barbès was proclaiming a new *gouvernement provisoire* at the Hôtel de Ville, arrested a man with a silk jacket. This man remonstrated; he was not a socialist, nor even a republican. "How much," said the guardsman, "do you pay for this silk?" "Six francs a yard." And they began to converse on silks. "I beg your pardon, sir, for having arrested you."

Such anecdotes show that Dumas had always an eye on the comical and dramatic side of events. Still, his passion is strong, and his emotion sometimes rises to the level of eloquence—for example, in his 'Physiognomy of Paris after the Days of June':

"When the present has become the past; when the painful emotions and the dark events which have agitated Paris for ten days shall be no more than a fact and a date; when the actors in these events are dead, after having cursed each other, will those who shall come and read us believe that, an era of fraternity having been proclaimed in France on the 25th February, 1848, and saluted with resolutions of enthusiasm in various parts of Europe, on the 22d June—that is, four months afterwards—the things which we have just seen took place; and will they not ask themselves with stupor, as we do with fear, 'What did these men want?'"

This terrible insurrection of June, 1848, was not made against a king or against a monarchical chamber; it was not made against the "Versaillais"; it was made against a republican government. It was the preface of the Commune. The men who were behind the June barricades were the same sort of men as those to whom the second siege of Paris has given an undeserved notoriety; nobodies, proud of keeping a nation of thirty-six millions of men in fear and alarm. "When they were asked what they wanted, this was their strange ultimatum: Thirty millions, five hundred heads at our choice, two hours of pillage, no more government." On their red flag was read, "République démocratique et sociale." The men who fought behind the barricades in June, 1848, says very justly Dumas, were the same who crept behind the constitutional opposition of 1848, and who had proclaimed the Republic in February.

"When the monarchy was destroyed, or rather dismissed, when these men heard the Republic proclaimed, they believed that it was their own democratic and social Republic, and they waited. You pardon a stranger who strikes you, you do not pardon a brother who deceives you; that is why the June barricades were stronger than those of February; that is why the balls were poisoned; why the hands of prisoners were cut; why some women sawed off the heads of wounded soldiers; that is why when the archbishop came in his pontifical robes, with words of peace and of conciliation in his mouth, a man was found who killed him; that is why there were two hundred and fifty dead in February, and fifteen thousand in June. It was a war of brothers against brothers. The struggle was long, terrible, desperate. The men before and the men behind the barricades were all Republicans—that was the point of fraternity; but the first wanted the socialism of the hatchet and the others the socialism of the law—that was the point of discord."

The bloody days of June were the beginning of a reaction. Cavaignac, the general who had crushed the insurrection, became the *necessary* man of the day; Dumas's "Courrier de Paris" gives a lively account of that period, of the revival which followed the victory of the "Conservative Republic." In the "Lettres d'un provincial" he describes the social change produced by "our eminently just and eminently glorious revolution of February." He attacks with much spirit the politicians who "represent not a right but an ambition, not the general good but their own egotism. . . ."

"As they play a part, they understand that they ought to play it with the richest and finest possible costumes, in order to charm at once the crowd which contemplates and hears them. Therefore, they put on the ermine of noble principles, the purple of great ideas, the gold of holy doctrines. They wrap themselves in these splendid vestments, which are too large for them and make them fall at every step. Leave the pit a moment and go behind the curtain, go near these actors, and you will be amazed. Their language every moment contradicts their part. The *décor* which represents the sanctuary conceals an ignoble wine-shop, where, the piece once ended, they drink like porters, and like thieves divide the receipts of the evening, and try to cheat each other. Under their fine mantles you will find the traces of idleness and debauchery, the dirty and infectious clothes which they had not time to put off before coming upon the scene."

Dumas spares none of these revolutionary actors, not even Mirabeau—"the Talma of the Revolution, who assumed all masks and languages; a debauchee, who attacked the monarchy from a feeling of rancor, and then returned to it; pustulous orator, who drew his eloquence from his pocket, and prepared a revolution in order not to pay his debts." I leave you to judge what he can say of Marat and Robespierre, and Saint-Just and Danton. He is unsparing towards the men who made the useless revolution of February, 1848; shows how Lamartine, after three months of popularity, sunk into the revolutionary abyss, and how the people of Paris gained nothing but the state of siege and martial law. He compares the now forgotten men of February to those actors from the provinces who insist upon making a *début* on the stage in Paris. The director, tired of their importunity, gives them a chance, and they are ignominiously hissed off the stage.

When the presidential struggle began, Dumas felt so embittered against the men of February that he attacked their candidate, who was General Cavaignac, and took openly the side of Prince Napoléon. It is very curious to read now his articles on the pretenders. "The dead go fast," says the German ballad. This is not true of the dead alone. "Two men present themselves as candidates for the presidency. Let us see what they are! . . . M. Cavaignac prides himself on his father, the *Conventionnel;* Louis Napoléon prides himself on his uncle, the Emperor." Then begins a parallel between the work of the Convention and the work of the Empire, which can be summarized in these words: the Conventionnel was the *exécuteur des hautes œuvres* (the French name for the executioner); the Emperor was the executor of great things. How curiously times do change. The bitterest enemy of Cavaignac was Émile de Girardin, the journalist of the *Presse.* Girardin did more than anybody else for the rival candidate, Prince Louis; and now, in 1878, we find Émile de Girardin among the most ardent supporters of the Republican party. He attacked the 16th May and Marshal MacMahon last year with the same virulent ardor which he showed once against Cavaignac: "The living go fast." See how enthusiastic Dumas becomes in 1849 at the name of Napoléon:

"What conqueror ever left such a name? Wherever we look the imperial face appears in its majesty. We cannot take a step without meeting it. Here is the Column, this victorious Babel which nothing can destroy [the prophetic eye of Dumas did not discern Courbet and the Commune]; here is the Arch of Triumph, this herculean door over which history has written "Nec plus ultra" [alas! he did not see the Uhlans trotting under this herculean door on a fine morning of 1871]; there is the Invalides. . . ."

He goes on in this way, showing in the villages and the hamlets the humble plaster statue of the Emperor, the lithographic print representing the evening before Austerlitz. It is quite true that the Napoléonic legend had a great part in the presidential election of 1849; universal suffrage ignored Cavaignac, just as last year it ignored MacMahon; universal suffrage wants a very sonorous name, and what name could be more sonorous than the name of Napoléon? This lesson was not forgotten by the men who framed our new Republican Constitution. The choice of the president has not been left to universal suffrage, nor even to a large body of presidential electors; it has been confided to the two Chambers, united for this special purpose in a congress. If Marshal MacMahon resigns to-morrow, or when he arrives at the natural end of his term, then the Chambers will at once unite in the hall of the Senate and the President will be named by *secret* ballot by the senators and representatives. The people will have nothing to do with the election, public opinion will not even have time to cry, "Le président est mort; vive le président!" as our forefathers used to cry, "Le roi est mort; vive le roi!" The presidential election which gave the power to Louis Napoléon was in reality the protest of France against the Revolution of 1848, which was essentially a Parisian movement, unforeseen and detested in the provinces, and it was a revolt against the unjust tyranny of the capital. Little was known of Louis Napoléon, and the expeditions from Strasbourg and Boulogne had made no great impression on the people. Napoléon succeeded merely because he placed himself on the side of the country against Paris and the adventurers who had taken possession of power.

I will in my next letter continue, with Dumas, this sort of retrospective review of our modern history.

Correspondence.

LOCAL TAXATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: From an article in the *Nation* of September 26, entitled "The Real Measure of Wealth," I quote the following:

"In strict economic truth, and for our purposes, the real measure of an individual's wealth is his expenditure in unproductive consumption; that is, to put it epigrammatically, a man is worth only what he destroys." "What a railroad king or a hod-carrier utterly consumes on his own enjoyment or that of his family is all that he takes from the productive forces of his time."

No better texts than the above quotations could be found for a discourse on the much-needed reform in our local tax laws. The principle fundamental to a scientific tax-system is the simple one that the consumer pays the tax. But our legislators kick against what they consider the injustice of this economic truth, and they attempt to tax capital *in favor* of the consumer. How vain is such an attempt we see when we investigate the working of a tax on mortgages, bonds, and other evidences of indebtedness held by the great capitalists of the country. The justice of the law that the consumer pays the tax (the capitalist being merely a channel through which the tax passes to the treasury) is fully recognized when we appreciate that other truth that "the real measure of an individual's wealth is his expenditure in unproductive consumption." Under a scientific tax system we should strive to frame our laws neither in favor of the rich man nor of the poor man, but so that every man should contribute to the support of the state in exact proportion as he was a consumer of wealth. B.

Boston, October 2

MISSOURI'S REPUDIATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Perhaps some of your readers will be interested to learn that the City of St. Joseph, Mo., has repudiated the interest, amounting to the paltry sum of $4,000, due October 1, on its "School Bond" coupons. These bonds, amounting to $80,000 only, are secured by property amounting to nearly nine millions of dollars, yet the County Court has refused to make a levy to meet this interest. A Victim.

AMERICANS ABROAD.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: When the "conscious apologetic American" (*Nation*, No. 692) explains to his critical foreign friends that the "ill-mannered, ill-dressed" tourists who swarm over Europe are not people of good "social standing" at home, and that there is a better class, etc., etc., he speaks truth, but if he told the whole truth he would add that this better class are few in numbers, especially outside of three or four large cities, and, although rich and fashionable, are not leaders as they would be in Europe. Indeed, they have little or no influence outside of their drawing-rooms. They do not direct the march of events or even color them. Americans by birth and by residence, they differ from the mass of their countrymen so much in their habits, feelings, and ideas that they are in a certain sense aliens, a kind of European provincials, living here but with no roots in the soil. If they attempt to take a part in political life, which they seldom do, they are not successful; they have no sympathy with the majority, who do not care to nominate them or to vote for them.

It may be distasteful to some of us to admit it, but nevertheless the "unconscious Americans," "the low Americans," as the swells of the Paris colony call them, the shabby travellers in brown linen dusters, who gaze at the treasures of Europe with a mixture of simple wonder and contempt—sensations probably very like those experienced by the Gauls of Brennus when they stared at the temples and statues of old Rome—are the real American people. They are the men who do the work and rule the country. They are not a lower class; they are everything and every body, the men of the present who are busy in shaping the future of the United States. What that may be is not easy to predict, but the "better-class" element is so inconsiderable that it may safely be omitted without affecting the result of the calculation. I. M.

Notes.

A. D. F. RANDOLPH & CO. will make a volume of Professor Roswell D. Hitchcock's articles on Socialism in General, Communistic Socialism, Anti-Communistic Socialism, and Christian Socialism.——A series of brief biographies of the principal American authors has been undertaken by Professor J. D. Hill, of Lewisburg University, and will be published at a low price by Sheldon & Co.——G. P. Putnam's Sons announce an illustrated edition of Bryant's 'Thanatopsis,' with designs by W. J. Linton, uniform with the illustrated 'Flood of Years'; 'The Old House Altered,' by George C. Mason, Architect; and 'American Colonial Literature,' in two volumes, by Professor Moses Coit Tyler.——Cassell, Petter & Galpin publish this month a new edition of Professor Henry Morley's 'Palissy, the Potter,' and the following illustrated works: volume i. of 'The Sea: its Stirring Story of Adventure, Peril, and Heroism,' by Fred. Whymper; 'Great Industries of Great Britain'; 'Decisive Events in History,' by Thomas Archer; and Farrar's 'Life of Christ,' which has been appearing in parts.——R. Worthington will publish immediately an illustrated work for the young on 'Parrots and Monkeys.'——A new novel by the Rev. E. P. Roe, entitled 'A Face Illumined,' will be published next month by Dodd, Mead & Co.——'The Family Library of British Poets,' edited by James T. Fields and Edwin P. Whipple (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co., 1878) is at hand, and contains extracts from the works of over four hundred poets, from Chaucer to the present time. This selection is satisfactory, on the whole, and brings many otherwise inaccessible poems within the reach of all. It is illustrated by several portraits of varying merit, and, it is needless to say, is well printed. The preface announces a companion volume of British prose, to be accompanied by an historical sketch of the literary periods covered.——In connection with their Loan Exhibition, which opened at the National Academy of Design on Tuesday evening, the Decorative Art Society announce a course of lectures as follows: On Japanese Art, by Prof. W. E. Griffis; Ancient Art, by Gen. Cesnola; Pottery, by W. C. Prime; Tapestry, by John L. Hayes; American Art in the Future, by C. C. Perkins; and Egyptian Art, by C. D. Warner. The proceeds of these lectures, for which tickets will be sold, will be added to the profits of the Exhibition.——An interesting article on the Oriental Printing Establishments and the Orientalists at Rome in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, by A. Bertolotti, will be found in the *Rivista Europea* for Sept. 16.——Our ingenious countryman, Dr. Campbell Morfit, whose remarkable career as a chemical experimenter we noticed at some length in No. 416 of the *Nation*, has latterly been giving his attention to the indefinite preservation of food by combining it with gelatin, and appears to have met with very great success. One at least of these preparations, a sort of biscuit with "lime-juice jujube" for a base, has become an article of commerce. An interesting hint of the process is given in *Nature* for Sept. 19.

—Further English announcements include the following works. In science: 'The Philosophy of Music,' as based on Helmholtz's researches, by Dr. William Pole; 'The Color Sense; its Origin and Development,' by Grant Allen; 'The Art of Scientific Discovery,' by George Gore; and Gegenbaur's 'Comparative Anatomy,' translated by E. Ray Lankester. In history and biography: 'A History of Afghanistan from the Earliest Period,' including a review of Afghan politics from 1841 to 1878, by Col. G. B. Malleson; 'The Life of Yakoob Beg, Amir of Kashgar,' by Demetrius Charles Boulger; 'Warren Hastings,' by Capt. L. J. Trotter; 'Russian and Turk,' from a geographical, ethnological, and historical point of view, by Dr. R. G. Latham; 'Buddhist Records of the Western World,' by Prof. S. Beal; 'Religion in England under Queen Anne and the Georges,' by the Rev. John Stoughton; 'The British Church in the Eighteenth Century,' by the Revs. J. Abbey and J. H. Overton; 'History of the Ancient British Church,' by the Rev. John Pryce; 'Chinese Buddhism,' historical and critical essays, by the Rev. J. Edkins; 'The Letters of Pliny the Younger,' translated and annotated by J. D. Lewis; 'Stories from the History of Rome,' told for children by Mrs. Beesly; 'Old Paris and its Literary Salons,' by Lady Catherine Charlotte Jackson; 'Balzac's Correspondence, with a Memoir by his Sister, Mme. de Surville,' translated by C. Lamb Kenney; 'The Life of Winckelmann,' by Prof. Justi, translated by Mme. Lily Wolfssohn; and 'Records of My Girlhood,' by Frances Anne Kemble. The Patagonian traveller, George Chaworth Musters, relates his 'Journey in Araucania'; South Africa, which never goes long without its book of travel or adventure, is the occasion of Capt. Alfred Aylword's 'To-day in the Transvaal—War, Witchcraft, Sport, and

Spoil.' Folklore is represented in 'The Jataka Stories,' translated from the original Pali by T. W. Rhys Davids. Noticeable also are 'A Poetry-book of Elder Poets,' 'A Poetry-book of Modern Poets,' and 'A Prose-book,' edited by Miss Amelia B. Edwards; a course of addresses on 'Total Abstinence,' by Dr. B. W. Richardson; and Thomas Bewick's 'Select Fables of Æsop and Others,' reprinted after Saint's Newcastle edition of 1784, with all the original woodcuts, upwards of two hundred in number. Of this last work but a limited number of copies will be printed. It has already been reproduced (in 1871) by Edwin Pearson, then the owner of Saint's blocks, and an ardent Bewick collector. The present publishers are the Messrs. Longman. Five of Bewick's vignettes, some of them among his best, are printed in the current catalogue of the Exhibition of the Arts Association, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, directly from blocks lent by the Misses Bewick.

—We have received the first issue of a series of 'Annotated Poems of English Authors,' edited by Rev. E. T. Stevens and Rev. D. Morris, of which the American publishers are J. B. Lippincott & Co. They comprise Gray's "Elegy," Goldsmith's "Deserted Village" and "Traveller," and Scott's "Lady of the Lake," each printed separately, in clear type, and with copious notes. They will meet excellently the needs of teachers in grammar and high-schools who wish to teach English literature by the works of the authors themselves rather than by the dry and meagre manuals too commonly used for that purpose. The notes, it is no exaggeration to say, are adapted to the most infantile comprehension, but it is a fault that leans to the side of virtue. Too much space is given to explaining obvious syntactical constructions and to comparative philology in the derivation of words, unless English literature is to be used, as the classics too frequently are, to illustrate grammar and language rather than for its own sake. We could have spared, too, the somewhat ludicrous efforts of at least one annotator to prevent the student's mind from being contaminated by Goldsmith's moralizing. A similar and much better made book is 'L'Allegro, Il Penseroso, and Lycidas,' edited by Edward Storr (London: Rivingtons). The notes are at the end of the volume, not, as in the others, at the foot of the page, and this is a more desirable arrangement in teaching young classes; they are, too, freer from pedagogy and more confined to a simple explanation of the text.

—Mr. Robert C. Winthrop read at the June meeting of the Massachusetts Historical Society some very entertaining correspondence between Governor John Winthrop, of Connecticut, and sundry members of the newly-founded Royal Society in England, to which he himself had been elected January 1, 1662–3, while he was in England on business of the colony. These letters have just been printed apart from the Proceedings, and are very entertaining reading, covering the decade between 1661 and 1672. The elder Samuel Hartlib—the "Master Hartlib" of Milton's admiring dedication of the essay on Education—and Milton's other friends, Theodore Haak and Henry Oldenburg (the latter the Secretary of the Royal Society), are some of the English correspondents. Hartlib in his first letter quotes from a German letter including a Latin extract, the writer wishing he might spend half a day, or even a whole day, with Winthrop (*bisweilen wünsche Ich mich bey Ihm auff ½ oder gantzen tag*). Poor Haak makes as light as he can of his bodily and domestic afflictions, and as much of his affection for Winthrop, and would fain "expectorate my case into yo'r Bosome." Oldenburg is more interesting, with his active mind, his prodigious lists of queries concerning the progress of the colonies, his promptings to Winthrop to make and communicate all sorts of philosophical observations. From his residence "in the *Palmal*" he writes of the Society's scope, "We have taken to taske the whole Vniverse," and he is "much mistaken in the genius and cutt of ye bulk of English Worthyes" if the Society do not wonderfully thrive and benefit mankind. He persuades himself that Winthrop, knowing "so well the vselesnes of ye notional and disputacious School philosophy," will earnestly "recommend this reall Experimental way of acquiring knowledge, by conversing with and searching into the works of God themselves." In another letter, asking "whether the Natives haue any Wolf-dogs wch they know to be really descended of Wolues of both sides," he approaches, as Mr. R. C. Winthrop points out in a foot-note, 'The Origin of Species.' In still another he alludes to the desirability of a union of the colonies. As for Governor Winthrop, he shows a praiseworthy sense of his duty to the Society; explains the defect in the deep-sea sounding apparatus entrusted to him; writes of conflicting tales about the high tides in the Bay of Fundy; tells of his study of a better way of ascertaining the longitude at sea, instancing the difficulty of "findinge Barmudas," which had sometimes proved impossible "after long tyme beatinge every way for it"; hints at a new scheme for "a way of trade & banke without money"; sends over numerous curiosities of the country, from maize and cranberries to star-fish and horseshoe crabs, and "two papers of latin composed by two Indians now scollars in the Colledge in this Country, & the writing is with their owne hands." He was present at the taking of "Manatos Island," in 1664, by the English, and he then observed the "place not far from N. Yorke, wch the dutch call *Hell gæt*, . . . and the tyde passeth there in that strange manner, etc."

—Nothing is more curious about the Democratic campaign cipher despatches analyzed by the *Tribune* than the fatal certainty with which the correspondents laid themselves open to detection. It is an axiom of the art of cryptography, as every one knows who has given the slightest attention to the subject, that any cipher based on a previously concerted system can be translated, provided there be enough of it. The necessity of using a certain order of words, and of observing the rules of grammar and syntax, makes it out of the question to invent an absolutely secret cipher based on such a system. There is only one sort of cryptogram which cannot be detected, and that is one in which the key does not consist of a system, but a method of selection entirely arbitrary as regards all the world except the persons employing it. In Poe's entertaining story of 'The Gold-bug,' which turns on the discovery of buried treasure by means of a translated cipher, the method pursued by the *Tribune* is explained, though the cipher is in that case of an elementary kind, consisting as it does of a simple substitution of cipher characters for letters of the alphabet. In Gaboriau's 'Monsieur Lecoq,' however, an instance of an untranslatable cipher is given, by which a prisoner in jail corresponds with his friends outside. This consists of the use of a book previously agreed upon. The person who sends the message first writes down the number of a page and then selects the words he wishes to use, indicating them by their order. For instance, if he wished to send the message "I am watched. Be careful," he would take some page, say the 6th, and writing 6, would count the words on the page until he came to the word "I," and, supposing it to be the 20th word, would write 20. If "am" was the 40th word he would next write 20 again, this being the 20th word from "I," and so on. If he exhausted the page without finding all his words he would turn to another and begin over again. It will be seen that this is a very easy cipher for the receiver in possession of a copy of the same book to translate, but, owing to the fact that the numbers have no *constant* signification (the same word being indicated by a new number as often as it is used), there is no way of discovering it by any possible method of analysis. Now, the Democrats, for their Oregon despatches, did use a book-cipher, called by the *Tribune* the "dictionary cipher," and thus described:

> "Here the first word of the message to be sent was sought in a dictionary previously agreed upon; the writer then turned back four pages (of course any number of pages might have been chosen, but in this case it was four), and picking out the word which occupied a corresponding position on the fourth page, wrote that as the cipher. The process was then repeated for the next word, and so on to the end; and the receiver retranslated the document into plain English by reversing the operation in his copy of the dictionary."

In adopting this system it was essential to secrecy that the book used should be known only to the correspondents; but instead of observing this obvious precaution and selecting an uncommon book, Messrs. Pelton and Patrick selected a dictionary which had been employed in the same way before for business despatches. The key appears to have been known to many people, and, accordingly, these Oregon despatches, were the first to be translated, though the key was of the only kind which might have been expected to make translation absolutely impracticable.

—"Mother and Son" at the Union Square is a French play of the newest and most moral school. In it M. Victorien Sardou attacks a problem involving the profoundest considerations—one which might be recommended to those who are interested in puzzles of this nature as an exceptionally "Hard Case." A. deceives B. by a false marriage, and dies universally respected and honored, by none more so than by C., his confiding and devoted wife. D., the son of A. and C., discovers the relations which have existed between A. and B., but under such circumstances as induce suspicion (fostered by a conspiracy of his enemies) that relations of an improper character exist between himself and B. D. is engaged to be married to E., and the supposed dis-

covery of his relations with B. threaten to break off the match. He can easily clear himself, but only at the expense of his father's reputation, which would make his mother miserable. What is he to do? This might be answered in a variety of ways by moralists and playwrights of different schools. He might shoot himself. He might ask for "a suspension of public judgment" (he does, in fact, do this, but to no purpose). He might sacrifice everything to the vindication of B.'s reputation, who has certainly suffered enough at his father's hands to entitle her to it. But any ordinary solution would be too tame for M. Sardou, who accordingly solves his puzzle in this way: D. declares that the public is right, that B. is his own mistress, and, having saved his mother's feelings and his father's reputation, and ruined the future happiness of himself and his prospective bride, everything is made all right again by the discovery that this was merely a generous piece of self-sacrifice on his part. The tragedy of the play—as long as there is any—hinges on the idea that the supposed discovery of the relations existing between D. and B. must necessarily make the marriage of D. and E. impossible, and oblige D. to marry B. himself. Such is the last sort of French play that has been imported, and it is certainly much more harmless than many others we have seen. The acting is fairly good throughout; that of Miss Linda Dietz in *Marcelle* especially so, marked as it is by great feeling and unusual delicacy. She has that sort of *distinction*, too, which actors with us are so often lacking in. We do not know why Miss Dietz is generally given only secondary parts. She is thoroughly qualified for the most difficult. "Mother and Son" will probably run for some time, though we should hardly think it likely to enjoy what managers call a "phenomenal" lease of life.

—The death of Mr. George Thompson, of England, has been privately announced by cable as having taken place on the 7th instant. This event had been long expected, and comes as a merciful relief from a condition of great helplessness. Mr. Thompson visited this country for the first time in 1834, on the simple invitation of an American citizen engaged in arousing public sentiment to the iniquity and danger of the slave system; but his coming created as great a sensation as if he had been commissioned by his Government to foment a servile insurrection at the South. He found himself, in fact, the original "British emissary," whose pockets were "lined with British gold" for distribution among the American Abolitionists, and from the moment he landed he may be said to have carried his life in his hands. The respectable Boston mob of October, 1835, was arranged for his benefit, but found a native victim who was narrowly rescued from the tar-kettle, or from something worse. In December following it was deemed advisable for his safety to smuggle him to the Provinces in order to take ship thence to England. Fifteen years later he was bellowed down by a mob in Faneuil Hall, but in the North at large met with a reception which showed the immense progress of anti-slavery conviction. At his next visit, in 1864, he was publicly welcomed by Governor Andrew, of Massachusetts, and at Washington spoke in the Capitol in the presence and under the auspices of President Lincoln; and he had the infinite satisfaction of witnessing, by official invitation, the raising of the flag on the ruins of Sumter. Mr. Thompson's oratory was of a kind that this generation, at least, has never seen surpassed in this country. It was essentially un-English in fluency and grace, and un-American in purity and fulness of enunciation; and its earnestness, logic, and wealth of humor made it immensely effective with a popular audience. Mr. Thompson first attracted attention in England by his advocacy of the Reform Bill; then he labored ardently for immediate emancipation in the British colonies, and his "commanding eloquence" in this cause was speedily followed by the passage of the Emancipation Bill, and not as a sequence but as a consequence. "I have always," said Mr. Bright in 1864, "considered Mr. Thompson as the real liberator of the slaves in the British colonies." The repeal of the corn-laws was also greatly promoted by his assistance. Finally, he became the successful defender of Indian princes against the oppressiveness of the East India Company. This led to two visits to India, in the second of which his constitution was fatally undermined. Mr. Thompson for a short time represented the Tower Hamlets in Parliament, but his proper field lay outside. A born philanthropist and reformer, his disinterestedness and zeal deserve a lasting remembrance in both hemispheres.

—Mr. W. Ralston has an article in a late *Nineteenth Century*—reprinted in the *Living Age* for October 12—on "Henri Gréville's Sketches of Russian Life," and shows himself a most appreciative and kindly critic. He gives due prominence to the wholesome morality of Mrs. Durand's novels, comments on the fact that, unlike native writers, she prefers pleasant endings to sad ones, and concludes his notice with the following tribute to the faithfulness of the novelist's local color:

"From the majority of Henri Gréville's works much may be learned about a great country of which we, as a general rule, know little. What is said in them about Russia may be taken by English readers as accurate. It may be that Russian eyes may see flaws, may detect here and there a line, a hue, which are not absolutely Russian; may hear a foreign accent, as it were, in Henri Gréville's words. But into that question it is quite needless for the foreign reader to enter. The Russians may be described, to borrow an idea from Dr. Wendell Holmes, after three fashions. There are the Russians as they really are, the Russians as they themselves think they are, and the Russians as they appear to foreigners. It is enough that the present works represent them graphically after the third fashion."

Mr. Ralston is a good authority on the subject of which he speaks, but we can add the testimony of a better—that of Turgeneff—who agrees with the English critic both in the praise he gives and in the limitations he sets to it. "The local color is all there," says Turgeneff, "but every now and then Henri Gréville strikes a false note, and these trifling errors are sufficiently numerous to make it impracticable to translate the novels into Russian." While quoting Turgeneff, we may mention his opinion that Rambaud's 'Histoire de Russie' (a moderate-sized volume recently published at Paris, and of which a translation is announced by Estes & Lauriat), though by no means free from mistakes, is far superior to any other history accessible to Western Europe.

—We find in the Paris *Temps* an account of some curious statistics recently made public by M. Maggiolo, bearing upon the one point of the literacy of the *conjoints* or married couples of the past three centuries. This investigator was at infinite pains to discover how many of them signed their marriage certificate. He ransacked a vast number of communal archives, and had, besides, the co-operation of some 16,000 teachers in copying from the records. Of the present eighty-six departments of France he embraces seventy-nine in his tables. From these it appears that, at the end of the seventeenth century, in Landes not 5 per cent. could sign the marriage certificate; in Ariège, not 4; in Haute-Garonne, not 6: in Morbihan and Haute-Viénne, not 7.

"This was," remarks the *Temps*, "the most brilliant period of our aristocratic, monarchical, and religious civilization, the age of Louis XIV., of Versailles, of the grand royal fêtes at which 'all France' assisted, and of our grand classic literature; the age also, let it not be forgotten, of the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, of the dragonnades, and shortly of the dispersion of Port-Royal, not to mention the epidemics of witchcraft; the age, finally and in a word, when La Bruyère, having to speak of these very *conjoints ruraux*, described them as 'savage animals, male and female, scattered over the country, attached to the soil which they grub and dig with an invincible persistency; they have a voice apparently articulate, and when they stand erect they show a human face, and in fact are human beings.'"

At the end of the eighteenth century, the Landes reckoned only 3.45 per cent. of literate couples instead of 4.68, and in 1876 the proportion did not exceed 36 per cent., whereas Ariège had got up to 58, and Haute-Garonne to 45, Morbihan to 32, and Haute-Vienne to 33; progress, indeed, but very slow. Where the transformation has been greatest is in Côte-d'Or, with its 21 per cent. in 1690, 40 in 1790, 50 in 1820, 92 in 1866, and more than 95 in 1876; Doubs, whose march has been from 20 per cent. three centuries ago to nearly 100 now; and the Lorraine departments of Moselle (31 per cent., 1690, 91 in 1876); Meurthe (31 and 98); Meuse (37 and 99); Vosges (23 and 99).

ALEXANDER H. STEPHENS.*

THIS biography does not differ in construction or mode of treatment from other books of the same sort the subjects of which have been dead for ten or twenty years. The material used is of the kind common in such works, and is drawn from public documents and private letters. The latter, however, indulge in the most intimate personal detail to an extent which seems most extraordinary when it is remembered that the subject of it all is still alive, and is a prominent actor upon the stage of public affairs. Apparently Mr. Stephens desires to become an historical character during his own lifetime, and listen to the criticism which is usually withheld while a man is still before the world. The freak seems a strange one, and is not perhaps in the best taste; but if Mr. Stephens enjoys it there is nothing more to be said. Mr. Stephens's biographers have performed their portion of the work very creditably. They have kept themselves in the background and allowed their hero to tell his own story in his own way. When they deviate from this prudent system their success is not encouraging. Their sketch, for instance, of the

* 'Life of Alexander H. Stephens. By Richard Malcolm Johnston and William Hand Browne.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1878.

political and constitutional development of the United States before 1836 is superficial, and does no credit either to their judgment or to their knowledge of history. Such deviations are, however, very rare. The style is simple and unpretentious, but it is disfigured by the constant use of the present tense in narrating past events. This artifice was made effective for a time by Carlyle, but in the hands of Mr. Parton and other imitators in this country it degenerates, as all tricks of style are sure to do sooner or later, into mere affectation.

The career of Alexander H. Stephens has been an interesting and distinguished one. There has been perhaps no public man in this country who has surmounted such great difficulties with so much ultimate success. Mr. Stephens's family was respectable but not of high social position. His early years were filled with the hard work of a farm-hand, broken by short intervals of very meagre schooling. The death of his parents left him lonely and almost penniless while still a mere boy. Charity opened the way to the university, but when Mr. Stephens had refunded the sums thus advanced and graduated from college, he found himself alone in the world and absolutely destitute of resources. Many men who have afterwards attained great success have been friendless and poor at the start, but very few of these have been still further burdened with continued ill-health. A sickly boy, of a morbidly sensitive and melancholy disposition, Mr. Stephens when he left college was frail in body and feeble in constitution to a remarkable degree. Always an invalid, and at times racked with most painful diseases which brought him repeatedly to the very verge of the grave, he struggled on until he won success at the bar, became an active and energetic politician, a member of Congress, and, finally, an acknowledged leader in his State and section. Such a career indicates no ordinary strength of character and ability, and Mr. Stephens was in many respects the superior of all the contemporary Southern leaders. He has shown from the beginning great fixity of principle, and has displayed on many occasions, when party spirit ran very high, an admirable and sturdy independence of thought and action. He was a strong believer, of course, in the rights of States, but he had too much common sense to be led astray by the specious reasoning of Calhoun. The severe logic of the South-Carolinian led irresistibly to the conclusion that the Constitutional system of the United States admitted the existence of two sovereign bodies acting, in some cases, in the same sphere ; in other words, to the doctrine of nullification and of the *imperium in imperio*. Logic, interest, or passion may hide the practical absurdity of such a system, but they cannot remove it. Mr. Stephens saw this difficulty from the outset, and in his first speech declared his dissent from the doctrine of nullification and his belief in the right of secession. This at least was practical.

Mr. Stephens never wavered in his opinion on this point. Through all the agitating years which prepared the way for the war Mr. Stephens exhibited judgment and moderation, except on one point, which it is needless to say was the "peculiar institution." He was carried away by his support of slavery into perfectly rabid defences of the whole system, until his usual calmness, fairness, and just estimate of popular movements were wholly lost. Entirely free, as a rule, from the truculence, the fanaticism, and the domineering manner of the Southern politicians towards their Northern opponents, upon the question of slavery and its inevitable fate he was perfectly blind. How strange it seems to-day to read an elaborate speech delivered in Congress by a man of as much talent as Mr. Stephens in defence of slavery, on the ground of Biblical precedent and divine approbation, and interspersed with such choice enquiries as : "*Was Christ a doughface?* Did he quail to the slave-power?" This, however, seems respectable when we read Mr. Stephens's account of a battle with fists in the House in which more than thirty honorable members were engaged, or when we listen to his lamentations at the almost constant drunkenness of many Southern Congressmen, whose inability to answer to their names cost their party several defeats when the vote was close. In these old speeches and letters we see plainly all those features of the slavery struggle which make it revolting from an historical point of view. They vividly recall the decline of statesmanship, the growth of sectionalism, the violent and almost barbarous tone of discussion, the truckling on one side, the bullying, grasping policy of the other, together with the pitiful efforts of both the great parties to avoid the one all-important question, all of which marked the progress of the slavery agitation.

Mr. Stephens saw that war was inevitable much sooner than any of his friends, who thought him a little insane on this point ; yet, when the Georgia Convention was held, it was he who stood out boldly at the head of a small minority against secession. He then, as always, asserted the right of the State to secede, but he was too clear-sighted not to perceive that the grounds of action adopted by the majority were miserably inadequate. Opposition was, of course, vain. The tide was setting too strongly to be stemmed by any man. Mr. Stephens accepted in good faith the adverse decision of the Convention, cast in his fortunes with those of his State, and was chosen, as all know, Vice-President of the Confederacy. During the war he occupied the unhappy position of a man who is calmer and more far-sighted and more foreboding than his fellows in a period of furious excitement and total popular blindness. He fell in, of course, with the movement of the day, and he used to its utmost extent the preposterous falsehood that the North designed to subjugate the South, and that it was a question of "Homes and Firesides." But behind all the brave talk there were many misgivings. He hoped for foreign aid, but he could not rid himself of the thought that the world would never look kindly on a "Black Republic" of slave States. He was a member of the Government, but felt compelled to resist what he deemed their arbitrary and unconstitutional action, and saw his influence with the authorities gradually wane. He rightly, though in vain, opposed the financial policy which mistook the proper use of the cotton crop, and he never cherished the pleasing delusion that the war was to be an affair of a few months. On one point he was no wiser than his compatriots, for he shared to the full the appalling ignorance which prevailed at the South in regard to the North. With that peculiar Southern idea of their own importance to the rest of the world which seems a relic of the embargo times, Mr. Stephens thought that the withdrawal of the Southern trade would ruin the North, and that the interests of commerce could dam the torrent of political passion. Then, again, he prophesied from time to time that anarchy and despotism were at hand in the North, and blood was to flow there as it did during the French Terror : the hopes of liberty and humanity now rested with the South alone, and were confided to the keeping of a parcel of slave States. In the bitterness and excitement of a great civil conflict it is not surprising that such opinions should have been widespread, but it is astonishing that so cool and able a man as Mr. Stephens should have accepted them. As he stepped out of Fort Warren in 1865 with his head on his shoulders, and safe in person and property, he ought to have recalled with a good deal of shame his wild talk about "anarchy and despotism," "French terrors," and "Napoleonic rule" at the North.

After the war Mr. Stephens betook himself to literature, and published his 'Constitutional View of the War,' which we are told by his biographers and the *Saturday Review* proved incontestably that the South was right in every point, and was the true friend of constitutional liberty—a proposition from which many persons still differ. Mr. Stephens's career since then is too fresh in every one's mind to need comment. It is to be regretted, however, that the last act of the veteran politician recorded in this volume should be his advocacy of the "great white dollar."

IHNE'S EARLY ROME.*

WE have in this volume one of the most noteworthy of the "Epoch" series, its author being a leading authority upon Roman history, and his 'History of Rome' the principal rival to that of Mommsen. They represent, indeed, two opposite schools of interpretation, and the readers of this work who come to it with conceptions of early Roman history derived from Mommsen will, we fear, be puzzled and bewildered. Mommsen accepts in general the statements of the ancient writers, only subjecting them to the rules of modern criticism ; while Ihne follows Niebuhr's method, rejects an even greater proportion than Niebuhr of these statements, and substitutes for them bold hypotheses of his own. And yet such a hold has Niebuhr obtained, especially over English scholars, that his theories pass as orthodox, and Ihne as a safe and cautious historian, while Mommsen's far more conservative views are looked upon as wildly radical. We venture to say that this little volume of Ihne contains more for which there is absolutely no authority, which is mere hypothesis, than Mommsen has ever advanced. We say this, not by way of either condemning or commending Ihne's presentation of early Roman history, but of calling attention to the point of view it occupies. For itself the book is excellently well done ; the negative part—the criticism of the ancient accounts, and the demonstration of their inconsistencies and impossibilities—could hardly be better done. For the constructive part, we will content ourselves with mentioning the principal points in which Ihne differs from Mommsen ; partly to show in what the opposition between them consists, partly to assist in judging their methods and theories.

* 'Early Rome, from the Foundation of the City to its Destruction by the Gauls. By W. Ihne, Ph.D., Professor at the University of Heidelberg, author of 'The History of Rome.'' With a map. New York : Charles Scribner's Sons. 12mo.

The most important of these points has reference to the prevailing character of the early monarchy. The strong contrast between the monarchy of the four first kings and the last three is a fundamental fact of this period ; but precisely what this contrast consisted in is a matter of controversy. According to Ihne it consisted in the establishment by the Tarquins of a military monarchy of Etruscan origin, in place of the early sacerdotal monarchy (page 104). The novelty here—for this view does not appear even in his 'History of Rome'—lies in regarding the early kings as nothing but priests, having no civil or military authority. Numa, not Romulus, was their type. All military authority was exercised, not by the king, but by an officer specially appointed by him, the *Magister Populi*, or, as he was afterwards called, *Dictator*. It is not necessary to say how totally this theory is opposed to the ancient tradition. This is perhaps of little importance ; the question is whether it is in itself a rational and consistent view, finding support in the known character of primitive ages and known facts of the Roman monarchy. Is a kingship of the priestly type probable from what we know of the kingly office in early ages ; and is what we know positively of the Roman kings consistent with this theory ? To each of these questions we must answer in the negative. The comparative study of institutions has thrown wonderful light of late upon this very point ; but it is safe to say that it does not support this view in the least. It has taught very clearly, it is true, that all early institutions were built upon religion, but not upon *sacerdotalism*. This is a thing wholly foreign to the genius of the Greeks and Romans. With them the priest was not king, but the king was priest ; and there is a world-wide difference between the two propositions. On general grounds we should pronounce Prof. Ihne's view an impossible one, as being wholly inconsistent with the structure of early society ; or at least we should require the strongest support on the second ground—direct evidence, in the admitted facts of Roman history. But such evidence is absolutely wanting. The theory is purely a conjecture. The kings of early Greece, of the Italian cities, and of Rome itself, so far as the records go, were, as Mr. Morgan has shown to be *à priori* probable, military chiefs with priestly and judicial functions ; and this is Mommsen's view. Moreover, if the religious basis is the leading characteristic of the early monarchy, its gentile institutions are hardly less prominent, and these are almost neglected by Prof. Ihne. The true explanation of the revolution of the Tarquins is, we have no doubt, that of Mr. Morgan —identical in substance with that worked out so admirably by M. Fustel de Coulanges—the supersedure of the *societas*, or state founded upon kinship, by the *civitas*, or political state.

We have only space just to mention some other points in which Ihne's view is opposed to that of Mommsen ; but in most of these, likewise, his view does far more violence to the authorities. For example, he holds (p. 138) that the first class in the centuriate comitia contained the patricians, the other classes the plebeians ; that the plebeians were an organized body, with officers of their own, even under the monarchy (p. 143) ; that the tribunes of the plebs were not created by the secession, but only invested with a public character at this time ; that these tribunes were from the first elected in the *comitia tributa*, and the only effect of the Publilian Law was in securing the exclusion of patricians from this assembly (p. 166) ; that the Senate during this whole period was an exclusively patrician body (p. 104). In the assertion (p. 147) that "the *comitia tributa* were purely democratic" he takes issue again with Mommsen ; but on this point ancient testimony is not so unequivocal. Mommsen's view here is, however, at least not inconsistent with it, and is far more probable intrinsically—viz., that the local tribes contained only the proprietors of land, that this assembly was therefore at this period an aristocratic one, and that the object of the Publilian Law was (as Livy says it was) to place the election of the tribunes and the control of plebeian interests in the hands of a plebeian aristocracy.

There is another point of so vital importance as to demand a few words of consideration. Prof. Ihne denies (p. 141) that economic distress had anything to do with the first secession of the plebeians, but ascribes it wholly to "their exclusion from political rights." For this view, which is directly contrary to that of the ancients themselves, we have no reasons assigned but those of probability : "It is highly improbable that in the primitive state of society in which we must imagine the Romans then to have been, numerous loan transactions could have taken place." Of course, if we are talking of commercial loans. But here, too, leaving the ancient accounts out of consideration, what does our knowledge of early society teach us ? Why, that almost universally, at this stage of society, the lower classes are found deeply in debt to the upper. The law of debt, as we know it to have existed among Greeks, Romans, and Hebrews in an almost identical form, making the debtor to all intents and purposes the slave of his creditor—in especial so familiar a fact as Solon's *Seisachtheia*—all bear witness that desperate indebtedness and severe "economic distress" were sadly common at this stage of society. And this is just what Livy and Dionysius tell us. It is strange, by the way, at a time when historians are beginning to look more and more to social and economic causes for the explanation of political phenomena, to find an historian ready to throw away an economic interpretation ready to his hand, and go back to the kind of interpretation that used to be in vogue.

Indeed, Prof. Ihne's conception of early Roman history seems to us to fail fatally in being built upon too narrow a foundation. He has hardly an equal in knowledge of the authorities upon this field of history ; he is master of his materials, and displays great skill and acumen in analyzing and combining them. But this is not enough. The history of no one nation can be understood by itself, and without a true conception of the structure and character of ancient society no true conception of early Roman institutions is possible. This Mommsen has, but Ihne has not. His view, therefore, we believe to be at once less consistent with the authorities and less consistent with what we know of primitive institutions than that of Mommsen. Nevertheless, these views are those of a learned and able man, and they are presented in this volume with great force and clearness. And, after all, the principal part of the volume is occupied with matters as to which there is no controversy ; here the treatment is always able and instructive.

RECENT NOVELS.*

IF any one delights in repartee, or in the exquisite charm which sometimes half extenuates the cruelty of flirtation, he should read 'Molly Bawn.' Although the story is well constructed, and the simple plot affords strong characterization and many interesting situations in the development of the relations between Mr. Amherst and his three grandchildren, each of whom is the only child of a detested marriage and receives from him open maltreatment and frequent insult, and although the minor characters are well marked and amusing, the central interest is in the captivating power of Molly and her readiness to use it which determine the course of the story. She has a talent for flirting, and in her it is a graceful sin. The fault in moral quality which injures the story is the skill which has made her actions seem so much the product of nature as to be irresponsible, so that the anger which they continually excite is like that felt at the barbarities of children. She pulls a man's happiness to pieces as a three-year-old demolishes a costly toy, and treads on her lover's feelings as if they were of no more consequence than a cat's tail. This goes on until she is sobered by an unexpected misfortune, and opportunity is offered for the development of noble qualities. Still, with all her charms, her gifts of youth and beauty and song and wit, and all the prettiness of her "petulant, quick replies," we confess to a gladness that such explosive bonbons are not the daily fare of men. It would indeed be but a sorry world if she and her peer, Lady Strafford, were representatives of many women. The other great charm of the book is in its conversation, which is plentiful, bright, amusing, and never flags.

It is a long way from the civilization of Herst Hall to the brutish outlaws who, according to the author of 'Agamenticus,' settled the village of York on the Maine coast. The value of this novel does not appear at first sight, but if one remembers how difficult a task it must be for clergymen to find religious anecdotes for children, as a repertory of these the book may be recommended. Among the many uses to which the novel has been put in our day, this is the first case which has fallen under our notice in which it is merely a string on which to hang quotations from old authors, and such stories as usually enliven Sunday-school concerts in country districts. It is an historical sketch, and therefore may legitimately use actual incidents gleaned from histories of the time it portrays ; but when the conversation of its characters is in the words of Augustine and Emerson, and its pithy remarks are gathered from many centuries, the license of the historical novel is at least strained. Perhaps what strikes an undevout reader most strongly in it is the childlike faith of the author in special providences. If the improvident New England minister, who is the hero, gives away his wife's only pair of shoes, or squanders on a mendicant all his money, or lets his woodpile get low, straightway within half an hour shoes and wood appear, or a company of merchants on Boston Common make up the purse for the "eccentric saint." One is certainly pardonable for doubting whether this is a true picture of the life of the

* 'Molly Bawn. By the author of 'Phyllis.'' Philadelphia : J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1878.

'Agamenticus. By E. P. Tenney.' Boston : Lee & Shepard. 1878.

New England minister in colonial days as it actually was, and the entire historical *ensemble* of the book seems to us false, although it contains so many real incidents.

In 'The Crew of the Sam Weller' the author of 'Helen's Babies' has introduced us to a defaulting New York teller on his voyage as a hand on a Mississippi flatboat, and he has placed before us a mixture of sordidness and religious cant which is fully as vulgar and vastly more disagreeable than any he has hitherto succeeded in compounding. The popularity of such books shows a public taste likely to endure so long as there is a large unlettered class constantly being transformed into readers of books, but it has ceased to be the characteristic American taste, as it was some thirty or forty years ago in the society which Mr. Eggleston's 'Roxy' represents. It is hardly proper to call this a religious novel, although the character of the heroine is fundamentally religious and her actions are determined mainly by religious motives, while the hero's faults are those of a backsliding convert, and the quaint love-tale of the New England minister is one of the charms of the book. It is, however, as an historical sketch of life on the Ohio, when that river was a frontier, that the book is interesting. It informs more than it delights the mind. The society it pictures is that which gave the sting of truth to much of Dickens's satire of us, and it is not pleasant reading for an American. Its characterization is strong, and it is an advance upon the author's previous work; but in Nancy, whose animal beauty is so harped upon, and whose desires and passions are hardly one remove from savagery, there is much that is sensational and unreal, and the missionary and saintly spirit is overdone throughout the story.

'Safar Hadgi' carries us to the other frontier of civilization, and we find Russian tyranny, Tartar superstition, war and love and torture, romance and terror of all sorts confusedly huddled in an exciting narrative that recalls the delights of Beadle for boyhood. One may sup full of horrors by reading it, but it requires in places a strong æsthetic stomach. In the 'Arab Wife,' a story of the same general character, there is the romance without the tragedy, a most rapturous first-love scene on an Indian island, and adventures, jewels, pirates, intrigues, and fortunate escapes without limit. The 'Goldsmith's Wife,' too, contains a charming brigand, melancholy, cultivated, devoted to his mother's portrait and another man's wife, a defender of helpless women, and a possessor of luxurious apartments in a lonely mountain pass; but his sins find him out and he dies at the block. 'The Bird of Passage' is less exciting, but it tells the tale of the passionate devotion of an English recluse-squire to a gypsy girl whom he met on the moor, and in whose behalf he fought a most brutal fight with clubs. 'The House of the Two Barbels,' apart from being a sketch of French provincial life, has only the interest of an attempted seduction, and might better have remained untranslated. It is a relief to come to the last of this series which has reached us, 'A Summer Idyl,' which is a tranquil and well-told story of summer leisure and pleasant family life in the beautiful scenery of the mountains of North Carolina. In it one may find various and quiet pleasure.

'No-Account' would have been a better and a more taking equivalent for M. Daudet's title than the one chosen by the translator, which, as it stands, gives the impression that the story is one for children. It is, on the contrary, by no means the least of the author's serious efforts, whether as regards carefully discriminated study of character, delicacy of touch, or sustained interest. The character of the hero, Daniel Eyssette, is a creation, or, rather, a transcription. We have all seen him in life, if not in a novel. Of diminutive stature and boyish manners, the first remark that rude people make on seeing him, and the first thought of people who say nothing, is always, substantially, "He is of no account." His character is a compound of childish weaknesses and masculine will. When his father's business is ruined and the family is scattered, Daniel supports himself as teacher in the college of Sarlande, a great barrack of a place among the mountains, two days' journey from Paris. There he makes a brave fight with his unmanageable classes, a race of Anakim, each pupil at least twice as big as himself, and there he devotes himself to the task of restoring the fortunes of his family. Losing his place, however, through the treachery of a companion, he goes to Paris, where his brother Jacques receives and protects him, houses him on a fifth floor in the Latin Quarter, encourages him to commence as poet, and raises the money to publish his first volume, which, being unsalable, is also his last. Then the temptations of the city prove too much for Daniel. He succumbs to them, and is rescued with difficulty by the devotion of Jacques. This part of the story is touching, and it describes traits of the French character of which we know perhaps too little. It depicts their strong family attachments, the almost passionate love of the country people for home, and the same joyous sacredness of domestic affection as that which gives the imperishable charm to the earlier chapters of Marmontel's memoirs. As in those memoirs, too, the escapades, the dissipations of the student-life in the capital form but an interlude. They are ripples, not interruptions, in the current of family affection. Some of the incidents of the story are enough like some that are recorded of Daudet's own life to lend a sub-autobiographic interest to the adventures of his hero. If the original is free from mannerisms, the translator has added none. The version is fairly well done, and retains much of Daudet's abundant humor. That the story should be entertaining was to be expected from its authorship. That it may serve to illustrate the French character to persons who find in the word "frivolous" a sufficient critical account of that character is, perhaps, rather to be hoped than expected.

'The Crew of the Sam Weller. By John Habberton.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1878.
'Roxy. By Edward Eggleston.' New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1878.
'Safar Hadgi; or, Russ and Turcoman. From the French of Prince Lubomirski.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878.
'The Arab Wife: A Romance of the Polynesian Seas.' (New Handy Volume Series.) New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878.
Same Series:
'The Goldsmith's Wife. By Madame Charles Reybaud.'
'The Bird of Passage. By J. Sheridan Le Fanu.'
'The House of the Two Barbels. By André Theuriet.'
'A Summer Idyl. By Christian Reid.'
'The Little Good-for-Nothing (Le Petit-Chose). From the French of Alphonse Daudet, by Mary Neal Sherwood.' Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 1878.

Cyprus: Historical and Descriptive. From the earliest times to the present day. Adapted from the German of Franz von Löher, with much additional matter, by Mrs. A. Batson Joyner. Maps and Illustrations. (New York: R. Worthington. 1878.)—Mrs. Joyner begins ill by professing in her title to give her readers more than Herr Löher gave his. In fact her 32 chapters and 320 pages probably contain a good deal less matter than his 53 chapters and 376 pages. Her "adaptation" it is hard to characterize without a show of disrespect. It is the merest paraphrase of a charming book of travel that would justify the most painstaking endeavor to render it faithfully and elegantly into English. Löher wrote from no political motive, and certainly without any intention of bolstering the Beaconsfield policy of occupation. His "traducer" lards her mutilated text with reflections of her own on the bright future of Cyprus under British rule, or with passages from other authors selected for their favorable view of the island's salubrity and capacity; and the bungling manner in which this is done must be illustrated in order to be believed. Premising that Mrs. Joyner does not make use of quotation marks to separate her own composition from her author's, we cite first the interpolation on p. 15:

"The following short sketch of the cultivation of Cyprus, under the various dynasties, will show its extraordinary natural resources, and the field for enterprise that will be opened out under British sway."

On pp. 92 and 243 are similar but pious interpolations, which might, for all the reader is informed or can guess, have been found in the original narrative. On p. 40, however, Mrs. Joyner inserts some of her cheap "additional matter" about Catherine Cornaro, and, as if the author's German nationality had been forgotten by her readers, says in a parenthesis: "This interesting fact will explain the feeling with which *our* interference with the island has been regarded in Italy." On p. 53 Herr Löher, who speaks throughout in the first person singular, declares himself a Bavarian. On page 88 we read: "As for manners, well would it be if *our awkward English race* could imitate the grace with which these villagers performed the most ordinary act." "Unser deutscher Bauer" was the natural subject of contrast in the German's mind. And here, by the way, let us note an example of the carelessness of the "adaptation." The talk is still of manners, and the page the same: "Their peculiar customs are numerous and interesting," says Mrs. Joyner. "Their polite ways are legion," Löher had said (*Ihrer Höflichskeitformen ist Legion*).

The ordinarily acute reader, of course, would have no difficulty in detecting these earmarks of the patriotic British matron; but we do not know what excuse can be offered for her interpolating a whole chapter (xviii.), made up from a well-known American work, with this introduction: "In an account given by General Cesnola of a similar journey to *mine*," etc. (p. 155). The same authority had already furnished her with a couple of irrelevant pages on an "unfortunate" brigand confined in the fortress of Famagusta. Chap. xx., on Climate and Temperature, is not Herr von Löher's; neither is chap. xxxii., on Cyprus and the Euphrates Valley Railway, "soon, *we* hope, to be a reality." Here we are told that "the geographical position of Cyprus, now under British rule,

makes the island a fitting guardian of Upper Syria, Cœlo Syria (*sic*), and almost of Palestine, and in the hands of Great Britain is an invaluable acquisition, and worth any amount of land which might be purchased on the neighboring Asiatic coast." And the railroad is to furnish, according to Mr. W. P. Andrew, F.R.G.S., "an invaluable and perfectly efficient means at once of thwarting the designs of Russia, if they should assume a hostile character, or of marching hand-in-hand with her," etc., etc.

In short, this work is a bit of catchpenny Jingoism, and we sincerely commiserate Herr Löher on having fallen into such unworthy hands.

Round about France. By E. C. Grenville Murray. (New York: Macmillan & Co. 1878.)—This book, which consists of sketches reprinted from the *Daily News*, throws a strong light upon the exasperating methods by which the Government sought to carry the late elections, and upon the social condition which lent to those methods the hope of success. For this reason, probably, the Government seized it and forbade its circulation in France. It tells the story of the tactics of the Duc de Broglie's party with a vigor, a liveliness, and a photographic minuteness of detail, and at the same time with an English-bred contempt for assaults upon majorities of the popular chamber, that prevail upon the judgment no less than on the sympathies of the reader. Americans can form at best but a faint conception of the arbitrary power which still remains in the French Republic, and of the difficulties of the political struggle through which France has just passed. To make a rough analogy, if one can imagine our civil service much more corrupt than it is, and touching with a direct selfish interest vastly more persons than it does, he can understand in some degree the immense power which the executive had in its hands to tempt or terrorize the people into support of the Government, and can see the magnitude of the victory which the temperate policy and eloquence of Gambetta and the memory of Thiers won over the opponents of the Republic. The description which Mr. Murray gives of the conflict is entertaining and instructive, but the main value of the book is in its information about what we should call "the machine." The extremely conservative and subservient courts, the administrative system with its vast and penetrating patronage, its bribes of promised decorations, privileges, business licenses, places in government, public works such as roads, churches, bridges, and the like, its power to check political discussions in newspapers or public meetings, its suppression of liberal campaign documents and petty interferences with liberal canvassing, its emissaries of all sorts, its thousand and one expedients for repressing the opposition and giving an open field for its own propaganda—these things are told with a directness and baldness such that we do not wonder at the Government's desire to suppress the story, and the whole forms an illustration of the French political character which will be a surprise to many intelligent Americans who think the terse and popular lines about "the schoolboy heat, the blind hysterics of the Celt" an accurate description of the long French struggle for liberty.

With most men the conclusion will be that, as Mr. Murray says, the quality most prominently shown by the French people politically is not fickleness but long-suffering. It is not the inaptitude of the national character for self-government which makes the Republic a difficult problem in France, but the fact that the revolutions are not thorough enough. To illustrate what may seem a strange remark, the strain upon the present constitution consequent on the 16th of May sprang from the incompatibility of a popular legislature with a centralized executive extremely conservative by its structure and habituated to the arbitrary exercise of power. The people can make laws in the legislature, but they have yet to frame an executive which will not be too strong to nullify them at its will. The solution which is plainly indicated in the state of things described by Mr. Murray, and on which Republicans are centring their efforts for reform, is the breaking up of the system of subordinate administration by prefects responsible to the National Home Office, and the substitution for it of local self-government by officers elected by the populations most interested in their good behavior. Liberty with us means local independence; with the French, the hope of it; and it is by it—or, in other words, by decentralization—that the too strong executive in France must be broken down. We fear that most Americans who remember the Commune as the destroyer of the sights of Paris will be surprised on being reminded by Mr. Murray that, besides the proclamation of a republic, the only demand of the National Guard was that the communes, the administrative units of France, might elect their own mayors, and at the statement of his opinion that "if the municipal franchises which Paris asked for had been granted in the first instance, and if the National Assembly after voting the peace had dissolved itself, allowing a new general election to take place, the Central Committee of the National Guard, the Decemvirate of the Internationale, and all other agitators at large might have done their worst: the people would not have hearkened to them and there would have been no civil war." The same persons who associate the "Extreme Left" with the red flag, the Terror, and the ten thousand executed after the Commune, will feel calmer after reading the platform, so to speak, of these Radicals, which Mr. Murray thus describes:

"The Extreme Left are agitating, firstly, for a free press; secondly, for the right of public meeting; thirdly, for a three years' military service for all, instead of five years for some and one year for others who can afford £60 to purchase exemption; fourthly, they desire the separation of church and state; and, fifthly, the reform of the judicature and of procedure so as to protect men from arbitrary arrest and imprisonment, and also to put judges on such a footing that they shall not be liable to degradation and virtual dismissal for administering justice impartially in political cases; sixthly, the Radicals want the town councils to elect their own mayors and to manage the business of their municipalities without being dictated to by the prefects. But is this all? Truly this is the sum total of what the dangerous Radicals of France are demanding."

This is more like what would be antecedently probable in regard to the position that Communism holds in a nation of small proprietors, whose loans are negotiating at three per cent. and whose people are complaining of the low rate of interest.

There is no space to mention other merits of the book. It contains some clear and concise historical sketches of the various constitutions since 1789, of the Bank, the conscription laws, and the press; much information in regard to the army and the attitude of the peasants towards the political parties; outlines of the careers of Thiers and Émile Girardin, and sketches of the personal appearance of other notable men. It has nothing to do with salons, theatres, and fêtes, but it has many anecdotes by the way, and is written in an entertaining style. Its great excellence, however, consists in its being an intelligent and unalarmed account of French political parties, their resources, the conditions under which they work, and their aims.

A Synopsis of History. General History, from B.C. 800 to A.D. 1876, outlined in diagrams and tables; with index and genealogies. For general reference, and for schools and colleges. By Samuel Willard, A.M., M.D., Professor of History in Chicago High-School. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878. 8vo, pp. 116.)—We can heartily recommend Mr. Willard's "Synopsis of History" as being altogether the best set of chronological and genealogical tables, on a moderate scale, with which we are acquainted. They are equally remarkable for completeness and for accuracy. The tables of chronology give a page to each century until the thirteenth century of the Christian era, with which commence double pages. Each page is ruled with four cross-lines in red, dividing the century into periods of twenty years, and as the left-hand of the page is the top of these columns, the double pages make continuous columns. Seeing that the book has to be turned in order to be consulted, it would be well to have running titles at the top to assist the eye. The print is rather small, but very clear, and one is surprised to see how few names and dates of any moment are omitted, and how free it is from errors and misprints. An Analytical Index refers to every item.

The Genealogical tables, thirty-three in number, are equally good, and are provided with an equally copious index; and, what is more, this index supplements the tables with many important items—classifying, for example, various perplexing facts, and presenting in a small space a pretty complete dynastic history of the several nations. We find here not merely royal families, but many princely and ducal lines of England and France especially; those of the Netherlands, too, are very complete. On the other hand there are but four tables of ancient families, and the countries of the north and south of Europe are not adequately treated. Even if they are a little outside the main current of European events, one needs the tables of Portugal, Naples, and the Scandinavian countries at certain periods of the middle ages. Most genealogies which serve as a key to dynastic and diplomatic complications are given—for example, the Cleves succession, the Spanish succession, and the Polish kings of the house of Vasa. We do not find, however, any statement of the Schleswig-Holstein question.

The errors we have noted are very trifling. Under the date 48 B.C., Dyrrhachium is spelt with one *r*. Nothing is said of the great contest between John XXII. and Louis the Bavarian. The Hanseatic League is said to be at its "greatest power" in 1360, which was really the date of its organization as a political power. In Table 23, Catherine Grey and her

descendants, Lord Beauchamp and William Seymour, are too important to be omitted. In Table 30, John II. should be John III. The compromise of the investiture contest, 1122, had better have received its familiar name, Concordat of Worms. Louis II. of Flanders (Table 32) should receive his well-known title, Louis Mâle. We think, too, it would be well to sum up the events before B.C. 800 in an outline of one page.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 24, 1878.

The Week.

WE have discussed elsewhere the explanations offered by Mr. Tilden and Mr. Marble of their connection with the telegrams published by the *Tribune*. Of their effect in ruining Mr. Tilden's political fortunes, or what was left of them, there seems no doubt; but what other effect they will have it would be hard to say. That they will be taken as proof of wickedness peculiar to the Democrats as long as the Republican correspondence is not produced, seems very unlikely, because they show that, though the Returning Boards were ready to sell and the Democrats were ready to buy, the Republicans, after all, secured the article. The reporters are interviewing all the prominent politicians to see what view they take of the matter, and, strange as it may appear, not one has been found to approve of bribery in any form. In fact, they all pronounce the purchase of Returning Boards very reprehensible, a fact which has greatly relieved the public. We suspect, however, that if the truth were known it would be found that very few politicians on either side in their secret hearts think it any great sin to buy whatever is for sale—or, in other words, when great interests are at stake, to bribe the bribable. They reserve their horror for bribery which results in the election of bad men. It must be added, too, *that purchasing votes by the promise of offices is corruption in a peculiarly insidious form*, and as long as it lasts and is tolerated it will instigate and excuse bribery by money on the part of those who have no offices to bestow. This is the fundamental principle of reform which it behooves the American people at this juncture to lay to heart.

The *Times* has borne the great "beat" achieved by the *Tribune* in the noble and recently-added "detective department" of journalism with exemplary patience and forbearance, and comments on the cipher telegrams with a calm and good temper which do it the highest honor. This is the more creditable because the *Times* really had something in the nature of a pre-emptor's claim to any journalistic advantage arising out of Tilden's iniquities. It was and is the highest living authority about his income-tax frauds and his stock and railroad operations, and, looking at the matter from a purely equitable stand-point, ought to have had a first chance at his telegrams and other private correspondence. In the old days of the redoubtable Jennings it would not have accepted the situation so quietly. It would never have permitted "the man Reid," as it loved to call him, to make such a racket about his telegrams with impunity, and would have compelled him by volleys of well-chosen epithets to bear his honors meekly. Perhaps the present state of things is nobler and better than the old one, but it is unquestionably duller, and life is not varied enough or picturesque enough for most of us to see, without a certain regret, the substitution of vapid compliments, or dreary silence, for the clash of newspaper arms with which the morning hours of other days used to be filled.

The next House will lack two of the most conspicuous, able, and useful members of the present body, Messrs. Clarkson N. Potter and Abram S. Hewitt. Mr. Potter was, indeed, renominated from the Twelfth District, but having served for four terms he considers himself to have discharged his duty to his country, and has declined to run again. In a letter to his constituents he lets it be seen that the hopes he entertained of effecting something for the public good in a Democratic House have not been fully realized; and his chief service he is inclined to think has been in procuring the passage of a bill, which the Senate will probably adopt, removing from Congress the determination of most private claims with their attendant corruption. Mr. Potter frankly says that he is confirmed in his decision not to serve again by the fact that upon the financial issues of the day he is "not entirely in accord with some of our people." He takes some pride in having argued the legal-tender cases before the Supreme Court, when he warned them against establishing the power of Congress in time of peace to change the measure of value for past-due debts. He also declares (and it entitles him to the reward offered by the Cincinnati *Commercial* for any Congressman who knew when demonetization took place) that he was almost alone in opposing that measure in 1873, "because it might alter the standard of values"; and he now opposes remonetization for the same reason, and would hold fast to resumption. Unlike Mr. Potter, Mr. Hewitt depended on Tammany for his renomination, and his relations to Mr. Tilden of course ruined his chances. The political managers of the Tenth District, however, had not the pleasure of appointing his successor, for the Boss kindly sent them word that he had selected Mr. Orlando B. Potter for them, and they ratified his selection with only the natural hesitation which came of not knowing who Mr. O. B. Potter was, to begin with, and of learning that he did not so much as live in the district. "The people's choice" has obligingly promised to move there directly.

The various Anti-Tammany organizations in this city have effected a union with the Republicans in regard to the city elections, and a joint ticket has been arranged, with Mr. Edward Cooper at its head as candidate for Mayor. It seems to have more strength than that put forward by Tammany, which has nominated Mr. Augustus Schell for Mayor, and associated with him men who, like himself, have been defeated in previous elections, although they polled the full Tammany vote. Mr. Cooper's nomination is a good one, and the whole ticket is fair when one remembers that it is a compromise between five organizations. There is already talk of the retirement of one of the Tammany candidates, and this indicates that the Boss is fearful of having overestimated his strength, in consequence of his success at Syracuse and in the State Committee, and is ready to withdraw behind stronger nominations. The leaders of the combined opposition are sanguine of success; they estimate their strength at over eighty thousand votes, and Tammany does not control many more than fifty thousand votes. If there is no secret dissension and trading, their hopes seem to be well grounded, and if, as is reported, the alliance extends to the Assembly and Congressional districts as well as the city offices, the usefulness of the movement may be much increased, however temporary the harmony of the factions may be. It is to be noted, too, that Gen. Arthur was at the head of the Republicans in this matter, and it makes one wonder just what was the secret history of the Tammany-Conkling friendliness, and whether Kelly is now consumed with anger at the "ingratitude" of the great New York Senator.

Butler's methods in the Massachusetts canvass received an excellent illustration in what occurred lately at Fall River, where a man appeared one morning among the operatives of the Robeson mill and fomented trouble by inciting them to action which resulted in a lock-out. A mass meeting was soon announced for the evening of the same day with out-of-town speakers. The addresses, which were of the most inflammatory character, all ended by prescribing Butler's election as the remedy for the troubles of the workingmen. One speaker went so far as to tell the operatives that, should Butler be elected, he would send troops to them to aid them against the manufacturers. Such an unprincipled scheme for making political capital was never before resorted to by a candidate in Massachusetts, but it is of the same character as the barbecue at Worcester

and other incidents of the campaign, and serves to "keep the ball rolling" and swell the popular tide in Butler's favor. Judge Abbott appears to have dropped out of notice for the time being, but the Boston *Post* still adheres to its comical proposition that Talbot should withdraw and leave the Republicans free to defeat Butler by voting for Abbott.

The Democratic and Republican versions of the recent outrages in South Carolina differ in many respects, but they agree in the essential fact that Republican meetings are overawed by armed Democrats, so that free speech and action are really impeded. The avowed plan of the Democrats, in their conduct of the campaign, is to allow no Republican meetings unless a division of time is agreed to and Democrats given an opportunity to speak, in order, as they allege, to contradict the "Radical lies," but, as the Republicans say, to capture the meetings and intimidate the voters. This of course is the old "Mississippi plan" redivivus. Out of these interferences arose the events which were lately reported to the President, and which prompted Attorney-General Devens's order to the Federal officials entrusted with the execution of the laws in the South. Under the protection of this order, Judge Lee, whose evidence had secured it, attempted to hold a mass meeting at Sumter. On the day appointed the red-shirt Democracy rode in from all the country round, and the Republican speakers being, as they say, threatened with death in case they should attempt to carry out their programme, did not dare appear. The few hundred Republicans who had the courage to assemble were addressed, however, by a white-haired veteran of eighty years, whose remarks, delivered in the midst of the firing of cannon and other interruption, irritated "the boys," and it is clear enough that one of the bloodiest riots of the South was prevented only by the decision and bravery of Generals Hagood and Moise, who commanded the Democrats and restrained them. The old man was taken home, and when warrants were issued for the arrest of some leading Democrats they retaliated by arresting him on a charge of inciting riot. The matter will therefore come before the courts in all its bearings.

In the same way as Judge Lee, ex-Senator Swails has had his meetings interfered with, has himself been subjected to public ridicule, and in the mêlée a negro, who attempted to protect him, was wounded, and, finally, Swails was notified by "citizens" to leave town within ten days on pain of death; but it should be remarked that the gentleman who is said to have threatened him with death has published a card denying that statement, but admitting that he said that "in his opinion if he returned he would be killed, for no earthly power could protect him against the righteous indignation of an outraged people." The victims of these outrages would meet with more Northern sympathy if they enjoyed better reputations. Swails, for example, was for a long time president *pro tem.* of the Senate in carpet-bag days, and on his own request was allowed by the Committee on Frauds to obtain immunity from punishment for his misdeeds—documentary evidence of which exists—by resigning the seat for which he is now again a candidate. There is, of course, nothing new to be said about these proceedings: they are not to be justified, but to be accounted for. They grow out of the determination on the part of the whites to perpetuate the victory of force (in its broadest sense) over superior numbers which was achieved under Hampton. We may expect them to continue just as long as the whites fear, whether reasonably or otherwise, that the "color-line" can be made use of for political purposes; and the South Carolinians must expect them to furnish politicians at the North with a convenient means of keeping alive the old animosities of the war.

President Hayes, on his return from the West, stopped last week at Winchester, in Virginia, where he was received with a military escort by Governor Holliday, and afterwards made a speech at the Fair Grounds. As in his Western tour, he adapted his remarks to his audience with a fitness which it is to be hoped will be appreciated by the people of the State. Instead of setting before them the condition of the national finances, he read a number of sentiments from the writings of Washington, Jefferson, Madison, Richard Henry Lee, George Mason, and Chief-Justice Marshall, exposing the folly of paper-money emission—"the very foolish and wicked plans" as Jefferson termed those with which Virginia was threatened in 1785-87; "the epidemic malady," as Madison termed it. All these quotations deserve a wide distribution during the present canvass, but Mr. Gorham, Secretary of the Republican Executive Committee, who appears to decide in these matters, has let it be known that Mr. Hayes can contribute to the campaign documents only by making a speech in which he distinctly wishes success to the Republican party, or performs the equivalent service of making "human rights" his theme. Mr. William E. Chandler, we observe, has so far succumbed to the prevailing vicious fashion that he has permitted himself to make a speech in which he treated the financial question first.

In the foreign financial markets the week has been one of depression and apprehension. There were many failures in England, and it is estimated that the liabilities of firms which have suspended since the City of Glasgow Bank failure are not less than £10,000,000 sterling, or $50,000,000. These failures, and the rumors and fears of others, made the London market very sensitive. British consols fell ⅛ to ⅝; money was active, although the Bank of England did not advance its discount above 6 per cent. There was a rumor that the Bank of England had asked and received from the Bank of France a loan of £6,000,000, but this proved to be unfounded; in fact, there has been nothing yet in the condition of affairs in London that warranted so extraordinary a request for aid. Sterling bills at Paris have all the time ruled at rates that take gold to London, and sterling here has advanced so that gold cannot be brought over from London. At the New York Stock Exchange quiet has prevailed and prices have changed very little. Gold closed at 100½; money was easy for borrowers to get at 5 to 6 per cent., and the banks gained about $700,000 on their surplus reserve. Silver fell during the week from 50*d.* to 49½*d.* per oz. in London. The price here fell to $1 06½ to $1 07 per oz. 1000 fine. At $1 07 the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar is exactly 82¼ cents gold. The Treasury yesterday received proposals to sell to the Government 400,000 ounces fine silver. The United States product is from 600,000 to 700,000 ounces per week. The London market continues heavy because all the exchange on India that is wanted is furnished by the India Council drafts, and is likely to be for several months, and because there is at the moment no other important demand for silver.

The revelations made by the Committee appointed to examine the affairs of the Glasgow Bank are very startling, not merely as regards the amount of the losses but as regards the dishonesty of the management; and the whole Board of Directors, six in number, with the manager and secretary have been arrested for fraud. The books showed that the liabilities were $5,633,820 more than the shareholders were led to believe they were; and that the assets on good paper and gold were less by $1,126,764 than the shareholders were led to believe they were. Not only were the shareholders deceived, however, but also the Government. By Sir Robert Peel's Act of 1845 Scotch banks were allowed to issue notes as previously without limitation as to amount, but for every note issued above its average circulation during the year ending May, 1845, each bank had to have coin in its vaults. Under this rule the legal circulation of the Glasgow Bank was $364,955; for anything above this amount it was obliged by law to hold gold, and might have issued $1,832,330. It actually had in circulation, however, when it failed $3,020,980, and evaded the check of the weekly return of the bullion held by it, required by the statute, by inserting whatever amount of gold was necessary to make its circulation lawful. The total loss, including the capital stock of $5,000,000, will reach

nearly $30,000,000, and as the shareholders are liable without limit, probably half of them will be totally ruined. An assessment of $2,500 a share has already been levied on them. It is altogether the worst financial crash that has ever occurred in Scotland. The loss on the failure of the Western Bank in 1857 only amounted to $10,000,000. It is to be observed, however, that the failure in no way grows out of the leading peculiarity of Scotch banking—the system of "cash credits," by which a man on giving proper personal security is credited with a certain amount, which he draws and repays in such sums as he pleases, paying interest only on the amount actually used by him. The present failure is due, like those of nearly all banks, to excessive advances to persons in difficulty.

There has been no progress reported in the British quarrel with Afghanistan. The troops are concentrating on the frontier, however, and operations of some kind will, it is said, be undertaken before the cold weather sets in—that is, before the beginning of December; but whether they will consist of a bold dash for Cabul, or a merely preliminary occupation of some of the passes, to be followed up in the spring, has not yet been determined. On the one hand, it is alleged that the seizure of Cabul by a sudden *coup* now would make a profound impression on the native imagination; on the other, there is the chance of a check or a reverse occurring to a lightly-equipped column at the beginning of winter, which would be very serious. Then, if the grand advance is delayed till the spring, there is danger that the passes may be fortified under the superintendence of Russian engineers, and even armed with Gatling guns, which would be very trying; for there is no question—the Russian press makes no secret of it—that if the Amir fights, the British will pay dearly for permitting Baker Pasha and Hobart Pasha and other volunteers to take service with the Turks in the late war. There will be a rush of Russian volunteers into the Afghan service, and they will make the advance on the capital a more serious matter by far than that of Pollock in 1842. But there is still hope entertained that the Amir will not fight, but will at the last moment lose heart and go to Peshawur to apologize.

The prospect of the war has raised the serious question as to whether England or India is to pay for it, which promises to be discussed with increasing acrimony. The last Afghan war cost—and war was comparatively cheap in those days—nearly $75,000,000. It is not extravagant to put the cost of the one now impending down at $20,000,000. If this is put upon India, it will be put upon a country in which taxation has been pushed to the point of danger, and in which, for some years back, there has been a yearly deficit of $20,000,000. Then, apart from the mere matter of fiscal expediency, there is the question whether, as all this trouble has grown out of the "imperial policy," India should be made to bear any more of the burden than the rest of the Empire. On the other hand, if it is imposed on England, either by an increase in taxation or by a loan charged on the home revenues, it will bring home to the Jingoes the disagreeable fact that Lord Beaconsfield's policy is a costly luxury. Indian finance, in fact, begins to loom on the horizon as a very black cloud. The Government, like the rest of the world, has been spending heavily of late years on "public improvements," in the shape of railroads and irrigation works, and, besides this, has recently had to meet two terrible famines. The taxes, if not unbearable already, are as high as the natives will stand from a foreign power.

Our Paris correspondent discusses elsewhere the political side of the Austro-Hungarian difference, of the gravity of which there is no doubt. The financial matter is put most prominently forward, but it owes its importance largely to the fact that Hungary, besides being heavily embarrassed, detests the Bosnian venture. Herr Széll, the finance minister who has just resigned, defends himself by the plea that when he agreed to the vote of 60,000,000 florins, which was all that Count Andrássy asked for in the beginning, he was firmly persuaded that this was all that would be needed. About 80,000,000 more are now supposed to be necessary, and the Hungarians might be got to agree to raise this by an Imperial or joint loan; but the Austrians object to this on the ground that their credit being better than that of Hungary they can raise money on better terms, and would lose this advantage by contracting a joint loan, and probably permanently injure their credit. This may be true, but it is not likely to soothe the feelings of the Magyars. A deficit of 70,000,000 florins in 1878, and of 66,000,000 in 1879, now seems probable in Hungary.

The not unexpected resignation of the Italian Ministry has been announced by cable, but the King is said to have refused to accept it unless Signor Cairoli would undertake to form a new one. This mark of confidence in a discredited prime minister is significant of the King's attitude in regard to the foreign policy, or want of policy, which has perhaps done as much as anything to break down the present Ministry. Signor Crispi has published a letter accusing them of having humiliated Italy in the eyes of Europe, and there is no doubt that this sentiment is very widespread among the most cultivated and influential classes in the country. Italy's part in the Treaty of Berlin, as a mere looker-on at the division of spoils, which found a popular condemnation in the *Italia irredenta* agitation, has not been atoned for by subsequent vigilance on the part of the Government in the maintenance of Italian "interests." The recent selection of an Englishman, Mr. Rivers Wilson, to be the Khedive's Minister of Finance, and of a Frenchman, M. de Blignières, to be his Minister of Public Works, renewed Italy's jealousy of these two Powers, and the Ministry was taxed with its failure to secure the kingdom its proper share in the control of Egypt and the Levant. France, again, it was remarked, has the virtual administration of the finances of Tunis through an inspector-general; has attracted French capital thither by guaranteeing the interest; is building a railroad, to connect Tunis with Constantine and Algiers, of which the land-grants will be almost equivalent to annexing the richest and most fertile part of the country, and to which will fall the port of Bizerta, the best on the coast from Ceuta to Cape Bon; and, finally, is entertaining the to be sure chimerical project of an inland sea and canal which would still further unite the province and the Bey's dominions. When one reflects how small a strait separates Sicily and Tunis, the Italian anxiety seems perfectly natural; but, moreover, as a recent letter in the *Rassegna Settimanale* shows, Italy's colony in Tunis is the strongest one it has in the Mediterranean, and supports a commerce scarcely inferior to that with Turkey or Egypt. In numbers it is twice the total of all other foreign residents, on whom it imposes its own language. Besides these grounds of complaint against the Cairoli Cabinet, it had been charged with unconstitutional designs in proposing to nominate a large number of Senators at one time, in the middle of a session, with a view to overcoming the Senate's probable resistance to the Government's plan of gradually abolishing the grist-tax.

The Government and the majority in the German Reichsrath have managed to come to terms regarding the Anti-Socialist Bill, and on its passage the Parliament has been prorogued. Books are to be exempt from the operation of the Act; newspapers are not to be summarily suppressed for the first offence; nobody can be expelled from his place of abode for more than six months; and the court of appeals from the decisions of the police is to be formed by the Emperor. The Act is to remain in operation two years and a half, at the expiration of which Prince Bismarck says he will apply for a prolongation if necessary. These details are, however, only reported by telegraph, and may call for correction when the full copy of the revised bill arrives. The minister has managed to obtain some very difficult legislation without a quarrel with the National Liberals, which is a great triumph under the circumstances. The Central Socialist Committee has dissolved, but advises the disciples to continue the propagandism individually.

THE DEMOCRATIC DENIALS.

MR. MANTON MARBLE has published a letter in answer to the charges based on the telegrams deciphered by the *Tribune*. The charges are that he sent various telegrams from Florida showing him to be a party to a plan for purchasing the vote of a member of the Florida Returning Board for Mr. Tilden. His answer is (1) that one telegram ascribed to him by the *Tribune*, but containing no allusion to this transaction, was not sent by him and is a forgery; (2) that he "never attempted, furthered, or executed in any manner, direct or indirect, or ever assented to or was concerned in any proposition, purpose, scheme, or effort, to buy the State canvassers' certificate of the vote of Florida, or to certify that vote as it was cast by her people for the Tilden electors"; (3) that frequent proposals to sell a vote were made to him by "real or pretended brokers," but though he reported all such proposals to the Democratic National Committee, they were never discussed or entertained by him, but always repulsed; (4) that Tilden having fairly the vote of the State, corruption was not considered necessary in order to get it for him; (5) that it was then inconceivable for an "American citizen" that President Hayes should reward every agent and accessory in "the crime" by which he obtained the place.

All this would be a sufficient answer to a simple assertion by the editor of the *Tribune* that Mr. Marble had been guilty of an attempt to bribe, because in a "conflict of veracity" touching a man's reputation *melior est conditio defendentis*. But the attack has been made by the aid of certain documents, which have been interpreted by a process that has been fully explained and the accuracy of which has not been impugned, and which point to Mr. Marble as the person who transmitted to Colonel Pelton, at Mr. Tilden's house, a proposal to sell the decision of the Board to Mr. Tilden for $200,000, and as a party to much subsequent bargaining arising out of this proposal and relating mainly to the price. These documents consist of thirteen telegrams, some of which purport to have been addressed to Mr. Marble by name, and two of them to have been signed with his name, and it is these which are occupying the public mind with regard to him. An adequate answer, therefore, must show either (1) that these telegrams were never sent by him or received by him, or (2) that the cipher in which they were sent has been wrongly interpreted, or (3) that they are inventions from beginning to end. We need hardly point out to as acute a man as Mr. Marble that the accusation is not one that can be disposed of by a counter attack; that is to say, an allegation that the State was bought for Hayes does not, even if true, meet an allegation that he (Mr. Marble) tried to buy it for Tilden. A supplemental explanation will therefore be necessary.

Mr. Tilden has also answered by a general denial of all knowledge of the existence of the Florida telegrams except what he has derived from their publication in the *Tribune*, and of all knowledge of any such offers as the telegrams contain or refer to. He heard of the proposal to sell the certificate some time after the State vote had been cast, but was told at the same time that it had been rejected. He makes the same sweeping denial with regard to the South Carolina telegrams. He also denies that any proposal to bribe in his behalf was ever authorized or sanctioned by him directly or indirectly. He then points out that the corruptibility of the counters in Florida, and particularly of McLin, is not denied by anybody; alleges that the Louisiana certificate was repeatedly offered to Mr. Hewitt and others for money; and designates as "pregnant" the fact that none "of these corrupt boards gave their certificates to the Democratic electors, but all did give them to the Republican electors." He then alleges that he was determined from the beginning not to compete for the Presidency before these corrupt boards either by the offer of offices or money; that he aimed, in case he obtained the Presidency, at the execution of reforms in the Federal Government similar to those which he had carried out in this State, and his purpose would have been defeated if he had committed himself in any way in the choice of men. He then attacks the Electoral Commission, showing that it was able to award the Presidency to Mr. Hayes solely by refusing to receive information, to which Congress was entitled, of facts about which there was no manner of doubt, and winds up by a reference to McLin's confession before the Potter Committee of having been influenced by a promise of office.

Mr. Tilden's answer is not open to the objection made to Mr. Marble's, because none of the telegrams appear to have been sent to him or by him. What implicates him is that the corrupt bargaining by which he was to profit was, it is alleged, carried on by his nephew and confidential friends from his own house; that it related to a matter in which he was deeply interested; that the canvass was, and had been from the beginning, carried on under his personal superintendence or guidance; and that what is known of his habits of business and turn of mind makes it seem very unlikely that any of his agents or subordinates would have ventured on a transaction so seriously affecting his fortune and reputation without his knowledge. We are not, however, by all this driven to the conclusion that he has, in this denial, been guilty of direct falsehood, which is one that everybody must desire to avoid with regard to the candidate of a great party for such an office as the Presidency, because "The Wicked Partner" theory will furnish an explanation consistent with all the facts, and especially with the fact that Mr. Tilden does not seem to have been shocked or surprised by the telegrams, and has not denied that they may have been sent by his nephew and friends, and has not, in consequence of them, broken with or manifested any displeasure against his nephew and friends on seeing the telegrams.

The "Wicked Partner" plan has made its way very extensively into business of all sorts within a few years, and is perhaps one of the most curious illustrations we have of the severity of the struggle in our day between the higher morality and mere material success. One finds it at work in mercantile houses, newspaper offices, in politics, and indeed in all business in which reputation is of consequence. An enterprise carried on on this plan always contains at least one, but seldom more than one, pure and upright man, who does his share of the work with a single eye to the good of his fellowmen, and, if the enterprise be a commercial one, seeks to make money simply for the sake of the opportunities of usefulness which its possession will give him. But associated with him there is usually one or more persons of more acuteness and activity though less intellectual power than he, who perceive clearly that in the existing state of society the Good Man could not go very far as he is going without bankruptcy, and that to save him from being ruined by his very virtues, and to make his goodness consistent with commercial success, he must have the assistance of others less scrupulous and more familiar with iniquity in its various forms, and who will do whatever dirty work the condition of human nature makes necessary without shocking him by the knowledge of it. These persons are now known as "Wicked Partners," and they play a curiously large part in the working of our social machinery. In commerce the Good Man is apt to be the head of the firm, but unfamiliar with the details, over which the Wicked Partners have full sway. In newspaper offices he is apt to be the editor, and the Wicked Partner confines himself to the publishing department, where he throws off all restraint and turns the Good Man's reputation into gold by the most sinful processes. In politics the Good Man is a candidate, or Governor or President, and animated as usual by the loftiest motives; but the Wicked Partners, in the shape of friends and followers, see that, in any conflicts he may have with men of a lower type than he, he gets the benefit of all the recent improvements both in offensive and defensive weapons, and without any responsibility or danger. If by chance he is now and then charged with complicity in any doubtful acts of theirs, there is the ready reply that they "got round him" or "poisoned his mind"; but he is not expected to discard them when he discovers the way in which they have imposed on him or compromised him. In fact, there is nothing more striking or more convenient in the relations of the Good Man and the Wicked Partner than the exemption of the Good Man from the necessity of forming any moral

judgment about the Wicked Partner's acts and expressing it in separation from him. On the contrary, he accepts his guilty practices as natural products of his character, for which he (the Wicked Partner) is no more responsible than for his complexion.

In the last Presidential canvass both candidates appear to have had Wicked Partners. Mr. Tilden was foolish enough to retain his in his house and keep in active intercourse with them, which was the more unfortunate as his own reputation as a Good Man did not stand high. Mr. Hayes, on the contrary, was lucky enough to have had his established in the Departments at Washington at a considerable distance from him, and they were men who had nothing to learn from him in the arts of circumventing the enemy, even if he had been himself a master of intrigue. They had, too, in dealing with the Returning Boards, the immense advantage and prestige of official position, and they have, in the thoroughly effective manner in which they have concealed or destroyed all records of their negotiations, displayed a skill and efficiency to which Tilden's agents evidently can lay no claim. We ought to add that they are not boastful, however, about their virtue. We have watched closely of late to see whether any declaration would emanate from them testifying to the purity of their telegrams in the winter of 1876; but they are careful to produce nothing of the kind. What they say is, that nothing improper will be found in the telegrams which can be traced to Mr. Hayes's house or relatives, which is doubtless perfectly true. But we think it ought to be said for Tilden that if he could have had one of the Departments at Washington for his headquarters he would probably have kept Pelton and the other wicked young men down there, and thus have preserved the Gramercy Park atmosphere perfectly pure.

It is of course well to have Tilden's Partners found out, but what most concerns the American people in this matter is that everybody guilty of these practices in both parties should be found out. It is not enough to drive out of public life the Democrats who indulge in them; the Republicans, if such there be who do so, are just as dangerous, and for this reason it is to be hoped that thoughtful men will not allow the present exposure to serve no better purpose than that of a "campaign story," useful for the next election and then forgotten. Every man active in working on the Returning Boards two years ago ought to be asked for his correspondence. In other words, the cause of political purification calls for the production of the Republican telegrams as well as of those of the Democrats. We want to know, in short, not only whether Tilden's friends were guilty of fraud, or attempts at fraud, but whether they were beaten in a game of fraud by abler tricksters than themselves.

THE POSITION OF LEO XIII.

THE Pope's letter to Cardinal Nina, the new Secretary of State who has succeeded Cardinal Franchi, of which we spoke last week, and of which the full text has now reached this country, has excited some sensation in Europe by showing that Leo XIII. is, contrary to the general expectation, determined to keep up the old quarrel with Italy, so sedulously maintained by his predecessor, and this in conjunction with an apparently strong desire to live at peace with the rest of the world. The letter, after a tribute to Cardinal Franchi's memory, opens with the usual lamentation over the condition of modern society. It deplores "the decline of the truth, not only supernatural as shown by faith, but natural also, whether speculative or practical; the prevalence of fatal errors, and the grave dangers which threaten society because of the ever-increasing disorders which disturb it," and ascribes all this "ruin" to the "proclaimed separation and attempted apostasy of society from Christ and his Church." It declares, moreover, that the only true preventive of "this intellectual and moral decay" is to be found in the Church. This lamentation is now very familiar to all readers of Papal state papers. In the time of Pius IX. it was uttered in language so extravagant as to have the air of a dirge rather than of a description of a state of things, and from him, therefore, for many years before his death the world had ceased to expect anything in the nature of a practical suggestion of a remedy. But it was hoped that the present Pope, as a man of steadier temper than his predecessor, and as one who had lived in closer contact with modern society than Pius IX. had allowed himself to do after 1849, would, besides mourning over the degeneracy of the times and proclaiming the sufficiency of the Church as a regenerator of society, point out some new mode in which the influence of the Church could be brought to bear. Most Catholic divines of the Ultramontane School maintain that Europe underwent a great moral and religious deterioration after the Reformation, and that the process of decline was hastened by the French Revolution, and has continued steadily ever since, and that the world is now in a worse condition than it has been for one thousand years, and that the Church has afforded during all that period, and does now afford, the only means of saving society from total ruin. If this claim were made for any human institution, under the circumstances, it would be taken as tantamount to an admission that the institution had proved a failure; that is to say, if we maintained that monarchy, for example, was the only means by which civilization could be upheld, and at the same time admitted that civilization under monarchy was steadily declining, we should be rightfully accused of conceding that the support of civilization was hopeless, and monarchy had not fulfilled its mission. But this flaw in their sermons does not appear to be noticed by the Roman theologians. It may be that if modern society would go back into the Church it might be regenerated, but unwillingness to go back is a leading symptom of the disease of which it is perishing, and how to treat this the Pope never tells us in plain terms. In all the encyclicals there appears in the background a vague and shadowy suggestion that something might be done to meet the case by the governments of our day, but as the governments of the day are but expressions of the popular will, this, even if it be put in plainer terms, does nothing towards a solution of the problem. Granting that a vigorous use of the arm of flesh would extirpate error, both supernatural and natural, as long as the heretics are in possession of the arm of flesh the suggestion opens no way out of the difficulty. The problem which the Church has to solve is to get people once more to acknowledge her claims, in the form in which she puts them forward, to divine authority. How this is to be done no Pope nowadays tells us, or, indeed, pretends to know.

The sadness of the strain in which the Pope speaks of the condition of human society is made the more striking not only by the account he gives of the perfection of the instrument provided for its salvation, but by the contrast it presents to the cheerfulness with which the various Protestant sects dwell on their own achievements and prospects. At all their anniversaries and congresses not only is the most glowing account given of the work they have accomplished, but the brightest pictures are drawn of what they expect to accomplish within a very short period, and the fullest confidence is expressed in their ability to do for society whatever religious organizations can be expected to do. Yet anybody who is influenced by statistics must admit that, as compared with the progress made by the Roman Church in wealth and numbers and in area, they have nothing to boast of. No church is doing any better than the Church of Rome in increasing the number of its adherents and of its places of worship, and in adding to its revenues and its missions. The reason why the Popes are so much more despondent in their talk than the Protestants is, therefore, that they cannot bring themselves to accept the fact which has been staring them in the face ever since the Reformation, and which is now more patent than ever—the fact that, whatever the theory may be, Christendom and the Catholic Church are not synonymous terms. The Pope will have it that everybody is either a good Catholic or a bad one—that is, a person who belongs to the Church or has strayed away from it; and, looking at the world from this point of view, of course the spectacle it presents is most gloomy. If he would accept Protestantism and scepticism as he accepts disease and death—that is, as great evils, to be fought against but never wholly avoided—his encyclicals might be made veritable pæans, because he might every year chronicle undeniable successes.

The same unwillingness to accept the inevitable and recognize the actual is keeping him in hot water with Italy. There is probably nobody in the world not blinded by fanaticism who supposes that the temporal power will ever be restored. There is not a single reason, of those by which the course of human affairs can be forecast, for believing that the Pope will ever again reign at Rome as a prince of this world. Every force of our time fights against any such consummation. The very account which His Holiness himself gives of the origin and mission of the Church makes ludicrous the proposition which he maintains in the same breath—that this august, not to say awful, institution, by which alone mankind can be saved, cannot possibly work unless the Vicegerent of Christ is allowed to police the city of Rome; that, in spite of the tremendous nature of his functions, he cannot exercise them properly as long as the Protestants have "temples" and schools open near his residence. It is quite certain, however, that this curious contradiction, this almost childish attempt to live by two mutually destructive theories, cannot last much longer. The Pope, like everybody else, will have to accept the facts of life and base his policy on them. He will have to acknowledge that he can put up with "temples" in Rome, just as effectively as Cardinal McCloskey can put up with them in New York, and that the true mission of the Church is not to close Protestant places of worship, but to banish from men's hearts the desire of frequenting them. That he is making some progress in this direction is shown by the respectful terms in which Leo XIII., in the letter before us, speaks of the German Emperor, and the prospect of coming to an understanding with him about the position of the Church in his dominions. In fact, it would seem as if the Italian Government was the only one with which the Papacy was now unwilling to make friends. This last remnant of worldly animosity will probably disappear before very long under the pressure of coarse pecuniary necessity. The supply of "Peter's pence" is, according to all the late accounts, falling very low, and the Papal revenues will probably soon be wholly inadequate to the expenses. Doubtless before that point is reached a way will be found, consistent with the Church's traditions and dignity, to accept the magnificent annual allowance provided by the Italian Parliament, and which Pius IX. always refused to touch. In default of any better excuse, surely the desirableness of rescuing so much good money from profane hands and sinful uses would suffice.

THE HUNGARIAN "STRIKE."

PARIS, October 4, 1878.

THE satisfaction created by the Peace of Berlin has not been of very long duration, and a feeling of uneasiness has again entered the political world of Europe. There are black spots on our sky. We have in Europe the black spots of Bosnia and Hungary, and in Asia there is the black spot of Çabul. (This expression of "point noir" was used by M. Rouher after the victory of Sadowa, and has now become almost proverbial.)

The behavior of Count Andrássy during the late crisis in the East is very well explained when it is admitted that he had all along some sort of understanding with the German and Russian Chancellors. The part which was given to Austria was easy enough at first. Count Andrássy had to preserve a perfect neutrality and to damp the ardor of the Hungarians, who were inclined towards the cause of Turkey. This part has become more difficult since the peace was signed, as Austria has accepted, as a sort of public duty, the obligation to occupy militarily the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina. First of all, it is difficult to define the character of this occupation; is it to be really an occupation, or is it to be an annexation? If it is a mere occupation, what are its objects, and for what purpose will Austria spend large sums of money? If it is to be an annexation, at what time and under what pretext will the word annexation be pronounced? Turkey, which has all along followed a sort of suicidal policy, is making every possible objection to a military convention; but it may be that she is not alone adverse to such a convention, and that Count Andrássy is not unwilling to keep the hands of Austria as free as possible.

The definition of the occupation has so far remained absolutely vague, but the fact of the occupation itself has been very different from what was expected. The insurrections against Turkey began in Herzegovina; the match of Herzegovina set fire in succession to Servia, to Bulgaria; it was thought that Austria would enter Herzegovina and Bosnia without any difficulty. It has not been so; the Austrian army has gone through a real campaign. It must be remembered that the Bosniac landlords are the descendants of the only Christians who accepted the turban and renounced the Christian faith, three centuries ago, in order to preserve their possessions. These Bosniac chieftains, who live now very much in the same fashion as their fathers, are great fanatics, as most renegades always are. They have always oppressed the Christian Slavs who live in Bosnia. They were the ruling race, and they made a stout defence when the Austrian armies appeared. They were not supported by the Porte; they fought for their own independence, their own privileges, and their old supremacy. They are conquered: they could not resist a well-organized army; but Austria, having entered Bosnia by force, can well say that she holds it by right of conquest, and that she has a new title, better than an article of the Treaty of Berlin. It is obvious that the Austrian Government has not made enormous sacrifices in order to make a military promenade; the occupation of Bosnia is something different from an autumn manœuvre. So it is felt in Vienna, and so it is felt at Pesth. At the very moment when the Austrian army had achieved its success the Hungarians placed themselves, as it were, in a state of moral insurrection against the victory of the Empire; the Ministry has just resigned; the Minister of Finance says that Hungary can make no new sacrifices for the occupation of Bosnia. I doubt if ever a more extraordinary spectacle was presented to the world than this *strike* of Hungary. Here is an Empire divided into two parts, but with a central government; the central government enters upon a campaign, occupies a province, makes a conquest (to call things by their real name), and one part of the Empire rises and says: "We will not keep this conquest; we refuse our men, we refuse our money."

The defects of the dualistic system, invented after Sadowa, have never been as apparent as in this crisis; in fact, if the Hungarians are in earnest, the Empire of Austria is almost threatened with dissolution. The conduct of Hungary, if she refused her co-operation in what must be considered as an imperial question, is tantamount to secession. This conduct can hardly be judged severely enough, if you remember that the situation of Hungary is really a privileged one. The Magyars have an influence in Transleithania which is not in proportion to their numbers. They are the ruling race, but they cannot expect that Cisleithania, that German Austria, backed by the huge body of Germany, will give way to them as easily as the Croats, the Dalmatians, and others. The real tie, the only tie of unity in Austria, is the dynasty, which has a very strong hold on all the races and populations of the Empire. In any question on which the Emperor can make a direct and distinct appeal to the people he will carry the majority with him. If Francis Joseph denounces the Magyars in the name of the army, as those who would rob the army of its victory and render its sacrifices worthless, he will carry with him the greatest number of his subjects; and no question of parliamentary government, of ministerial responsibility, will stay long between him and the people. Hungary has just had a general election, and it is undeniable that the present cabinet, which has just resigned, had the majority in the House. But why did it resign? Was it in order to obey the dictates of the popular meetings at Pesth—meetings at which the Socialists and Internationalists appeared, and on whose platform could be seen a Frankel, a member of the Commune of Paris?

Notwithstanding the great agitation in Hungary, there is much hope that the general policy of the Austrian Empire will not be materially affected by its consequences, and that Austria will be allowed to play to the end the important part which was marked out for her by the will of Europe. If Panslavism, the bugbear of Europe, is not to overrun completely the ancient provinces of Turkey, if its influence can be neutralized in Bohemia, in Croatia, in Dalmatia, it will be and it can only be by the formation of a strong Slavic party in the Austrian Empire; it will, after all, be better for the Slavic Bosnians to live under the mild and constitutional government of Austria than under the absolute rule of a Pasha. The Congress of Berlin has effected a sort of division of the Slavic populations of Turkey, leaving some of them under the influence of Russia and some others under the influence of Austria. There is little doubt that Prince Bismarck felt the necessity of giving some occupation to the Austrian Empire, pressed as it is now on all sides by the northern Empire. Austria cannot extend or expand herself in any other direction but the peninsula of the Balkans, and it is necessary for every great country to have a natural field of expansion.

The difficulties in the final settlement of such arduous questions are not in the diplomats nor in the dynasties, but in the popular passions constantly fed by a sensational and irresponsible press. Notwithstanding all that has been said, I believe that the three Chancellors of Germany, of Austria, and of Russia have made constant efforts to help each other; the three Imperial dynasties have forgotten past injuries, and are sincerely anxious to preserve friendly relations. The leaders of the three empires, the *shepherds of men*, as Homer said, understand that the smaller questions of politics are getting lost in some new and terrible social problems; Nobiling echoes the Nihilists, the German Socialists take Vera Zassulitch into their ranks. There is a new and vast league formed with unknown oaths and secret rules, an organization destructive of all nationality, equally hostile to church and state. The sovereigns feel that they are on a soil which might at any moment be shaken by an earthquake. It is natural that the instinct of self-preservation should draw all governments together; that the great organized forces, the armies, should not waste their strength in useless wars; that diplomacy should try to make such settlement of the pending questions as would give breathing-time to all the governments. The Treaty of Berlin was a great effort in the right direction; its execution will be found difficult even in Europe, but if the three empires remain united in a common desire for peace, these difficulties will not be found insurmountable. The Hungarian question is very ominous, but if the central Government of Vienna is firm, the Hungarians will not be so foolish as to recommence the events of 1848. There is a victorious army in Bosnia all ready to re-establish order at Pesth if necessary; there is no chance of any alliance for an independent Hungary. A rash behavior would deprive the Magyars of all the advantages which they have been allowed to enjoy since Sadowa. The Magyars are very excitable and ardent, but they are shrewd, and they will in all probability not continue long their present strike.

We have, alas! another *point noir* on the confines of the Indian Empire. The Afghanistan affair, coming after the Eastern war, is like one of those shots that are heard after the battle is ended. The Amir of Cabul comes too late on the field; he is found exceedingly inconvenient, and may prove more so in the future. At the first announcement of his rude answer to Sir Neville Chamberlain it was thought that Russia and England would come to blows; on second thought, Russia has not been made, at least directly, responsible for the conduct of the Amir. There is an evident desire to "localize" the question of Afghanistan and to reduce it to the smallest possible proportions. It is to be a question between Shir Ali and Lord Lytton, the vice-emperor of India. The winter will be spent in military arrangements, and a new Afghanistan war may begin next spring. The war of 1839 did not end so well that there should not be some uneasiness felt about the result of a campaign in that country; but the Indian Government has now means which it did not have in 1839, and if the war is made in earnest Shir Ali has not the slightest chance of resisting successfully the advance of English troops. He will probably try not to be brought to the extremity of war, and the Indian Government will do well to make a reconciliation easy. After all, the mission of Sir Neville Chamberlain was a very extraordinary one; a thousand men were too many for a diplomatic mission and too few for an army. If the Amir is not encouraged by Russia, he will certainly come to an understanding with the Indian Government; and why should Russia intrigue against England in Afghanistan? It was conceivable before the Treaty of Berlin was signed; now Russia's plain policy is to stand by the Treaty and to wait quietly till England has accomplished all she has undertaken to do in Asia.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—XII.

SPECIAL EXPOSITION OF THE CITY OF PARIS.

OCTOBER 5, 1878.

THE interesting building too briefly described in the second of these letters (the *Nation* for August 22), and which stands in the very centre of the immense building of the Champ-de-Mars, is entirely devoted to the exposition of Paris itself and of the "Department of the Seine" conterminous with the city. Not of the private industries and private interests which have their being within the city limits—it is the city and the Department in their own corporate entity that fill this building two hundred and fifty feet long; fill it full, too, so that when the afternoon visitors have arrived it is as crowded a place, and as disagreeable to get about, as any in the Exhibition. What fills it, then? Well, Paris is "run" on a different system from an American city, and each department of the government and administration is so organized and systematized, so proud of what it has to show, and with so much to show, that they could have filled still more space if they had had it. As it is, the display flows over, out of doors, fills the long open galleries fronting on the Rue de France and the Rue des Nations, and dots the little parks at the ends of the building with the larger groups of statuary in bronze.

Of the statuary alone there are seventy numbers in the special catalogue; and a majority of the statues and groups are of large size, naturally, as being ordered or purchased for the exteriors of public buildings or for the adornment of public places. Two or three are ancient works—that is, not of this generation; such are two statues of Strength and Hope from the ancient Gate St. Antoine, where the Bastille stood and the gate together until 1789; these are the work of Simon Guillain, who died in 1686. More recent are several of the portrait statues of former prefects of the Seine, taken down, since the conflagration of 1871, from the old Hôtel de Ville, scarred and defaced by fire and by water. But the greater number are by the sculptors who are now at work, the men named in the third and fourth of these letters and those who have not yet been named. M. Albert Lefeuvre has a St. Paul destined to form part of the church of Clamart, near Paris; M. Falguière has two angels belonging to the choir of St. Francis Xavier; M. Mercié's "Gloria Victis" has been described in a former letter. The famous sculptor, H. M. A. Chapu, is represented here by the monument to the great advocate and liberal, Berryer, and by three statues besides. What is good in his work and what is not so good is made manifest in this collection, and it would be adequate as an exhibition of his art were it not for the Schneider-Creuzot monument in another part of the grounds, which is perhaps the best thing of his that one can find anywhere. Of that hereafter; of the Berryer monument it must be said that it fails to charm—fails to give pleasure. It is "magistral," dignified, imposing in mass; the group of the orator on his pedestal between Eloquence and Fidelity, all three colossal and with a considerable substructure of architectural character, intended to be set up in the new "Salle des Pas Perdus" of the Palace of Justice, cannot be called unworthy of the place and the occasion; and the statues are not noticeably poor, not weak, not affected in gesture and pose nor feeble in modelling, but yet the whole is cold and gives no delight. The exact character of M. Chapu's work, the reasons for its general acceptance by the French and the fame of its author, while it seems to the student from abroad so cold and repellant, must be discussed at another time, if at all, for Paris sends other things than sculpture to this Exposition. M. Damé's very lovely "Fugit Amor" must be named; this is a bronze group of life-size, the winged Love just rising into the air and about to quit the girl whose lingering caress tries to detain the god. And besides the larger sculptures there is a certain small display of commemorative medals of which mention should be made; but it is better that these be compared with the much larger collection in the alcoves of French coinage and gem and medal sculpture, for no record of the Exhibition of 1878 will be complete that does not include a fit description of that manifestation of art.

The City of Paris has some pictures to show as well, many, perhaps most, of them religious in subject and in destination—the adornments of churches in bygone times, or intended for those whose ceilings and walls yet lack their painted splendors. There is a large Le Sueur from St. Étienne-du-Mont, and a Le Nain still larger brought from the same church; of more recent artists' work there is a very interesting cartoon for glass by Hippolyte Flandrin, a picture of Delacroix, and a very large and famous Delaroche, "Les Vainqueurs de la Bastille," ordered for the old Hôtel de Ville, but never, fortunately, delivered and put up there. Fifty pictures are "ancient" in the sense of being the work of men not of the present day. A hundred and twenty-five more are by living artists, and most of these latter seem to be men who make it rather a specialty to paint deeds of saints for churches or allegories of marriage for new *mairies*. There is an official school of painting, as may well be supposed. But, indeed, the more able and independent men may prefer to send their works to the general galleries without; thus the biggest piece of church-painting in the exhibition is Cabanel's "Life of St. Louis" for the Pantheon (Ste. Geneviève), and this is in the general collection of French painting. The canvases which are grouped in the Paris Pavilion are not, taken together, of the first order for artistic merit or for immediate interest to the beholder; they have a perfunctory look; yet one dreads to be unjust in estimating them without their destined future surroundings.

There are five or six score line engravings and etchings, none of which are of great individual importance. These and a large number of photo-

graphs in revolving cases are chiefly taken from paintings belonging to civic buildings. What becomes of the editions printed of them, over and above the few given to strangers of distinction and to different museums and libraries about France? Are they sold, like the publications of the Chalcographie du Louvre? They don't look tempting; one etching by M. Teysonnière is the only print that strikes one, and the photographs lose what small value the original paintings (official, and of the second rank) may perhaps have possessed.

But the "Service des Travaux Historiques," under the charge of M. Tisserand as inspector and M. Vacquer as architect, is a delightful thing to one in whom the historical spirit is at all active. Here is first a collection of the books, published or publishing, relating to old Paris, its topography, its antiquities, its ancient libraries, its early historians. Next, mounted on huge stretchers, come specimen plates of the General History of Paris, of which only the introductory volume has yet been published—splendid plates of buildings long destroyed, copied from contemporary documents, or reproduced from illuminations in manuscripts; then the different ancient plans of Paris which still exist—from the "Tapisserie," in a photograph of the precious original burned in 1871, to the great Atlas of Verniquet issued in 1790; then measured plans of Gaulish and Roman foundations uncovered of late in Paris, and of relics of Gothic buildings long hidden beneath and within later structures; and, finally, specimens of another unfinished work, the 'General Inventory of the Art-Riches of Paris.' With these results of investigation must be compared the raw material itself in half a dozen large show-cases: ancient pottery of several epochs and styles, arms, coins, and splendid Roman and Gallo-Roman glass—a little museum of the classical antiquity of Lutetia Parisiorum. This, altogether, is a most interesting corner.

With all this archæology and research contrast the labors of the architects of to-day. Paris is rebuilding her ruined palaces one by one, and not the less for that is she adorning herself with theatres, civic buildings, new fronts on new boulevards, and new churches to replace old and inferior buildings. The Hôtel de Ville, burned by the social reformers of 1871, is to be rebuilt; in fact, there is a forest of scaffold-poles already stretching from the Rue de Rivoli to the quay. MM. Ballu and Deperthes are charged with the work, and it is to be pushed on to completion. In this Exhibition are the drawings for the new edifice, a nearly complete set—photographs of the old building in its perfect state and in ruins—and an enormous model in plaster of the proposed new structure. There are many more of these elaborate models of new or proposed buildings; let this one be described briefly, as being the most important of all. It is on the scale of two centimetres per metre, which, American architects will observe, is almost exactly the same as their favorite scale of quarter of an inch to a foot. It is very elaborate and careful, the sculptured ornaments and the life-size and colossal statues of the front very delicately and skilfully modelled in miniature, and all the surroundings, such as the lamp-posts and brackets, the metal gates and "grilles," the garden-seats within the enclosure, and the weathercocks on the roof, are complete and daintily finished in appropriate material. In such cases as this the French have the strange habit of employing a competent sculptor—somebody of repute and ambition. M. Villeminot is the artist in this instance—a sculptor who has received the cross of the Legion of Honor, though perhaps not for his art, as he does not appear on the list in the Salon Catalogue. It is not to be supposed that this minute finish and elaborate workmanship are thrown away. The delicacy of the architectural and sculptured detail has the obvious advantage of enabling architects and committees of direction to judge their work beforehand, in its parts as well as its *ensemble;* and as for the apparently childish accessories of toy lamp-posts and settles, they are of value as helping to fix the scale of the monument and to produce on the spectator, after a few moments' contemplation, an illusion which may greatly help him to judge the design aright. This design—how the lover of old Paris rejoices to see that the old central edifice, the Hôtel de Ville of Henri II. and Henri IV., is to be reproduced! In the instructions to competing architects this was not insisted on, and we feared that the picturesque old front would never be seen again in stone and lime. But it is to be; and the Paris architects can be trusted to reproduce such a monument with great fidelity, when that is the programme.

There is an immense collection of architectural exhibits, models, drawings, engravings and books of engravings, photographs and books of photographs, the civic and ecclesiastical work in and about Paris for the past ten years. There are about a hundred numbers, representing perhaps three times as many objects and the work of forty different architects; and not included in the above estimate there are a variety of models of school interiors, with furniture and fittings complete.

The great department called "Service de la Voie Publique"—Street Department, in short—which includes within itself a number of "services" which have little in common with the streets, and some refinements which would rather astonish a New York Street Commissioner—this department makes a wonderful show of itself, its structures, machines, discipline, and organization. Here are models on an enormous scale of the sewers of different sizes and kinds, the models in this case built of the actual materials used in the actual way, with the railways and working models of the little cars used in them and of the boats which float in the largest sewers. The system, now thoroughly carried out in all its details, by which all the sewage of Paris is carried to the Seine at Clichy, far below the city, below even the Bois de Boulogne, so that you can swim in the river anywhere, ride your horses into it, or fish in it with the chance of catching something—this great network of sewers, so accessible and traversable that rumor ascribes to the late Emperor and his "pals" the intention of using them as military roads in the case of popular dissatisfaction—all this is made so clear to the student that he can escape the regulation journey through them, if he will. Here are immense plans of the water-supply of Paris, as it was anciently at different epochs, and as it is now, together with large-scale drawings of new aqueduct buildings and models of some of the more important. Models of the two or three newest bridges over the Seine are also to be seen; of which bridges the very latest built is the little "Pont de Passy" just below the Exhibition grounds—a foot-bridge made necessary by the taking into the enclosure of the Pont de Jéna, but which will remain as an added convenience.

Enormous plans, plans in relief and bird's-eye views of different cemeteries and parks, of the Bois de Boulogne and the Bois de Vincennes, hang under the shelter of the outside verandas. Specimens of every sort of paving and flagging, roadways and sidewalks, with elaborate tables setting forth the results of wear on each one of them; plans of street railways, with models of rails and cars (though there's nothing to show why the cars can't stop, as those of Yankee street railroads do, to receive and set down passengers, nor why the public should be bullied as it is by drivers and conductors, and made miserable by the tooting of cacophonous tin horns); drawings and models of all the different kinds of kiosk and illuminated pavilion used along the boulevards and wider streets, and, finally, plans, views, statistics, and specimens of the establishments of horticulture and arboriculture—all go to make up such a museum of city life as the round world cannot match elsewhere. And the crowning feature, in popular estimation, is the huge model of "the meeting of two ways, a boulevard and a wide street, with the sidewalks, water-hydrants, and sewer-culverts, the paving, rails of tramway, grass-plots and trees, seats, system of lighting, office of cabs, advertising column [illuminated from within], urinoir, and kiosk of newsvender." This affair shows a piece cut right out of Paris and seen through a diminishing-glass. Here are the houses, split right down through floors and roof, showing how water and gas are laid on and how sewage is carried off; under the street-level yawn the open sewers, and the water and gas mains are there, supported by posts within the sewers or bedded in the soil; there, too, is the ingenious system by which parts of each house can be entered from the sewers through an iron grate used only for that service, and the clever invention which prevents the flooding of cellars in the worst cases of "set-back." The thing is complete, even to the gas-meter of each house, in a handy place for consultation, and the waste-pipe from every bath-tub, traceable from bath-room to drain-pipe under ground.

R. S.

IN SCOTLAND.—II.

Edinburgh, September 30, 1878.

THERE are two things in England in regard to which I think it safe to say that a stranger, however familiar he may become with English life, remains always a stranger—always uninitiated, profane, and even more or less indifferent. One of these matters is—with all respect be it written—the internal dissensions and perplexities of the Anglican Church. This remarkable body strikes the pure outsider so much more as a social than as a religious institution that he feels inclined to say to himself that these are purely local and national mysteries, and that, so far as he is concerned, they may be left to take care of themselves. The other point is the great British passion for sport—the deepest and most general of all British passions. This, in England, is the touch of nature that makes the whole world kin. A person from another country may have a lively

enjoyment of riding, shooting, rowing; but in face of the tremendous cohesiveness of the sporting interest in England he feels that to care for such things as these people do, one must be to the manner born. It will seem to him at times that they care too much, and he will, perhaps, embark upon that interesting line of enquiry, at what particular point the love of physical exercise becomes stultifying. It behooves him to remember, however, that there is one particular way in which the sporting interest in England is humanizing. It is the subject on which the greatest number of Englishmen, at a given moment, can feel together; it is the thing which, as M. Thiers said of the French Republic, divides them least. It serves as a bond of union, as a patch of common ground, in a country extraordinarily cut up by social distinctions; it introduces the leaven of democracy into the most aristocratically constituted society in the world. On the receipt of the latest intelligence from Newmarket a "cad" may feel very much like a lord; I won't, indeed, go so far as to say that a lord may feel like a cad.

What I intended especially to say was that a fortnight spent in Scotland is to the alien mind a kind of revelation of the part allotted to physical recreation in a well-arranged English life. It is very true that I am unable to add that in this particular case the democratic bearings of the fact are noticeable. Scotland, for the late summer and autumn, becomes an immense "shooting." It is excellently arranged for the purpose, and its purple moors and heathery hillsides resolve themselves into the last luxury of a supremely luxurious class. This is the real identity of the various elements of the beautiful Scottish scenery. The uninitiated eye sees nothing but a lovely purple mountain or a blushing moor, adorned with the advantages of aerial perspective. But in its essential and individual character such a piece of landscape is Mr. So-and-So's deer-forest (a deer-forest by no means implies trees) or Lord Such-a-One's provision of grouse. There is something very singular in the part played by Scotland nowadays—the small number of proprietors of the territory, the immense extent of the estates, and the fact that these exist almost wholly for purposes of recreation. I spoke the other day of a Scotchman's just grounds for national pride; but it is fair to add that just here this tendency might perhaps encounter an obstacle. It seems to me that if I were a fervid Caledonian I should find something irritating, and even mortifying, in the sight of my beautiful little country parcelled out, on so immense a scale, into playgrounds for English millionaires. Was it for this that my ancestors bled with Wallace or flocked about Bruce? Doubtless, however, this is an idle line of speculation, for the moors and hillsides are apparently better for playgrounds than for anything else, and if the Sassenach has money to pay for them it is hard to see how he is to be prevented. In the south of Scotland (in Dumfriesshire) a friend with whom I was walking led me up to a hilltop and showed me a remarkable view. The country seemed of immense extent—it consisted of innumerable grassy sheepdowns—and the blue horizon looked ever so far away. The afternoon light was slanting over the long undulations and dying away in the distance; the whole region looked like a little kingdom. "It's all the Duke's," said my friend—"this, twenty miles away, and ever so much besides." In every Scotch or English county there is a personage known as "the Duke" *par excellence*. This fortunate mortal, in the present case, was the Duke of Buccleuch, upon whose remarkable merits as a landlord my companion proceeded to expatiate. What I saw of the Duke's kingdom seemed an admirable grazing country; but elsewhere my observation was confined to picturesque expanses of rock-scattered heath. Even if they were keeping a superior sort of exploitation at bay, it would be hard, from their own point of view, to blame the deer-stalking and grouse-shooting gentry. I speak not even from the point of view of a sportsman, but simply from that of an unarmed promenader stepping across the elastic heather on a brilliant September morning. On such an occasion the admirable freshness of the Scotch air, the glory of the light and color, the absence from the landscape of economical suggestions, appear to be equal parts of one's entertainment.

This absence of economical suggestions does not in the least mean, however, that the happy residents on a Scotch moor are obliged to rough it. The English, who arrange their lives everywhere so well, arrange them nowhere better than in Scotland. It is indeed, in many cases, simply Mayfair among the heather. From the point of view of a purely Wordsworthian love of nature, a shooting-lodge with ball-room may appear an anomaly; but I encountered this phenomenon in the midst of a Scotch deer-forest. The ball-room, too, was in full operation, and the national dance—the Highland reel—in course of performance. The ladies and gentlemen engaged in this choregraphic revel were by no means all, or even preponderantly, native—a fact which may account for the vivacity of their movements, inasmuch as we know that proselytes are always more violent than the natural heirs of a tradition. Apart, however, from its suggesting that the Highland kilt is an odd sort of garment for ceremonial purposes and the sanctity of the English after-dinner period, the Scotch reel, with its leapings and hootings, its liftings of the leg and brandishings of the arm, is a very pretty country-house frolic. A stranger, looking for local color in everything, finds a great deal of it here; and he pays a compliment, moreover, to the muscular resources and good spirits of those young Englishmen who can dance till three o'clock in the morning after tramping over the moors all day with a gun. Like a good many other things, the reel has doubtless suffered by the conversion of the Highlanders into an adjunct of Piccadilly. Among the things that have suffered, I believe, are the old Highland sports, from which it was intimated to me that the good faith and the ancient cunning had departed. Though it was further intimated to me that one must be a deplorable cockney to be still taken in by them, I ventured to find a great deal of entertainment in what I saw of them. There was certainly one occasion with which it was impossible not to be charmed, including as it did a capital collation under a graceful marquee, not at all crowded, on the edge of a great green meadow that was circled about with hills. Through the front of the tent, largely looped up, one saw the bright-colored little crowd sitting about on the grass, and in the midst, on a platform, a series of Highlanders, one by one, with their great tartans flying, jumping about in the figures of the sword-dance. And then there were leaping and tugging and hurdle-racing and a little tournament of bag-pipes. The lively drone of this instrument came in from the distance with the summer breeze; far away, as an undertone to agreeable talk, it was not unpleasant. I was annoyed at being told the Highlanders were "cads"; and indeed, on a nearer view, they had a rather jaded and histrionic look. But if the play was a comedy, it was a very successful one.

There are some other old Scottish institutions which have retained their vitality and are apparently in very good repair. The Caledonian "Sawbath," I believe, still flourishes, and I am told that in Edinburgh and Aberdeen it may be observed in high perfection. I had a glimpse of it only in the country, where it was mitigated by the charming scenery, which remained persistently and profanely bright. But it was very ugly; it was grotesquely ugly. There was a horrible little kirk on a windy hillside, equally naked without and within—except, indeed, as regards such internal warmth as was supplied by the deportment of a rustic congregation listening in almost voracious silence and immobility to a doctrine addressed to violent theological appetites. My host had recommended me to attend this service (which was an excellent example of grim Presbyterianism) for local color's sake; and certainly the little exhibition was very complete. The strange compound produced in the sermon by the profusion of Jewish names and of Scotch accents; the air of doctrinal vigilance on the part of the cautious, dry-faced auditory; the crude, nasal singing; the rapid dispersal afterwards, over the stony hillsides to their rugged little cottages, of a congregation for which this occasion represented the imaginative side of life, as if the native granite had given it out and had immediately reabsorbed it—all this had at least a character of its own.

Old Scotland survives, however, fortunately, in more graceful forms than this. There is one advantage which European life will long have over American—the opportunity that it affords for going to picnic in the shadow of ancient castles. Given one of those Franco-Scottish fortified dwellings which sprang up so thickly under the influence of that long union between Scotland and France which was produced by their having an enemy in common; given, moreover, one of those admirable English lunch-hampers which, as it exposes its ingenious receptacles to view, the passing stranger pauses to admire in the shop-windows of Piccadilly; given in connection with this instrument a British butler's punctual performance of familiar duties; given, finally, a stretch of greensward, a group of bushes, a peeping above them of grey old towers and battlements, a charming company, and you have the elements of one of the most agreeable episodes of a sojourn beyond the Tweed. Some of the old foreign-looking Scotch castles are admirable; there are very few of them that would not seem very much more in their proper place in France or Germany than in Scotland. The Scotch nobility, before the son of Mary Stuart came to the English throne, must have been intensely Gallicized; the taste for French forms is visible in every detail of their domestic architecture. The old *poivrière*—the "pepper-pot" turret—is almost universal, and the very material of the edifice is Continental. In England

it is a very rare thing to find an old manor-house covered with stucco or untimbered plaster; it is almost invariably of honest brick or stone. There is plenty of stucco in English street-architecture, but our own ingenious period must have the credit of it. In Scotland it abounds on the tall sides of the old domiciliary fortresses. One of these interesting monuments struck me as more than French—it was absolutely Italian. On its roof, in the midst of its gables and turrets, it had a couple of balustraded loggias, such as you see in very old Italian villas; and the resemblance was carried out by the large, windowless expanses of grey, rugged, sun-baked plaster on the walls. There is something decidedly Continental, too, in the older portions of the Scotch towns. I except the granitic Aberdeen and the industrial Glasgow; but nothing is less recognizably British than the high-piled, unconventional Edinburgh. The other evening, at Stirling, taking a stroll at hazard, I encountered a *porte-cochère*.

Correspondence.

THE RECENT POLITICAL REVOLUTION IN CANADA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It will only be fair to Canada to permit in your columns such brief review of some leading causes of the recent "political revolution" as will demonstrate the unsoundness of certain opinions in the letter of Mr. Goldwin Smith (*Nation*, No. 692), and the unsoundness of the conclusion that the Canadians are so much the nearer to annexation, or to a commercial union with the United States that would necessarily in its tariff arrangements be antagonistic to our trade with Great Britain.

Undoubtedly the great issue, the "burning question," was Protection *vs.* Revenue Tariff; whether the tariff should be based on revenue requirements (affording such incidental protection to native industries as might be considered advisable), or whether the principle of Protection pure and simple should be engrafted thereupon and become the central idea. The Liberal administration took the stand that the present 17½ per cent. tariff (on the leading lines of manufactured goods—it is less on grain and other produce) afforded, in the main, adequate protection, with distance, freights, and other charges taken into account, and that any considerable increase would diminish or destroy revenue, and oppress the large consuming class while enriching a few capitalists.

The Tories, on the other hand, advocated an increase in the tariff, or a "readjustment," or a "reciprocity of tariffs" with the United States. Their leader, Sir John A. Macdonald, with prominent members of his party, addressed public meetings or "political picnic parties" in various parts of the country during the past three summers, and the burden of their appeals and arguments on these occasions was "Canada for the Canadians"; "the United States should be dealt with as they deal with us"; "we will do to you [the Americans] as you do to us"; and the changes were rung upon the injustice done to Canada by the American tariff. The leading articles of the two tariffs were presented side by side in the Tory newspapers, and the Canadian artisan, mechanic, and farmer were asked if it was fair to let Americans impose on Canadian productions duties ranging from 30 to 85 per cent., while we allowed the Yankees to come in "by paying" from 5 to 17½ per cent. This appeal to selfish and natural resentment, aided by the "hard times," told most effectively, and, all over the country, electors unthinkingly voted to hit back at the Yankees, regardless as to whether the operation would redound to their own injury. Sir John Macdonald repeated with much gusto Canning's rhyming despatch to The Hague:

> "In matters of commerce the fault of the Dutch
> Is giving too little and asking too much;
> With equal advantage the French are content,
> So we'll clap on Dutch bottoms just 20 per cent."

The "clapping on" in this case is to be transferred to "Yankees." On another occasion Sir John Macdonald said: "If we are going to make this a great country—what the United States have made theirs—*we must take a leaf out of their book*," as to their fiscal policy; and meeting then an objection and a difficulty to which Mr. Goldwin Smith alludes, Sir John further said, "It cannot be called a retaliatory or vindictive policy to adopt their tariff. . . . We will say to them, 'We will do to you as you do to us.'" It takes two to make a bargain, however, and the powerful interests which have large influence at Washington may take a different view. On other occasions Sir John promised, when he attained power, "substantial protection," and "a sufficient tariff for every interest." "Retaliation" or "reciprocity of tariffs" was a leading idea of the "National Policy," in order to prevent Americans "slaughtering" their manufactures in this country, and to keep out American produce; and as no one for a moment imagined the Americans would under compulsion readjust their tariff to suit our wants or our ideas, the Opposition mind was fixed on "retaliation," or, as the Tory leader put it at another picnic, "If the Americans will raise up a Chinese wall by which not a single article you (the Canadians) produce can go in untaxed, *we will raise a similar wall*." Columns could be given to establish this position, but for the present these brief quotations will suffice. It was in vain that the Liberal or Revenue-Tariff speakers and writers pointed out the economic unsoundness of this course, and the unwisdom of adopting the principle of "retaliation" on our neighbors, whom they, in common with a strong party in the Union, believed to have an unwise and unsound fiscal policy.

It was expected that these Protectionist and Retaliationist appeals and arguments might succeed in some manufacturing towns and cities, and at some places along the border influenced by unfair American coasting trade and wrecking regulations; but it was confidently believed that the farming communities would reject these "heresies." But to the surprise of the Tories themselves and to the astonishment of the Liberals it was in the rural districts that Protection-Retaliation received its warmest support. The question "Who pays the duty" was discussed *ad nauseam*, and the bulk of the farmers by their votes declared their belief that they paid the 15 cents per bushel American duty on barley, the 20 cents on wheat, the $26 on each $100 horse, and so on, while American produce came in free, or "paying" only a very light duty in comparison. The lumber trade is the largest producing interest of Canada, and farmers in the many extensive sections adjoining the lumbering districts were led to vote for Protection-Retaliation because the price of their oats and pork sold to the lumbermen would thereby be enhanced, regardless of the fact that protection would undoubtedly enhance the cost of producing lumber, while the spirit of retaliation this aroused on the other side might result in the placing on that same lumber of an additional American duty—say a dollar or two more per thousand. This addition might stop the Canadian lumber trade altogether, or it would undoubtedly handicap the Canadian lumberman in the American market to such an extent that he would have to retire from competition with Michigan and Maine. The probability of this additional duty being imposed was shown by the fact that a recent addition to the Canadian excise duty on malt was urged at Washington by American maltsters as a reason for an increase of the United States duty upon that article; and as a considerable quantity of Canadian malt is exported to the United States while scarcely any American malt is imported, we had the significant spectacle at the last Parliamentary session of our most ardent Protectionists and Retaliationists advocating the repeal of the excise duty so as to deprive American maltsters of the argument which they were effectively using at Washington. Much more might be written on this large subject, but enough has been said to show that if the new Government honestly carry out the fiscal policy they have advocated during the past three years, the results will be disastrous in a great variety of ways to Canada's best interests on general anti-protection grounds, while an attempt at "retaliation" must fail to drive the Americans into a "fair measure" of reciprocity. It will rather lead them to double certain duties mainly affecting Canadian productions, and to increase rather than diminish the restrictions upon trade between the two countries.

A commercial union is out of the question. No government proposing it could exist in Canada twenty-four hours. "A full and permanent measure of commercial union" would simply mean the adoption by Canada of the American tariff, to the destruction of our trade and the severance of our connection with the mother country. The attachment of the Canadians to the Empire is a marked national feature. This alone might not impel them to take a course which might be considered disadvantageous or improper in a material sense; but there is here a strong and active and deep patriotism, an abiding faith in the future of Canada, a conviction that our system of government is in no sense inferior and in many ways superior to yours; a firm determination that we can work out our own destiny, alone if need be, or for many years to come as a most important member of the Empire, that will prevent the leader of one party or another party carrying out a policy that would lead, under the sinister guise of "commercial union," to absorption in or annexation to the United States—"Canada for the Canadians" in a loftier sense than in Sir John Macdonald's appeal to national selfishness; in a sense that must command the approval and the best wishes of all Americans who are true liberals.

A most important factor in the recent "political revolution" was the "hard times" that have prevailed here as in other countries for the past

three years. Many voted for "protection" with the idea that it could not make matters much worse, and might secure "good times." Could the article in the *Nation* (No. 692) on "The Causes of Industrial Depression," already copied extensively in the Canadian press, have been read by every elector many ballots would have been differently marked. There were also many minor and local causes into which I need not here enter.

C. D. B.

LINDSAY, ONT., October 14, 1878.

[It should be remarked that Mr. Goldwin Smith did not allege that Canada was moving towards annexation, or that she was *consciously* moving towards closer commercial relations; but that if the policy pursued by statesmen on this side of the line were a friendly one, closer commercial relations would probably be the result.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

R. WORTHINGTON has nearly ready Mr. R. A. Proctor's 'Pleasant Ways in Science,' which treats a variety of topics, from sun-spots to the phonograph.——J. W. Bouton will shortly publish the 'Origin, Progress, and Destiny of the English Language and Literature,' by Dr. John A. Weisse; 'The Philosophy of Existence,' by Dr. E. O. Kelley; and 'The Rosicrucians: Their Rites and Mysteries,' by Hargrave Jennings.——S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, announce for next month 'Oratory and Orators,' by Wm. Mathews.——A new edition of President Porter's 'American Colleges and the American Public,' first published in 1870, has just been brought out by Charles Scribner's Sons, with an enlargement by six essays called "After-thoughts on College and School Education," and treating of preparatory schools, the class system in colleges, classical study and instruction, morals and manners of college and university life, the ideal American university, and co-education of the sexes. In the last the concessions made are noteworthy, though the conclusion is adverse——An important paper on the "Discovery of America by John Cabot," by Frederic Kidder, read by the author before the Maine Historical Society in 1874, has been printed in the October number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, and also privately. He concludes that Cabot's first land-fall was the eastern-most point of Cape Breton, and that he afterwards circumnavigated the island to the north, passed between Prince Edward's Island and the main, and steered for home through the straits of Belle Isle.——Gen. L. P. di Cesnola will deliver a course of four lectures on "Cyprus: its Ancient Arts and History," at Chickering Hall every Thursday evening of next month.——The *Geographical Magazine* for October (New York: John Wiley & Sons) has a timely article on Afghanistan, accompanied by a map sufficient for the reader of the day's news, though rather coarsely executed.——The six numbers of the *Magazine of Art* (Cassell, Petter & Galpin) that have thus far appeared fix its rank among similar publications as most popular and least pretentious; depending for its illustrations on such as can be printed in relief; aiming to record current events in its own sphere, and to furnish portraits and biographies of living artists, with specimens of their work; but of slight authority as a guide or critic for those not content with the attractions enumerated. ——The *Academy* announces that the Clarendon Press has found a competent editor to continue the revision of Bosworth's 'Anglo-Saxon Dictionary' from the letter G, at which point it was interrupted by the death of the author.——The prospectus of an unsectarian Protestant daily newspaper has been put forward at Nice. The conductor will be M. Eug. Réveillaud. The sanguine projectors hope to make it a paying enterprise, with a surplus for propagandism.——Recent publications on Molière embrace a reprint of the rare "Elomire Hypocondre," a contemporaneous comedy, full of the basest charges against the playwright whose name furnishes the anagram (Elomire=Molière). This reprint is preceded by a very interesting essay on the enemies of Molière, by M. Ch. L. Livet. One of these last, in the class of opponents of the stage in general, has been made the subject of M. Louis Veuillot's 'Molière and Bourdaloue,' in which, it is needless to say, the preacher gains by the comparison instituted. The same title has been adopted for a lively reply by M. Henri de Lapommeraye, who handles M. Veuillot without gloves. In the September number of *Polybiblion* is a sort of supplement to M. Paul Lacroix's 'Bibliographie Moliéresque,' by M. J. Bauquier. It is by no means exhaustive.

—The recent discovery of an original document relating to our Revolutionary War in an antiquarian bookstore in Baireuth appears to be of some importance. This document is the manuscript diary of one of the officers of the Hessian troops who served in the British army. It is a large folio volume, as we learn from a description of it in the *Allgemeine Militär-Zeitung* of Darmstadt, and embraces the period from January, 1778, to March, 1779. All that is known of its history is that it formerly belonged to Lieut.-Col. Max von Eelking, the author of 'Die deutschen Hülfstruppen im Nordamerikanischen Befreiungskriege 1776–1783' (The German Auxiliaries in the North American War of Independence), published in 1863. It is conjectured, since the author's name nowhere appears in the manuscript, to have been that referred to in Von Eelking's list of authorities for his work as the 'Diary of Capt. Friedrich von der Malsburg, of the regiment Von Ditfurth, from February, 1776, to November 16, 1780.' If this conjecture be correct, it is evident that a large part of the diary is still undiscovered. The extracts given in the *Militär-Zeitung* show the writer to have been a man of considerable intelligence and powers of observation. He kept a daily record not only of events but of the news and rumors of the day. As the Diary is understood to be for sale, we may hope that it will be secured for this country; and as the writer was stationed at Newport during the British occupation, some one of the wealthy summer residents of that city might gracefully acknowledge his indebtedness to the Redwood Library by presenting it with the MS.

—Mr. E. P. Whipple's "Recollections of Rufus Choate" is, the longer and shorter tales always excepted, much the most interesting paper in the November *Harper's*. It is a lenient judgment of the politician and the criminal lawyer, and a very pleasing characterization of the genius who has, after all, left nothing behind him but a certain number of witticisms, the tradition of his persuasive powers with a jury and of his triumphs in acquitting the guilty, and a couple of familiar quotations, of which the "glittering generalities" (of the Declaration of Independence) will be the last to perish. Mr. Whipple shows how Mr. Choate's admirable delivery carried him and his hearers safely through his proverbially involved and protracted sentences. No such aid was at hand for those who read his addresses, and his chirography (of which a facsimile is given) was as a medium of communication with the world at large about as intelligible as so much Arabic. Mr. Whipple does not exhaust the fund of anecdote which belongs to his subject. It was Choate who said, of an unpopular member of his profession, "Some men we hate for cause; others peremptorily." Mr. S. G. W. Benjamin's "Sea-Islands" is but a hasty glance at a portion of the romantic coast from Charleston to the St. John's River, but it is of some value as giving the latest impressions of moral and material progress in a region which certainly stood in need of it; and the illustrations are excellent. Good reading also is the illustrated article on the "New Sequoia Forests of California," by that ardent explorer, Mr. John Muir. He traces the belt of Sequoia growth from the Calaveras River on the north to the head waters of Deer Creek on the south, and his conclusions are encouraging. These are, that the species was never more extensively distributed on the Sierra in post-glacial times, that it is propagating itself naturally, that it flourishes in a dry soil (its roots collecting the moisture commonly associated with it), and, inferentially, that it can be protected and preserved against fire and wanton destruction. Fire, by the way, cannot make much impression on the outside of these trees, but it methodically bores out the interior. "All those far-famed hollow trunks into which horsemen may gallop, are hollowed, after falling, through the agency of fire." "The trunks frequently endure for centuries after they fall." All the upper portion of the general forest belt, including not only the Sequoia but the various pines of commanding size, grow, according to Mr. Muir, on "moraine soil, ground from the mountain flank by the ancient glaciers."

—The most striking feature in *Lippincott's* for November is the original illustrations; they are not only a novelty, or almost so, for this magazine, but they rank with the best in any of the monthlies. We are thinking particularly of those which accompany the opening paper on Long Island, "Seawanhaka, the Island of Shells." The literary merit of this paper, it must be admitted, is inferior to that of Mr. Ingersoll's, covering much the same ground, in a late *Harper's*. Mrs. Mary Treat's "Harvesting Ants of Florida" furnishes fresh proof of this lady's patience and ingenuity as a scientific observer, and of her capacity for describing in an entertaining manner what she has seen. One of her stories here is about the ants filling up a pond in which one of their number had narrowly escaped drowning. It was a small shell, containing a little water,

placed within reach for drinking purposes by Mrs. Treat herself. The luxury was enjoyed up to the time of the accident, when it was voted that a bog was as useful as a pond and not at all dangerous, and with dirt and apple-seeds the ants filled up the shell. Mr. Kennan's concluding paper on the "Unwritten Literature of the Caucasian Mountaineers" gives some more folk-lore specimens, and a number of characteristic songs which recall the Klephtic poetry evoked by Turkish oppression in Greece, as these by Russian conquest in Circassia. Mr. H. T. Finck's opinion of "Music in America" is not flattering, but we are far from saying that it is not just. His remarks on what he calls the "sheet-music nuisance," meaning the unlimited publication of those "flimsy productions" which may be "seen lying about freely on the pianos of people who would blush at the mere thought of having books of the same intellectual and æsthetic level lying on their parlor tables for general inspection and for the entertainment of guests"—these remarks are excellent; and so are those on our Anglo-Saxon preference for dance-music over all other forms, on the dearth of amateur string-quartettes, "those most intellectual and enjoyable of all musical clubs," on our shabby opera troupes, which "differ in no essential respect, except in being less sure of their parts, from travelling bands of negro minstrels," etc., etc. Mr. Finck is able to praise highly our concert programmes and performances, thanks largely to Mr. Theodore Thomas; and what has been done to teach singing in the public schools, especially in Boston, where, "thanks to the intelligent labors of Mr. Lowell Mason and Mr. Julius Eichberg, it is now possible, on occasion, to raise a chorus of five thousand well-trained juvenile voices."

—Dr. Osborne, the Paris correspondent of the Boston *Courier*, better known by his nom de plume of "Spiridion," contributes to the November number of *Scribner* an interesting paper on "A Modern Playwright—Eugène Scribe." Dr. Osborne, who has paid to the French dramatist the practical compliment of adapting "Une Chaine" to the American stage as "Crossing the Quicksands," here writes of him with undue emphasis and with some exaggeration and inaccuracy, but his paper is made interesting by its accumulation of characteristic anecdotes. Scribe's honesty and generosity, his liberal treatment of his literary partner, his share in reorganizing the Dramatic Authors' Society, the influence of his success on the French stage, his skill as a maker of opera-books, are all set forth. But the reaction visible in France of late toward Scribe, unduly decried during the closing years of his life, and the favor with which his work is regarded by both critics and public, is scarcely sufficiently indicated. The language and the characters of his plays are indeed already rococo, for Scribe was a maker of plays to suit the taste of the hour; but his profound knowledge of the science of the stage all who study the theatre cannot but admire. M. Dumas declares that if a writer should arise who knew man like Balzac and the stage like Scribe, he would be the greatest dramatist who ever lived. To this it may be replied that both Shakspere and Molière knew man as well as Balzac, and they knew the stage of their day as well as Scribe knew the stage of his; but the theatrical art, on its technical side, has grown greatly since their time, and Scribe is nowadays a far safer model for the dramatic aspirant than either Molière or Shakspere. It is his subordination of everything to the demands of stage success which makes most of Scribe's plays now seem wooden and lifeless. Dr. Osborne quotes, among many other entertaining anecdotes, his "Cut, cut—words blotted are never hissed." Apparently he did not cut enough out of his earlier plays, for the first half-dozen were a failure. Mr. Matthew Arnold has an anecdote in point. It is the dying joke of Heine, who, as breath was fast failing him, was asked if he could whistle (in French "siffler," meaning also "to hiss"), to which he replied with an effort, "No, not even a play of M. Scribe's."

—The Association for the Reform and Codification of the Laws of Nations at its recent meeting appointed, as we lately mentioned, a committee to report next year on a subject which has already produced a great deal of discussion in the press. The question referred to the committee, of which we understand Dr. Joseph P. Thompson to be the chairman, is, "By what right and under what conditions may an *aggressive* Power claim a war-indemnity in the event of conquest?" In moving this committee Dr. Thompson pointed out that the cost of modern warfare had given rise during the last century to enormous exactions. In the twelve years from 1796 to 1808 the indemnities exacted by Napoleon from the Italian States, the Netherlands, and Germany amounted to many milliards of francs. After the Franco-Prussian war of 1870 Prussia exacted five milliards from France. After the late Russo-Turkish war Russia was allowed by the Congress of Berlin to indemnify herself by a large accession of territory, including a port which Russia had not captured and whose inhabitants protested against the transfer. Besides this Russia demanded an enormous pecuniary indemnity, a requisition which now seems to rest in a sort of diplomatic limbo, possibly to make its appearance hereafter as a pretext for war. It should not be forgotten, either, that in the Franco-German war the practice of requisitions on cities by the invading army was carried to great lengths. It is obvious that the right to indemnity, if it exists, is liable to great abuses, and Dr. Thompson suggests that the right may serve as the motive of a war of spoliation. That is, a government may wage war simply for the purpose of getting the indemnity. He quotes Bluntschli as maintaining that pecuniary exactions of an invading power within the enemy's territory are relics of barbarisms: such exactions were formerly justified by the consideration that by paying them communities escaped from pillage; but civilized warfare does not admit of pillage, and therefore the practice has no ground for existence. In this we think Bluntschli is mistaken. Civilized warfare undoubtedly does not admit of sack, but "living on the country," which is clearly recognized as permissible everywhere, is nothing but pillage; and it seems to us that requisitions as a substitute for it are a distinct change in the interest of civilization and progress. And apart from all question of "living on the country," we can hardly imagine the most civilized people, which contemplates the possibility of ever being engaged in war, abandoning a right more disagreeable still in its effects—that of laying waste an enemy's country which could be reduced in no other way (as in case of an obstinate guerilla warfare), by a general destruction of property.

—All this, however, is beside the main question proposed by Dr. Thompson, relating to war-indemnity (pecuniary exactions as the condition of peace). He thinks that a remedy for the abuses to which this right may lead is to be found in arbitration. To obviate the objection that arbitrators have no power to enforce their decision, he would have treaties pledging their signers to mediation or to "concert of moral action" held inviolable, and the attempt to set aside such treaties by other than the "rational and moral" methods prescribed in it followed "by a threat of war on the part of the other signatories against the offender." Thus "arbitration would be backed by power." He cites the Congress of Berlin as an instance of "arbitration backed by power," an illustration which hardly helps his argument. The difficulty in getting countries to adopt such treaties as Dr. Thompson proposes is that, in so far as they are not binding they are useless, and in so far as they are binding, they reduce each single state to the position of a member of a confederacy. It is difficult to imagine any state in Europe, for instance, willing to leave it to the decision of any one, two, three, or four other states to say whether she had been waging an "aggressive" war or not. This is a point as to which the two belligerents always differ, and the public at large generally takes sides in the matter in accordance with its sympathies, and this must always be so, because no two nations ever get to the point of fighting without both sides having found some principle at stake which they are ready to die for. Of course it is unfair to decide the question of "aggression" by the mere declaration of war. One side may have been forced into declaring war by the acts of the other, and in this case the latter is really the aggressor.

—The revival of the discussion as to the relative value of German and Latin derivatives recalls to mind the theory, as to the different turn taken by the German and by the English mind, advanced by Dr. Th. Heinrich Weisse in his German Grammar:

"Every one," he says, "is acquainted with the difference in the formation of the English and German languages, the one being composed of scraps of various tongues, the other having grown regularly and unmixed upon its native soil. Those who praise the German language on this ground often fail to consider how much strength and beauty English has acquired through its gradual absorption of various elements. To most people, moreover, the real difference is unknown. This consists in the different effect which the two languages respectively produce upon the development of those who learn them as the mother-tongue. Whoever wishes to realize this should observe the children of the two nations when spelling. With the alphabet the German child has learned certain unvarying sounds and, with this, reading itself; while the English child has taken only the first little step on a path of infinite toil. Of what in English is called 'spelling' we Germans have no idea, because with us there may be several signs for the same sound, but never different sounds for the same character. While this accustoms the English child to great efforts of memory, and to patient submission to and faith in that which cannot be explained to him; and while this exercise costs him many of those hours which the German child is able to give to the free play of his imagination and to intelligent contemplation, this is by no means all. To

the obstacles in the way of enormously difficult and complicated orthography, which the English boy has to overcome, must now be added the still greater difficulty of the derivation of his words from the various languages, without a knowledge of which he is, as it were, a stranger in his own house. Here, also, the one is called upon to exercise his memory, the other to develop his mind by easy inferences (*seinen Geist in leichten Schlüssen entwickeln*). This is evident from the following examples: *Weg*, way; *bewegen*, to move; *Bewegung*, motion; *beweglich*, movable, agile. . . . This also explains the fact that the education of German children is finished, on an average, two or three years before that of English. Whoever hears a school-boy parse Shakspere or Milton will, undoubtedly, be filled with admiration; and he will not deny that a world of ideas is won at the same time as the special knowledge rendered necessary by the character of the language (*Sprachmaterial*)."

—Theologians have always found it difficult to account for the mosquito in a moral universe, but it appears that their perplexity has only begun. It has been discovered that various forms of elephantoid disease, perhaps even leprosy, are due to a thread-like parasite in the blood, the *filaria sanguinis hominis*. The ovum of this interesting animalcule is swallowed in the water drunk by the human being, and is hatched in the intestines, and the tiny worm travels by boring through the tissues into the blood-stream, where it matures and begins its work of obstruction. Its work of reproduction, however, must be performed elsewhere, and where else but in the stomach of the mosquito? This insect sucks up the parasite with the blood of the person infested, houses it until its eggs are laid, and then voids these in the pools which it frequents, ready for drinking by the human species, when the dismal round recommences. Medical men are naturally charmed with this discovery, but, as we have said, it is very depressing to the theologians.

LAURA BRIDGMAN.*

THE writer of this book was appointed at the age of eighteen, by the late Dr. S. G. Howe, as the special instructress of Laura Bridgman. Her duties began in 1841, when her pupil, who was brought to the Asylum in Boston at the age of eight, was twelve years old, and continued until 1845. Two-thirds of the volume is made up of extracts from the diaries which both teacher and pupil were required to keep during these years. Very little that is new respecting the earlier life of the latter with her parents, or the interesting first stages of her education, is added to what is already known through Dr. Howe's annual reports, large portions of which are reprinted. During the last twenty-five years she has been less carefully instructed and observed, and various causes have combined to diminish the interest once so deeply and extensively felt in her. The writer attempts little but the baldest record of facts, for which, considering the temptations to be philosophical or sentimental, as well as for the discretion of her selections from the copious materials at her disposal, the book deserves only commendation. The humane interest so universally excited by Dr. Howe's persevering philanthropy, his ingenious and finally successful methods of instruction, the intellectual, moral, and religious questions supposed to be involved in Laura's education, the discussion of some of which he hoped his life might be spared to begin, warrant a far more thorough method in working up authorities and in physiological investigation of her present condition than has yet been applied. The leading facts in her life, indeed, are now almost classic in psychology. They are cited not only by theologians and moralists of every American variety, but by Hartmann, Wundt, Bain, Spencer, Maudsley, and scores of others in illustration of their distinctive tenets. For these facts we have no space, but refer the reader to Mrs. Lamson's biography.

Perhaps the most important question is whether the first twenty-five or six months of a childhood which is somewhat precocious and in the full possession of every sense and faculty can ever be totally forgotten. Great pains have been taken by many methods and at various periods to make Laura recall the time before her disastrous illness when she could see and talk, but in vain. She has written three extended sketches of her early life, in all of which her memory refuses to go behind the long convalescence during her third and fourth years. But when we reflect on the rapidity with which relations of time, space, and the properties of matter are learned during the first few months of infancy, we must believe that some trace, though it be as vague as Platonic reminiscences, of these experiences must remain. The right eye distinguished the light of a candle, the window, and possibly some shades of color up to the seventh year. The facility with which Laura learned to run about, to knit, sew, braid, etc., before she left her home; the suddenness and completeness with which, after a few lessons with objects and labels at the asylum, the idea of thus communicating with others came to her mind; her freedom at all times from what instructors of the blind designate as blind-mindedness or want of capacity to comprehend space-relations, all indicate that possibly her condition when she came to the asylum was not so identical with that of a child blind from birth as even Dr. Howe supposed, and that thus her marvellous curiosity as well as her quickness of comprehension may be in part accounted for.

Language is primitively and essentially a form of gesture. To name things is to react upon them by definite and peculiar muscular contraction, and it is one of the happy accidents of development that instead of *seeing* the position of all the organs of speech, and thence inferring subjective states—as from the face and the movements of the hands, etc.—we come to apprehend the gestures of the vocal organs *through the ear*. To the deaf-mute, learning to talk by the Graham-Bell method, speech becomes again, as it was at first, only a series of gestures. The finger-language is thus no more artificial, no further removed from the natural gesture-language of primitive phonetic types, than is ordinary speech. It labors only under the disadvantage of addressing not the ear but the eye, which cannot *attend* in every direction at the same time; of being less flexible, and thus less expressive, and of being less adapted to indicate shades of emotion than organs which are immediately affected by every change in respiration, circulation, etc. Thus it is possible that the practice of articulate expression, once acquired and forgotten orally, should be developed manually with much greater facility than would be possible without such experience. The immediate objects of perception are not sensations pure and simple. The education of childhood, indeed, consists, as Helmholtz urges, largely in forgetting these and in recognizing instead the motor reactions from, and the practical interpretations of, them. As psychic life grows more mental and less reflex, reactions at first violent and widely irradiated finally become most special, delicate, and diverse in the movements of the muscles concerned in vision and in speech. It is possible, as Noiré urges, though it is as yet by no means proved, that certain forms of muscular work common to primitive man were each naturally attended by certain positions and activities of the vocal organs; that the task of connecting primitive speech-roots, when once ascertained, with primitive forms of human industry, is a purely physiological one, and that because these vocables may stand for repeated or epitomized complex acts, and are intelligible to others, they are developed into language. Nor must we forget, as Geiger has so admirably shown, the importance of ocular impressions, which intensify and specialize all reflexes concerned in the development of speech.

After the contents of Laura's ears and eye-balls suppurated and were discharged, at the age of twenty-six months, her mother is quite positive she never attempted to utter one of her childish stock of words; but she soon developed a small number of "noises" for persons and things, which even yet are more instinctively used to express emotional states than the finger-language. Although with the sense of hearing she lost the "word-pattern," the "throat-gesture" did not cease to be expressive. Significant as these sounds are to those who have become acquainted with them, we cannot with Dr. Lieber regard them as purely natural or typical utterances, partly because vestiges of the conventional sounds learned through the ear may still modify the activity of the organs, partly because the latter seem to have been slightly affected as one of the sequelæ of her long sickness with scarlet fever, and partly because she has learned by feeling the face and throat of others so many conventional positions of the mouth and larynx. These tones, like the lower part of the face, which, as with most blind persons, is still very flexible and expressive, are exceedingly responsive to every change of physical, mental, or emotional condition. This seems to indicate that, in modification of Wundt's theory, articulation is a co-factor, along with the gestures which attend tasting and smelling, in determining the expression of the mouth, nostrils, etc. The vague sensation of light which continued to come through the right eye no doubt added to the intensity and range of bodily movements and increased the irrepressible, impetuous persistency in the expression of notions and desires so common among this class of defective beings.

Many princes have had less intelligent pains taken with their education than has been given to Laura. This must not be forgotten in attempting to distinguish between what is natural and spontaneous and what is acquired by imitation and otherwise. This is the main problem suggested by her life. Dr. Howe expresses surprise in one of his reports at her intuitive modesty, saying that he had never observed an indelicate word or gesture; "as if," said Laura's mother, "we had not trained her to that at home before the doctor ever saw her." She instantly detects an idiotic from an intelligent child by the feeling of its hand; but the

* 'Life and Education of Laura Dewey Bridgman, the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Girl. By Mary Swift Lamson.' Boston: N. E. Publishing Co. 1878. Pp. 373.

wonder vanishes when we learn that she had at one time more or less intercourse with the inmates of an institution for idiots, and could not fail to notice the peculiar flabbiness and atonicity of their muscles. She was very fond at one time of having a mirror in her room ; few presents have ever delighted her more than a little music-box, the tones of which, as it plays in her hand, she can feel, in her own phrase, "with very still and joyous delight"; she is fond of ornaments, interested in fashions, remembers the names of the colors of her own and other's dresses and ribbons, is fond of having photographs of her friends, is scrupulously neat and careful of her personal appearance, and still loves to amuse her friends by pretending to read aloud from a book or to play the piano, by mimicking the voice and walk of her acquaintances, by dressing and acting as she fancies a very fine lady does. Thus she is to some extent, as has been said, a creature of conventionality. But, on the other hand, she falls in love, becomes jealous and angry, manifests shame and pride, is exceedingly fond of money, presents, etc., loves even yet every sort of sport which she can appreciate—punning, ludicrous stories, a good frolic, etc. —like a lively girl of ten years of age, is exceedingly conscientious and sometimes remorseful, is possessed of an insatiable curiosity not only about gossipy or household matters, but about the nature of things which others see and hear, and is often surprisingly acute and original in her interpretation of Scripture texts and church doctrines, while many questions and answers which the writer has taken down from her lips about the mode of origin and the duration of the world, the nature and attributes of the Deity, etc., would, in many ages and places, have been accepted as actually inspired. These traits are no doubt more or less purely natural and innate.

To distinguish what was native from what was adventitious in Laura's moral, and especially her religious, development was one of Dr. Howe's chief interests in all his efforts and observations. He had no Rousseau-like expectation that perfect goodness would result from complete isolation, still less had he any wish to retard the unfolding of her mind in either of these directions. He only required her teacher to refer Laura to him for answers to her questions upon these subjects, and sought in every way to shield her from dogmatic indoctrination. The early record of her fresh and original intuitions, of her curious approaches to questions regarding the necessity and character of a first cause, of the unaccountable development of her conscience, etc., all so essentially correct yet so unconventional, are no less hopeful for human nature than the eager interest and sympathy which they everywhere awakened were creditable to it. About 1845, after his return from some months' absence in Europe, Dr. Howe was quite disheartened to find the mind which he had labored so long to develop and guide in the way which he believed to be best for it, as well as most instructive to the world, cobwebbed with the barren formulæ and the shallow sentiments of one of the popular orthodoxies of the day. "I hardly recognized on my return," he said, "the Laura I had known." We should not be surprised if his interest in her became gradually less as she fell more and more under the influence of her new spiritual guides, and thus month by month grew less original and more conventional. Nothing can exceed the crudeness of a literal translation of the Bible into terms of the one sense of touch. "Is not the Lamb of God grown to a sheep yet ?" "Does Jesus carry us in his arms *so ?* [with the gesture of a mother embracing her child]." "Was not Thomas right, wanting to feel the wound of the spear ?" These and many similar questions are on record, attesting at the same time her native curiosity and the poverty of her conceptions. Mrs. Lamson does not hesitate to speak of her own "enforced reticence" on religious subjects as "disastrous." "I was unable," she says, "to appeal to the highest motives. She (Laura) was living under the old dispensation and had not even the example of Christ for a model ; for until my last month with her she did not even know his name." Whether teachers or family friends were instrumental in her theological instruction, conversion, and at last admission with immersion into the Baptist Church, or whether it was due to the indefinable influence of her surroundings, is now a question of little moment.

Laura is still of the greatest interest for purposes of physiological study. These have already been begun, and the following are some of the results thus far : The left eye is still slightly sensitive to a strongly concentrated ray of sunlight, which causes, however, only pain. The discriminative sensibility of the end of the index finger is about twice that of the tip of the tongue, and three times as great as is found with ordinary people. The initial increase of sensibility during the first few minutes of experimentation, which it has been said could not be found among the blind as it may be in all observations with the seeing, is always distinctly noticeable. Certain parts of the face, especially the forehead and the region about the eyeballs, are anæsthetic not only to tractile but still more to electrical and thermal irritation. Parts of the body protected by clothing are fully up to the average of normal sensibility. Her deafness is so total that the hand is more sensitive to sonorous vibrations than the teeth or occipital regions of the skull. She is so unusually sensitive to dizziness in being rotated in each of the three planes of a solid body that it would appear either that the part of the auditory nerve which supplies the semi-circular canals still retains its functions, which is contrary to most observations on deaf-mutes, or else that Mach's famous hypothesis which locates the sensation of giddiness here is erroneous. This question only a post-mortem examination can determine. The tip of the tongue retains more gustatory sensibility than either the sides or the back —even the tactile sensibility of the latter is very low. Certain odors Laura recognizes without difficulty. The time occupied in the transmission of an impression to the sensorium, its conversion into a motor impulse, and the resulting muscular contraction—or what is often called the personal equation—is surprisingly small in her. There are certain figures, well known to every student of optics, in which the law of contrast causes lines which are straight to seem otherwise, and the reverse ; experiments with Laura prove that several of these figures are invariably as deceptive to touch as to sight. She talks to herself with her fingers, covering the speaking hand with the other (whether to indicate secrecy or because she is so used to talking into others' hands that a receptive surface has come to seem necessary for full impression, it is hard to say), and far more often makes emotional sounds and slight contortions of face in her sleep, indicative of dreaming. That she has ever dreamed in terms of sight and hearing, so far as can be made out, is with one quite notable exception very improbable.

Of colors she has not the slightest idea, nor has she, as do many who lose the sense of sight and hearing later in life, ever come to associate these with conceptions of sound. She unquestionably possesses to a remarkable degree the power of remembering, and it would often seem of recalling, her own past sensations, yet her knowledge is mainly in terms of time and not of space. She forms conceptions of aggregates with great difficulty ; knows that her room, but not that the house, is square; can form no mental picture, as some of the congenitally blind are able to do —how, *e.g.*, Boston on a single street would look from a high hill, or, without some effort, how many sides of chimneys and trees could be seen from one standpoint. She can tell very little, and that, of course, only in an artificial way from memory alone, what sort of animals, things, events, impacts, etc., can make a noise, yet her idea of rhythm is quite accurate. She is, as is inevitable for those in her condition, who are shut up within their own few sensations, very egotistical. She never speaks or writes of her bed without describing it as "easy," "new," "soft," or "clean"; her room is always "cozy" or "sunny," the fire is always "nice" or "warm." These and many other epithets are perpetually recurring with a more than Homeric uniformity and emphasis. Despite her imperfect taste and her small appetite, her food is taken with epicurean gusto ; and she experiences true æsthetic pleasure in feeling of objects that are smooth, warm, soft, etc. Men are apt to wonder at the ordinary achievements of those who are only blind and deaf, forgetting how readily and how far either of these senses may be trained to act for the other; but a blind deaf-mute encounters far more than a double disadvantage. A very general must be substituted for two very special senses in all intercourse with the external world, and the degree with which this was done for Laura by Dr. Howe still remains perhaps the greatest triumph of patient pedagogic skill.

Westerly (Rhode Island) and its Witnesses. 1626–1876. By Rev. Frederic Denison, A.M. (Providence : J. A. & R. A. Reid. 1878.)—When you have said that Westerly was settled about 1661 ; that it was so named because of its geographical position on the western border of Rhode Island ; that it owes its recent growth and prosperity to manufactures and its magnificent granite quarries ; that it has for nearly half a century refused to license the sale of liquor ; and that it has one of the best hotels in New England, you have said all that can be said to characterize the town. Much can be and is here related of the aboriginal inhabitants of the district adjoining the Pawcatuck River, called by them Misquamicut (salmon)—the Nantics, their invaders and subjugators the Pequots, and their allies the Narragansetts. In spite of the bloody scenes of extermination which Rhode Island witnessed, a handful of the native tribes still lingers in the township, governing itself largely in its own way,

on a reservation of which some 2,000 acres are held by individual members, and declining to avail itself of the enfranchisement of the blacks and acquire citizenship at the expense of its privileges. When this was sought to be thrust upon them, they replied :

"Negro citizenship, as we have seen it, means the right to have the negro vote for somebody, but not to be voted for ; no white man votes for a negro ; we do not want this negro citizenship. . . . We desired to vote for the great and good Lincoln. Had we been gratified, we should also have voted for Andrew Johnson. The joy of having voted for the one would have been darkened by the sorrow that we had voted for the other."

This was shrewdly put by their pale-faced adviser. They have maintained an Indian church but not their own numbers, and are slowly melting away like their forefathers, whose numerous burial grounds are a striking feature of the township. Of the natural features too little is said or suggested by the author. They are interesting in the highest degree for their evidences of the great ice age—the crumpled surface abounding in ponds, the rocking boulders, the glacial scratches ; the neighboring Narragansett Bay being the last of the fiords on the Atlantic coast. As in all glacial regions, the scenery is delightful ; and the peninsula of Watch Hill, at the mouth of the Pawcatuck River, dividing the ocean and the Sound, is one of the most fascinating of sea-side resorts. We believe Mr. Denison has also overlooked the claims of the Rhode Island turkey as a famous product of the township, its superiority being attributed to its shell diet.

This volume is well leavened with amusing anecdote and gossip, and is especially valuable for the insight into the New England character afforded by its narratives of superstition and religious aberration. The following sentiment, however, is the author's own. It occurs (p. 38) in connection with Capt. John Mason's "terrible onset with muskets, sword, and flame, that swept down six hundred Pequots, demolished the fort, and broke the life of the nation":

"A Christian minister, Rev. Samuel Stone, accompanied the expedition and served with remarkable efficiency. Hence from the bivouac of the soldier arose to heaven probably the first incense of intelligent prayer ever publicly offered on this soil to the living and true God."

How to learn Russian. A Manual for Students of Russian, based upon the Ollendorffian system of teaching languages, and adapted for self-instruction. By Henry Riola. With a preface by W. R. S. Ralston, M.A. (Boston : Houghton, Osgood & Co.)—It is not often that the publication of an elementary text-book signifies so much as the appearance of this one. The book is a token of much more than the sudden desire of English officers to know Russian enough to serve them in a campaign. It is the result of the growing sense among English-speaking people that it is time to know something of Russia at first hand, and, moreover, that there is something to be known that is worth the labor of learning. The bare fact of the existence of such a book will help to correct the exaggerated estimate of the difficulty of mastering Russian. It certainly is not harder to read than Greek, and to speak it correctly and intelligibly probably not more difficult than German. Fluency and fulness of speech are another matter. Until now it has been almost impossible to learn Russian except through German. Reiff, good or bad as it was, is out of print, while the French had little better than mere phrase-books. It may still be true that for want of good English dictionaries the German is indispensable ; but this book by Riola is far better for a beginner than any existing German one, even were the German like a mother-tongue. Its clearness and simplicity will be best appreciated by the pioneers who have toiled through the tedious and absurd pages of 'Joel and Fuchs,' the Russian-German Ollendorff, which ingeniously unites all the faults that have ever been charged upon the Ollendorff system. Even Boltz's 'Lehrgang,' which is most admirable as a *second* book, confuses and overwhelms the beginner with its mass of details.

Riola's book is full enough both in explanation and illustration to be distinctly understood, but the aim seems to be to make the student familiar with the general forms and inflections—the skeleton of the language—rather than merely to accumulate a vocabulary. The exercises are well arranged, and are far more like the sentences of intelligent conversation than those which are usually gathered in such books. The notes on the lessons on the nouns and the variations of them, by which the Russian expresses almost every shade of feeling, would be entertaining even to those who take only a curious interest in the language. The explanation of the verb with what the Germans call its *Anschauungsformen* would be too brief if it were intended for any but mature students, but for such it is very clear.

One word as to the use of this manual, a practical suggestion which has borne the test of experience. Whether the object in view be reading or speaking Russian, it will both be easier and the quicker way to go first entirely through the book in reverse order—that is, to take the *key* as the text-book, and read it straight through as an illustration of the notes and rules. This will enable one to recognize the forms of inflected words at sight. To be able to reproduce them from memory is not necessary. Then, if reading is the object, take Boltz's 'Lehrgang,' or, better still, if one has the courage, strike at once into something of strong interest, one of Pushkin's shorter stories or Turgeneff's 'Sketches of a Sportsman.' Even if speaking Russian is the aim, this first survey of the ground will be time gained in the end.

The value of the manual as a book of reference would be vastly increased, in a second edition, by some sort of alphabetical arrangement in the vocabularies.

La France Contemporaine, ou Les Français peints par eux-mêmes. Études de mœurs et de littérature, receuillies et annotées par J. Baumgarten. (Cassel: Théodore Kay; New York : F. W. Christern. 1878.)—Dr. Baumgarten states in his preface that the object of his book is to show the French as described by themselves, thus avoiding the reproaches of malice and ignorance which the lively Gaul is well known to be in the habit of heaping upon those who write with frankness about his country. The author also points out that his book is not a work of "slander and injustice," such as those "journeys of patriotic discovery" which certain "germanophages" have recently put forth about Germany. Having for thirty years made France an object of conscientious study, the worthy doctor professes to have a sufficiently close knowledge of the country to put him altogether beyond the reach of prejudice and to make him incapable of producing anything but a philosophical study of manners. He then proceeds to point out how an unphilosophical hatred impairs the judgment by citing the case of M. Jacolliot, who insists on talking about the "brute germanique," and of MM. Laprade and Pontmartin, who, after having expatiated at length on "the falsity of the human heart in the dramas of Schiller," arrive, with regard to Germany, at this remarkable conclusion : "The German heart is not in the breast, but in the head. . . . A brain very powerful, a stomach still more so ; such is the Germanic man. With him, be he poet, artist, or prince, sentiment is merely the link which connects the stomach with the brain." Having said this, Dr. Baumgarten trusts that the reader will not suspect the honesty of his purpose when he finds in the body of the book a whole series of studies on the moral decline of France. It is true, he admits, that the nation has recently shown an extraordinary amount of vitality and material resource, but nevertheless, by the side of this, "the demoralization exists and goes on increasing." This demoralization is not only social but religious as well. Not only have the doctrines of spiritualism made alarming ravages in France, but Catholicism has fastened its clutch upon the country, the position of this religion in France, as the author very justly remarks, being essentially different from that which it has been given in Germany by "the laws, the firmness of government, and the enlightened patriotism of an overwhelming majority of the citizens."

After reading this philosophical preface we have turned with interest to the body of the book, and find, as we suspected, that contemporary France, if as black as it is painted by Dr. Baumgarten's selected authorities, is a very bad place indeed, and, what is worse, that there is small hope of its ever becoming any better. All sorts of writers are quoted from : Taine, Gasparin, Nestor Roqueplan, Ernest Feydeau, Émile Montégut, and a host of others to show the present condition of civilization in France, and the result is that we see pass before our eyes a strange procession of *absinteurs, cocottes, cocodés, gandins*, through *Jardins Mabille, cafés chantants*, and other places of French dissipation on their road to final destruction. We have also the carnival, clerical education, spirit-rappings and a vast variety of other subjects discussed—all, of course, by Frenchmen, and all in a manner to stimulate the appetite of the "gallophage." It is all a very dark picture, and when we reflect that it is based on a philosophical and dispassionate study of thirty years, we can hardly find it in our heart to admit that Dr. Baumgarten did well to lift the veil which obscured it. We notice that the publishers, who evidently do not mean to let philosophy stand in the way of business, advertise the book as a "Seitenstück zu Tissot, Voyage au pays des milliards."

*** Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Addresses and Orations of Rufus Choate	(Little, Brown & Co.)	
Arnold (M.), Johnson's Chief Lives of the Poets	(Henry Holt & Co.)	$2 00
Atkinson (J. P.), A Week at the Lakes	(Macmillan & Co.)	2 50
Ballard (H. H.), Words, and How to Put Them Together	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Bardeen (C. W.), Common School Law, new ed	(Davis, Bardeen & Co.)	
Bentzon (T.), Remorse: a Tale	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Bonnefon (Rev. D.), Benjamin du Plan	(Scribner & Welford)	2 00
Cazneau (Mrs. W. L.), Our Winter Eden, swd	(Authors' Pub. Co.)	30
Chadwick (Rev. J. W.), The Bible of To-day	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 50
Denison (Rev. F.), Westerly (R. I.) and its Witnesses	(J. A. & R. A. Reid)	
Fawcett (W. L.), Gold and Debt, 2d ed	(S. C. Griggs & Co.)	1 75
Fleming (H.), Cupid and the Sphinx: a Tale	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 25
Forbes (R. B.), Personal Reminiscences	(Little, Brown & Co.)	
Foster (C. J.), The White Horse of Wootton: a Tale	(Porter & Coates)	1 50
Grove (G.), Dictionary of Music and Musicians, Part 4, swd	(Macmillan & Co.)	
Hamerton (P. G.), Modern Frenchmen	(Roberts Bros.)	
History of Geauga and Lake Counties, Ohio	(Williams Bros.)	
Hoyt (J. P.), One Term's Course in Latin, swd	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)	20
James (H., jr.), The Europeans: a Sketch	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	1 50
Johnston (H. P.), Campaign of 1776 Around New York and Brooklyn	(Long Island Historical Society)	4 00
Lacombe (P.), Petite Histoire du Peuple Français	(Henry Holt & Co.)	75
Littell's Living Age, July-Sept., 1878	(Littell & Gay)	
Löher (F. von), Cyprus: Historical and Descriptive	(R. Worthington & Co.)	
Loring (A. E.), Hand-book of the Electro-Magnetic Telegraph, bds	(D. Van Nostrand)	50
Lowell (Rev. R.), Stories from an Old Dutch Town	(Roberts Bros.)	
Mason (G. C.), The Old House Altered	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	2 50
Maxse (F.), Prince Bismarck's Letters	(Chas. Scribner's Sons)	1 00
Merry Times for Boys and Girls	(Porter & Coates)	
Miller (J.), Songs of Italy	(Roberts Bros.)	
Morley (J.), Diderot and the Encyclopædists, new ed	(Scribner & Welford)	2 50
Morley (Prof. H.), Life of Bernard Palissy, new ed	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin)	2 00
Moulton (Rev. W. F.), History of the English Bible	" " "	1 50
Nesbitt (M. L.), Grammar-land	(Henry Holt & Co.)	1 25
Oncken (W.), Allgemeine Geschichte, Part 1: Egypt and Persia, swd	(B. Westermann & Co.)	
Parrots and Monkeys	(R. Worthington)	1 75
Political Adventures of Lord Beaconsfield, swd	(Chas. Scribner's Sons)	40
Porter (N.), American Colleges and the American Public, new ed	" "	1 50
Publishers' Trade-List Annual, 1878	(*Publishers' Weekly*)	
Schrader (E.), Keilinschriften und Geschichtsforschung, swd.	(B. Westermann & Co.)	
Sewall (F.), The Latin Speaker	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Simson (W.), History of the Gipsies, 2d ed	(James Miller)	2 00
Simson (J.), Natural History, and Other Subjects	"	1 25
Speaker's Commentary—Matthew, Mark, Luke	(Chas. Scribner's Sons)	5 00
Steele (J. D.), Fourteen Weeks in Physics	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)	1 25
Thwing (C. F.), American Colleges	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 00
Trollope (Frances E.), Mrs. Jack: a Tale, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.)	20
Watson (J. M.), Complete Speller	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)	25
Weber (A.), History of Indian Literature	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	5 00
Weisbach (Prof. P. J.), Manual of the Mechanics of Engineering, Vol. II	(John Wiley & Sons)	6 00
Whittier (J. G.), Vision of Echard, and Other Poems	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	1 25

Fine Arts.

SECOND LOAN EXHIBITION FOR THE SOCIETY OF DECORATIVE ART.

THIS year's Exhibition is open at the building of the National Academy of Design, as was that of last winter, and occupies all the galleries. It is held very early in the season, probably to avoid the months of most numerous engagements and most constant occupation; or, perhaps, because this is the best time to secure the rooms, for it seems to be settled that there is no other place in New York so fit. The opening night, Tuesday, October 15, when the price of admission was high and a rather select company expected, was thinner than last year, for those who should have been there are still at Newport or on the St. Lawrence. But the days following have been very good, even compared with the early days of the successful show of last winter.

The Exhibition and its concomitants are to be criticised like any other public display, without regard to the object, and for that reason it is pleasant to be able to say, in advance, that the pecuniary success promises to be considerable, very probably equal to former experience. The Society is doing an admirable work. There is employment offered to women who can embroider, or paint china, or paint panels and furniture, or make lace; and there are schools organized and organizing to teach the same women greater skill and to increase their numbers. There is the opportunity offered to those who can design (few, at present); and to those who have in them the untrained and undeveloped gift of design (not quite so small a number) there is already the chance offered to do their little best and gradually to better it; there will soon be a more active instruction and a more fruitful criticism. All the drawbacks admitted and regretted, the result of two years' work is seen to be excellent, and the prospect for the immediate future encouraging.

As to the Exhibition, the strictures of the press and of conversation on the last one have been taken in good part and utilized. The confused splendors of last year, with wares of all descriptions and of all origins clustered together as ownership or convenience suggested, very often charmingly grouped as far as color effects were concerned, but without other system, have been generally avoided, and a tolerably complete classification makes the collection more instructive, more rewarding to the patient student, and very much more creditable to the managers, while the general effect is certainly as rich and as brilliant. It had been said that a careful arrangement by date or by nationality or by material, or by any logical method, would be, however fitting for a museum, out of place and "unpopular" in such a money-making exhibition as this. We take that assumption to be unwarranted, and look to the present undertaking to prove which view is the right one. The present Exhibition is as decorative in general effect as the last, and as rich in fine things; it contains nothing that was shown last year, and success may be confidently expected.

There is one curiously unfounded notion which was very prevalent before the opening of the galleries, but by this time has probably disappeared. It was freely said that this Exhibition could not be a very good one, because all the valuable works of art and curiosity were in last winter's collection—or, at least, that enough did not remain to make a second show as good as the first. It is not very surprising that such should be a general opinion; for few persons have had opportunities for judging how much good art, of one sort and of another, the dwellings of New York and its neighborhood contain. Collectors only know what other collectors possess—only they and the few "experts" and professional judges of art on whom they call for aid and for advice. The private cabinets of New York as they now are would fill these galleries as they are filled today for five years running; with a little calling in of aid from neighboring cities, one might say better than that; and what additions the five years will make to them, we are free to imagine. Moreover, nothing has been done to display illustrated books, early and choice specimens of printing, or ornamental book-binding; almost nothing has been done to exhibit prints, ancient and modern, whether from etchings or line-engravings, mezzotints or woodcuts. Mr. Hoe's beautiful case of illuminated manuscripts of last year remains alone in that department. No serious attempt has been made to collect carved furniture. It is in Oriental art that America is relatively rich, yet fine Japanese lacquers have never been brought together, except the few specimens of last winter. This season there are none, and it appears that it was decided to ask for none, but to reserve that most peculiar, characteristic, and little-studied branch of ornamental art. The delicate metal-work of Japan, paintings in books and on scrolls, woodcut books, carvings in wood, stone, and ivory—each of these will afford materials for a collection which will fill a gallery, when it is tried seriously, to say nothing of the Oriental potteries, which have hardly been touched. The more closely these different collections are limited to the special arts to which they are severally devoted the better; and the public will gradually become sufficiently instructed to pay their "quarters" as readily to see them as they were to throng to the miscellaneous gathering of last winter.

The classification this year is not quite so rigid and methodical as this that we have imagined. As one ascends the main staircase, the room in front (North Gallery) is devoted to Oriental art, and its overflow has filled about half the corridor—all the left-hand side and the wall at the head of the stairs. The gallery to the right (East Room), together with that part of the corridor adjoining, is devoted to European pottery and porcelain, classified as far as practicable—not arranged in exact chronological order, but the schools and factories kept apart; and a very considerable amount of judgment and of knowledge is shown in this and in the descriptive labels and the catalogue. The West Gallery is in the hands of a committee who have collected jewelry, old silver, carved ivories, embroideries, stuffs, and treasures of many kinds, generally European. The largest gallery contains a good collection of pictures; not too many, and seemingly of considerable average merit. Finally, the Society of Decorative Art has taken the little square room which is commonly called the "Sculpture Gallery," and has filled it with the work of its own pupils, protégées, and workers, which is thus brought beside good decorative art of many kinds—to the advantage, no doubt, of all concerned.

The catalogue, though nothing more than a list, without arrangement of any sort, except that the different rooms are kept separate, is still careful, generally correct, and useful. Let the visitor insist upon getting a copy of the second edition. It must be remembered that every effort is made to have these catalogues ready when the doors first open, and that the rent of the galleries is too high to allow of deliberate getting up of an analytical catalogue after the exhibition is arranged and before it is open. It must be remembered that great European loan exhibitions are held with no attempt at any catalogue, as is the case now at the Retrospective Exhibition at Paris; and that when a catalogue is attempted (as at London in 1862) it is the work of skilled and highly-paid professional employees, and is the work of months. This exhibition at the Academy might be held without any guide or companion whatever, but it is thought better to give this slight one than none at all; more would be out of the question.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 31, 1878.

The Week.

THE November elections will have taken place before our next issue, and the country will at length have some idea of the composition of the new Congress, and the probable occupation of the present one at the approaching session. For abundant reasons the greatest interest is felt in the result in this State and in Massachusetts, though considerable economic importance, at least, should be attached to the mixed contest in Pennsylvania. In Massachusetts it is observable that, while confident predictions of Talbot's plurality by 20,000 to 30,000 are put forth, the Republican papers have not abandoned their anxious tone, and they follow up Butler's daily crop of lies with a promptness and assiduity which reveal the latent fear of leaving even one point uncovered by which the ignorant voter might justify his support of him. We believe, too, that there is very little betting on the election. In this city nothing has occurred to chill the hopes of the anti-Tammany combination. The registration has been noticeably full, and if the history of similar coalitions may be trusted for precedents, Tammany may be conceded an increased vote and still find itself in the vocative. This would be less wonderful than that any permanent good should come of a victory so won. Municipal reform might conceivably begin with the overthrow of a particular Boss, but then there would be something else besides another Boss to take the place of him.

Directly and indirectly the Cabinet has played a leading part in the political canvass during the week. On Friday Mr. Sherman made a short speech at the Fair at Cumberland, Maryland, and the same evening Mr. Evarts addressed the Republicans of New York in mass meeting, while on Monday Mr. Schurz spoke in Boston to a crowded audience in one of the largest halls. Mr. Sherman's talk was chiefly about the favorable condition of the country in respect of its exports, its gross products, its diversified industries, its redistribution of population, its improved national credit and decreasing Government expenditures. His remarks on silver were sounder than usual, but still tinged with the disingenuousness or want of frankness which seems inseparable from his financial utterances. A sentence like this, "I think we can all agree that having gold and silver and paper money *so near to each other*, we will not allow the gap to widen again," stands in queer juxtaposition with the complaint of the disturbance threatening resumption from the excessive issue of silver dollars "so near" the greenbacks in value, and with the prediction that unless this issue of "silver coin of a kind less valuable than gold coin" is restricted, gold will be driven out of circulation and silver "become the sole standard of value."

Mr. Schurz's and Mr. Evarts's addresses were intended for immediate effect on the elections of the two States in which they were delivered. There was, however, this difference between them: Mr. Schurz confined himself strictly to the financial issue, and spoke for the persuasion of the working-classes, and avoided all allusion to party till the very close, when he characterized both Republicans and Democrats with candor and impartiality, and urged only that those candidates should be voted for who stood by honest money and the national honor. Nor did he juggle with the silver dollar, but declared that it could only be retained in the circulation by limiting its coinage to the wants of the retail trade and fixing its legal-tender character. His showing that inflation of irredeemable paper always raised the prices of necessaries far beyond the ratio of wage-increase, and that in the process of recovery wages were the first, and high prices the last to fall, was very effective; and so was his comparison of the loss caused the poor by the failure of savings-banks and that which depreciation of the currency, by never so little, occasions. In short, we think it is no exaggeration to say that the speech contains in an exceedingly neat and compact form an exposure of nearly every fallacy of the day about the currency, and that a man who has read it carefully can hardly be confounded by the most dexterous inflationist. Nothing clearer or more forcible than Mr. Schurz's exposition of the interest of the laborer in a stable standard of value has come under our notice in all this controversy; nothing in his speeches, too, is more noteworthy than their terse and vigorous English, and for this reason they may be perused with as much profit by the blatherskite as by the greenbacker. Their prime merit, however, and what distinguishes them from nearly all the other political oratory of the day, is their freedom from evasion and word-play, and their resolute facing of facts.

Mr. Evarts, on the other hand, spoke as a New York Republican to New York Republicans, eulogized the party for its past history, urged his hearers to vote for the Republican nominee for the Court of Appeals, and to return Republican Representatives and Senators to Congress, and anticipated the election of another Republican President. He ridiculed the assaults on Hayes's title, and defended his Southern policy while insisting on Federal vindication of the rights of citizenship. On the reform of the civil service he spoke well where his remarks were not liable to be misconstrued. On the financial topic his rhetorical thrust at the former denouncers of the greenback made him seem like a believer in its "battle-born" qualities, and he apparently is not indisposed to agree with Secretary Sherman in keeping it in circulation after resumption. He also foresaw the happy time when gold, silver, and paper, without discrimination as to quantity or relative value, should lie down together. But his analysis of fiat money was as truthful as it was witty, and there could be no better statement than this: "Whenever a magician or a pope gives us fiat money, he must give us fiat trade, fiat food, and fiat arrangements all through." That an unlimited issue of greenbacks could only be effected by national extravagance, to which all parties are opposed, or national repudiation, was clearly and forcibly illustrated.

The prosecutions of Democrats in South Carolina for interfering with the Republican meeting at Sumter have resulted, ludicrously enough, in the plaintiff's going bail for the defendants, probably owing to his being threatened with an extraordinary number of retaliatory indictments which had been drawn against him. Interferences are still reported, and they doubtless have the approval of the majority of the whites; nevertheless, there has been a good deal of talk about the "gagging" of General Gary, whom Hampton openly denounced, and whom the State Committee refused the campaign appointments which he solicited, and the same Committee have published an address which does not explicitly condemn the proceedings at Sumter, but which counsels peaceful methods, and "considers it of the utmost importance that there shall not be the faintest disturbance of the public peace or any approach to turmoil or disorder." There is, in short, evidence that Northern opinion continues to operate as a moral restraint in South Carolina, even when matters go so far as that volunteer companies of cavalry and infantry "assist" in the canvass, as they did at Sumter and Manning; and the probability is that the Democrats (or however they may designate themselves) will stop short of bloodshed if not of violence. Meantime, it behooves Northern editors to be on their guard against exaggerated accounts from the State; to judge individual outrages as far as possible on their merits; to compare what is now going on with what took place two years ago, and to weigh the causes in both cases; to remember that the extinction of color differences is for the advantage of both races and of the whole country; and, for

the rest, to watch patiently the result of an attempt under difficulties to reconcile universal suffrage with the rule of the smallest number. It should not be overlooked that neither in South Carolina nor in Texas is the intimidation practised upon the blacks alone, but also upon white greenbackers and "Independent Democrats."

The kind of moral crookedness and perversion—it can hardly be blindness—with which a great many Republicans have been afflicted during the whole of the Presidential controversy is well illustrated in a recent observation of the Philadelphia *Evening Bulletin*. It says:

"The *Nation*, and most of the Democratic papers, admit that the cipher despatches are wicked, but they join in exclaiming that no just verdict can be made up until the Republican despatches are discovered. It would be very odd if a jury, trying a burglar, should say: 'This man did break in and steal, of course. He is a great scoundrel. He deserves condemnation. But possibly there is some other burglar somewhere in Europe or Asia or Central Africa who is a greater rascal, and we must clutch him and examine him before we determine the measure of this man's guilt.' When the Republican despatches turn up—if there are any—it will be time enough to discuss them. But just now we are discussing Democratic despatches which have turned up."

This is nearly silly. What has really happened is that one of two suitors in an important cause, in which judgment has been given against him, has been accused of trying to bribe the Court, and it is shown in the body of the accusation that the Court really was bribable and did offer its decision for sale, whereupon the successful litigant—not, be it remarked, a "burglar somewhere in Europe," but the other party in the cause—turns to the public and says: "See what a rascal my adversary is! Why he actually tried to influence the Court with money; here is the proof, in the shape of his private correspondence." Very properly the public is not taken in by this appearance of virtue, and refuses to consider "Zach" and "Bill" Chandler and Jay Gould mere "burglars in Central Asia." It says, on the contrary: "My fine fellows, your virtuous indignation is very pleasant to witness, but I am not entirely satisfied about it. It appears clearly that the Court was corrupt, and that the plaintiff there tried to buy its judgment; but it appears also that it was you, after all, who got judgment. Now, how did you get it from this confessedly corrupt tribunal? I do not wish to be over-inquisitive, but would you mind letting me look at *your* correspondence before I make up my mind which of you is honest? To be frank with you, I cannot well see why such a court as the one you describe should have refused Tilden's good money and given you the office for nothing." Whereupon Zach and Bill and Jay Gould mumble out that anyhow none of their telegrams went to Mr. Hayes's house, and that one criminal is enough to try at a time, and that there is no use in getting excited about any frauds except those that have been found out, and that anyhow they must hurry home to attend the Wednesday evening prayer-meeting.

We have been very near having another sensation during the week through the announcement that Anderson was ready to acknowledge that he had been lying in his evidence before the Potter Committee, and to lay bare the whole wickedness of the plan of investigation by which the Democrats sought to attack the President's title last spring. Some of the Republican papers, if one might judge from the size of the type bestowed on it, at first thought this was something serious, but reflection must have made the matter look less hopeful. Anderson, who, be it remembered, was one of the men on whose report the Presidential vote of the State of Louisiana was awarded, testified before the Potter Committee because he was short of money. By so doing he appears to have got no money and lost his situation. He is now ready to admit himself for the second time a perjurer and forger because he is again short of money, and will probably do so any desired number of times for reasonable compensation. But managers of both parties will do well to drop him and his kind. There is no more "capital" to be made out of him, and he has already disgusted the public thoroughly both as a Republican politician and Democratic witness.

We have no doubt, however, that the space allowed Anderson in the daily press was really owing to the extreme dulness of the season in respect of news. Another godsend in this way has been the wholesale robbery of the Manhattan Savings-Bank on Broadway, of a Sunday, a day proverbially respected by burglars who have had pious mothers, and therefore universally regarded by bank directors as rendering extra watchmen unnecessary and extravagant. In this case, too, they trusted the janitor, who lived upstairs, with the combination of the safe, which he had to give up, and did everything but follow the example of timid housekeepers who leave a cold lunch in the basement to propitiate chance visitors. It must mortify them to think how little cash and negotiable securities their guests got off with.

The payment of the Fisheries Award was made dependent, by the statute passed at the last session of Congress, on the deliberate rejection by the British Government of such representations on our part, showing it to be exorbitant and not a unanimous award, as were directed to be made from Washington. The time is near when the two Governments should come to a final decision; but meanwhile a different issue, not of our seeking, has been raised, which may rightfully determine us to withhold payment. Last January an American fleet of twenty vessels fishing in Newfoundland waters were violently assailed, their tackle confiscated, and themselves driven off, with the loss of the entire season, by the native fishermen, who accused them of violating the local laws. The Newfoundland case has only recently been reported to the British Government by a naval officer despatched to investigate it, and reaches Washington with Lord Salisbury's endorsement. It alleges that, contrary to the Newfoundland statutes, our fishermen were taking herring with a seine near the coast—*i. e.*, within the three-mile line—between October 20 and April 25; were also doing it on Sunday; and were also "barring" fish; and that they were violating the Treaty of Washington by interfering with the rights of private property and with British fishermen engaged in the peaceable use of the coast.

Mr. Evarts replies, in a despatch to the American minister dated Sept. 28, that the Government can by no means admit that privileges accorded by treaty are subject to local regulations, whether these antedate or postdate the treaty (the Sunday law was passed in 1876); that if the contrary be true, the value of the fisheries concession is destroyed for half the year; that the Government could in no event commit the persons, property, and interests of our fishermen to the "unregulated regulation of another Government"; and that it holds that the fishery rights are to be exercised wholly free from the restraints of the Newfoundland statutes. He protests, of course, against the lawless manner in which the Newfoundland fishermen asserted their supposed rights, and he calls for the testimony on which Capt. Sulivan bases his quasi-judicial report to Lord Salisbury. The obvious hardship involved in the freedom of American fishermen to do in Newfoundland waters what the native fishermen are prohibited from doing, suggests a common regulation both for the sake of peace and of the preservation of the fishery. But Mr. Evarts points out that this can be effected only by a joint convention between Great Britain and the United States. The present justification of the incidents of January is a blow at the treaty now in force, for it cannot be imagined that submission to the authority of Newfoundland could ever have been entertained as a part of that treaty, even if the proposal had ever been made. Mr. Evarts concludes by warning Lord Salisbury that until this question is settled the course of this Government in reference to the payment of the award cannot even be considered.

The inquest on a shocking railroad disaster to an excursion train near Wollaston, Mass., on the 8th of October, has just been com-

pleted, and the finding is that the conductor of the freight train whose movements caused the derailment of the express was guilty of gross negligence in several particulars; that his engineer was guilty of negligence in respect to signalling; that the express engineer was too seldom on the road to make him fit to have charge of a belated, heavily-laden excursion-train at night; and that though the company's rules would, if observed, have prevented the accident, some extra precautions were called for under the circumstances. This exact apportionment of blame is not the usual product of an inquest, and in fact neither coroner nor jury had anything to do with it. The office of coroner was abolished in Massachusetts last year, and inquests are held by the court or trial justice, either upon notification of the "medical examiner" or by the direction of the District-Attorney or Attorney-General, or by virtue of the statute in the case of all fatal railroad accidents. The Wollaston inquest took place in the District Court of East Norfolk; and the conductor having already been arraigned on a charge of manslaughter, Justice Bumpus decided, from the evidence which led to the finding, that he was liable, and accordingly held him for trial in December.

The financial situation in London improved somewhat during the week; at least there were no new failures, and at the close there was rather more confidence than at the beginning. The Bank of England, by reason of the favorable condition of the exchanges between London and Paris, gained a large amount of gold. Sterling exchange at New York also moved three "points" nearer to that at which gold coin can be sent hence to London, and closed within one point of the specie-shipping rate. How rapid the change in the sterling market has been is shown by the fact that during the week there were received here $1,310,000 American gold eagles from Paris, which had started when sterling as well as French exchange was in this market at the specie-importing rate. The week also witnessed an advance of ¼ of a penny in the London price of silver—to 50¼*d.* per oz. There was a corresponding rise here, and the bullion value of the 412½-grain dollar advanced at the close of the week to $0.8469; less than ten days ago it was $0.8275. The Treasury bought 400,000 ounces of silver during the week; at least it is supposed that it did, for all information respecting the purchase has been withheld from the public. The money market worked easily for borrowers during the week, and at the Stock Exchange there was a strong "bull speculation."

It cannot be said that the Eastern Question looks any brighter, although the steadiness of the English consols shows that no real anxiety is yet felt in London. But it is curious and almost amusing to see how the various little devices by which Lord Beaconsfield sought to give the Treaty of Berlin the air of a triumph over the Russians are being blown to pieces one by one. The division of the Bulgaria of the Treaty of San Stefano into two provinces he dwelt on in the House of Lords as a peculiarly happy idea, and in reply to the obvious objection that the portion left under Turkish rule would probably seek union with the independent portion beyond the Balkans, he replied, with a sort of chuckle, that he had provided against that by calling the southern province "Eastern Rumelia," his idea being that Bulgarians living under the Turks would not intrigue or rebel against the Sultan any more if they did not live in a place called "Bulgaria." The fatuity of this has been commented on, of course, but not nearly as much as might have been expected. The latest news is that the Bulgarians south of the Balkans have risen in formidable numbers and are being reinforced by volunteers from Greece and Macedonia, and that 18,000 Turkish regulars have been already despatched against them. Of course the Bulgarians proper north of the mountains and "the Eastern Rumelians" will discountenance these wicked men, and on no account send them arms or supplies or recruits.

In the meantime the Russians show no disposition to surrender the administration of Eastern Rumelia, and make the outrages perpetrated on the Christians after their evacuation of the country south of Adrianople an excuse for refusing to leave that city and for stopping the northward march of a portion of their army, and this, with other complications, has forced the English Chancellor of the Exchequer to confess in a speech that a renewal of the war was not impossible. On the other hand, it is said that Austria has relieved the mind of the Porte, and probably avoided an armed collision, by announcing that it will not at present occupy Novi-Bazar. This is probably the result of the uncertainty of the political situation in Austro-Hungary, in which the attitude of the two parliaments towards the Andrássy policy has still to be ascertained. The great Cyprus "card" of the Beaconsfield Ministry has received another heavy blow from Mr. Samuelson, a distinguished Liberal Member of Parliament, who has just returned from a careful tour in the island. He confirms Mr. Forbes's account of the folly of the acquisition, which, he says, was simply "a red herring drawn across the scent" to direct the attention of the Jingoes from the partition of Turkey under the Treaty of Berlin.

The news from Afghanistan continues to be very warlike, and there is talk of an impending declaration of war against the Amir by the Governor-General, to be followed at leisure by active operations. The Ministry in London are evidently a good deal puzzled by the affair, and would like, it is said, to throw the responsibility of it on the Indian Government, who, for financial reasons, are naturally unwilling to assume it. All the fresher details go to show that the Amir will take the field with a larger and better equipped force than he has yet had; that he will have the services of a greater or less number of Russian officers, but that the hill tribes will probably prove as unreliable as ever, if not more so than ever. The attitude of Persia is exciting some interest, as she is massing troops on her Afghan frontier, and Indian diplomatists are trying to find out whether on this occasion she is going to be Russian or British. If the latter, she will by threatening Herat, which she has long coveted, probably make it impossible for the Amir to defend Candahar.

The Paris *Temps* sums up instructively the recent talk of the Russian press about the Afghan difficulty and the general situation in the East, including that of papers, such as the *Bourse Gazette*, which were strongly opposed to the late war with Turkey. It forms a curious commentary on Lord Beaconsfield's saying that he had brought home "peace with honor." The *Golos* points with exultation to the turn things are taking, as a proof of the folly of those who consider the Treaty of Berlin a defeat of Russia. Her very enemies seem to work for her. The Austrians in Bosnia and the English in Afghanistan have fallen into the nets they spread for the Russians. The Moscow *Gazette* points out that in Afghanistan the English must run enormous risks and incur great expense to punish the Amir, or else suffer a great humiliation in the eyes of their own subjects; that Russia will not suffer herself to be called to account for sending an ambassador to any court she pleases; that if the Amir fights there will doubtless appear in Russia as many "Afghanophiles" as there were "Turcophiles" in England during the late war, and it will be impossible to prevent their giving aid to the "weaker party," whom the English always love so much. Moreover, the loss of her territory in Central Asia would be no great humiliation to her, and a great gain in every way, while to England the Indian Empire is a vital possession, the loss of which would strike a deadly blow at her prosperity, and lower her position in the political world. This being the case, Russia can, with a little intrigue and the use of twenty battalions or so, involve England in costly and dangerous hostilities in Asia, and thus render her powerless in Europe. Many of the papers, too, foreshadow and commend an alliance of the Czar with the Sultan, which it is very likely will take place when the Sultan finds "reform" getting too troublesome. It is worth while to recall, in connection with all this, the shout of triumph raised by Lord Beaconsfield's admirers when he brought 7,000 Sepoys to Malta. They tried to persuade themselves that the bold stroke had brought the Czar to his knees.

RESUMPTION IN "GOLD AND SILVER."

THE Republican party has, after much struggling and screaming and many attempts to change the subject and look in some other direction, been brought to face the paper-money question fairly and squarely, and take its stand for the redemption of Government obligations in "coin." That is to say, it has returned after some wanderings and vacillations to the original truth, that the greenbacks were issued as Government promissory notes merely, to be redeemed in money as soon as possible, and had the legal-tender quality bestowed on them simply as a military necessity; or, in other words, as a means of extracting an involuntary loan from an indeterminate portion of the public. It would not be fair to say that the Republican party ever really took any other ground than this; but it did make efforts not to take it openly or ostentatiously or firmly, and, in fact, tried to avoid talking about it, and a large number of its leading men did in some degree countenance the greenback delusion that Government promissory notes were money by pretending or admitting that the Government bonds might be paid in greenbacks.

One of the ways in which it tried to escape from the greenback issue was by going headlong into the silver agitation. The theory of many prominent Republicans was that by pretending that a terrible mistake was made in the demonetization of silver, and that if it were again put in circulation it would have a most reviving effect on industry, they would satisfy the Greenbackers and put an end to all talk about inflation. To support this notion without seeming to abandon the policy of resumption it was, of course, necessary to talk of silver *and* gold as substantially the same thing, and of resumption in silver *and* gold as an easy matter. In fact, Secretary Sherman actually told the Committee of the Senate that the remonetization of silver would make resumption easier—that is, that it would be easier to resume in gold and silver than in gold alone, and that the act of last spring was going to help him in putting the currency on a sound basis. Secretary Evarts's letter of invitation to the International Silver Conference informed the European governments that "the policy of this country in support of bi-metallic money might be considered as decided," and he could only have said this on the assumption that gold and silver were of equal value and likely to remain so, for the Silver Bill made no provision for keeping them both in circulation by adapting their legal-tender value to their market value. We observe that in his late speech in New York, too, he declares that it is "the duty of the Government to make them (the greenbacks) equal to gold *and* silver," and that, while the people desire paper money, "they want that money good, and they know there is no standard for its excellence that can be trusted, except it be convertible into gold *and* silver." Here again the most serious fact in our financial situation, the difference in value between gold and silver, is completely ignored. At this writing the legal silver dollar is only worth 82¾ cents gold, so that a man converting a paper dollar into a silver dollar would lose about fourteen cents on the transaction, and the probabilities seem to be that the value of the silver dollar is still to fall. Gold also is worth about fourteen per cent. more than silver, so that offering the holder of the Government paper the chance of converting into "silver *and* gold" sounds, in the present condition of the markets, and in the absence of any legal provision for keeping gold and silver on an equality, very like a joke. Gold and silver are not the same thing. Making the paper dollar convertible into silver—or, in other words, offering the holder 83 cents for his dollar—is not, to use Mr. Evart's words, "keeping the obligations of the public faith." All attempts to keep up the fiction of last spring, concocted by the silver-men to support their delusions that silver was really equal to gold, but was knocked down temporarily by the "gold-bugs" and the "Shylocks," must now be abandoned. No serious financial discussion ought to be based on it, or to take any notice of it. Nor is any use of it or display of respect for it necessary. It has been exploded utterly by the facts. It is no longer heard of from its old promulgators; indeed, all interest in the subject seems to have died out among the agitators of six months ago. Most of them are probably by this time ashamed of their foolish talk and idle threats and false accusations. Therefore, now that the party has been fairly committed to the doctrine that the Government paper must be redeemed in some metal, the question in what metal must come up as the most prominent subject of discussion, and be settled, as all financial questions have to be settled, without evasion, without word-play, by a frank and full recognition of the laws of trade and of the conditions of the market. Talk such as is now indulged in about "gold and silver" would not be tolerated among business men in discussing the affairs of an embarrassed firm. If such a firm called its creditors together and asked for an extension, announcing its ability to pay six or twelve months notes "in coin," and on being asked in what coin, were to say "in gold *and* silver to be sure," it would call forth a burst of indignation in the meeting, because it would be considered not only a sign of dishonesty, but of want of respect for the intelligence of the hearers.

We are glad to see that Secretary Sherman seems to be getting over the belief that the silver question could be evaded or indefinitely postponed, or disposed of by rhetorical flights. In his speech at Cumberland, the other day, he fairly, and we believe for the first time, took the bull by the horns. "The Resumption Act of 1875," he said, "requires resumption in gold and silver coin, but the bullion in the two coins is of unequal value, the silver in the dollar being worth in gold only eighty-three cents. If the market value of these metals was at or about a relative value fixed by law for their coinage, resumption in both metals would be much easier than resumption in either. It would be very easy to resume in silver dollars alone, but it is resumption in gold coin as well as in silver that is provided for by law, as well as by public policy. The coining of $2,000,000 monthly of silver dollars is a disturbing element which we cannot now compute. We can only hope that before its issue is greatly increased Congress will either limit its amount or make it contain silver enough to be equal in value to gold."

This is the language of soberness and truth, and if he had uttered it two years ago in Ohio, when the silver craze was just beginning to show itself, and had stuck to it ever since, the opinion of the party on the subject would never have gone astray as much as it has done, and his own character as a statesman would stand higher than it does. But it ought to be observed that the suggestion that the silver dollar should be made to contain enough silver to make it equal in value to gold contains a fallacy that may become dangerous. As long as the value of silver is fluctuating as it has fluctuated during the last three years, no such device would succeed. If, for instance, even a year ago, he had begun coining the silver dollar with weight enough to make it equal to gold, it would now be five or six per cent. below gold, and he would have to begin over again. There are only two ways out of our difficulty: one is to restrict silver as legal tender to small amounts; the other is to restrict the coinage of it to the amount which experience shows to be called for for small change. Under the former plan, people who liked silver could settle their accounts in it at the market rate if they chose; under both, we should have what of all things we most need, the most stable standard of value available.

The future, in any case, is by no means as uncertain as the Secretary seems to think. Nothing is surer than that if he goes on coining silver at the present rate until enough is afloat for general use, we shall in a year or two lose our gold, as we lost it in 1862, and have silver as our only standard, unless silver rises to 59 or 60 pence per ounce in the meantime. The thing to be done now, and when Congress meets, is to talk of this fact in the language and frame of mind of business men, without passion or poetry, and deal with it on business principles.

THE SENATORIAL ELECTION IN FRANCE.

THE most important event in the history of the present French Republic since its foundation may be said to have taken place on Sunday last, when the Municipal Councils met to elect delegates to the Electoral College, which is to fill, on the 5th of January next,

the seventy-five vacancies which will then occur by the retirement of one-third of the 225 elected members, who sit for nine years. Each municipal council elects one delegate, and the Electoral College is composed of these and the Councils-General of the Departments. At this writing the result is not known, but the Republican gains at the late municipal elections seem to leave no doubt of a Republican triumph in the College. How much of a triumph it will be one can only conjecture; but M. Gambetta has predicted in his recent speech at Grenoble that the result will give the Republicans a majority of at least twenty in the Senate, and thus make certain that the alterations, if any, made by the revision of the Constitution in 1881 will consist in the formal and permanent adoption of the Republican form, as this revision has to be made by both Chambers in convention. It is the approach of this period of revision, and the fact that it is the Senate now to be elected which will perform the work, that gives the present election so much importance. It is, moreover, in a certain sense, a judgment of the electors on Republican institutions, which have now been working for three years under great difficulties—differing in this from the last election, which turned in a great degree, for want of anything else to turn on, on the local reputation of the candidates. Should it result as is expected, it will, too, definitively relegate to private life the last of the band of the Legitimists who, after forty years' absence from the political arena, emerged from their retirement under the stress of events in 1871, and who may be said to have made their last fight last autumn under the unfortunate and now somewhat ridiculous Duc de Broglie and M. Fourtou.

The theory of these men—Conservatives, as they call themselves; Reactionaries, as their enemies call them—is simple enough. They hold, in the first place, that Frenchmen are by nature unfitted for a Republic, and that the manners and traditions of the country forbid the expectation that any such government can obtain a solid hold on the popular confidence. They hold, too, that even if the people accepted it, a Republic is sure, in France, to fall little by little into the hands of the most fanatical of the Radicals, and would thus finally become an organized attack on property, on the family, on the army, and on religion. These are objections to it drawn from expediency. But there are others which, in Legitimist circles, are probably more powerful than these, and have little to do with expediency, or, at all events, with human expediency. A good many of them believe that monarchy is the divinely-ordained form of government, and that the heir of Louis XIV. is entitled to the throne of France as a man is entitled to his house, and that it is only on a monarchy, therefore, that the blessing of God will rest, and it is only from a monarchy that the Church can secure adequate protection. In addition to these enemies, the Republic naturally has a great many who held places under the Government during the Empire, or who, holding them still, owed them to the Empire, and who, as old Imperialists, do not feel that they can look for much favor or advancement under the new régime, even if they do not fear removal. Then the Catholic clergy, as a body, may be said to detest the Republic, partly owing to the traditions of the early Republic and partly to the sceptical character of the more prominent Republican leaders. This hostility has been aggravated by the exceedingly bellicose temper of the bishops, whose polemics surpass those of any country in Europe in indiscretion and violence. No other hierarchy contains so many fiery pamphleteers, like the late Bishop Dupanloup, and they would not be Frenchmen if they did not pay the Radicals in their own coin.

One of the worst effects of the Broglie-Fourtou attempt of the 16th of May last year was that it betrayed large numbers of the clergy, of the office-holders and judges of the courts, in one way and another, into an expression of their real sentiments about Republican government, and thus made them a mark for the vengeance of the victors. The higher clergy, in particular, threw in their lot frankly with the Broglie-Fourtou cause, and, besides offering encouraging addresses to the Marshal in his crusade, ordered prayers in the churches for the success of his attack, not simply on Republican institutions, but really on representative government. The judges of a large number of the courts were betrayed into straining the law for the punishment of Republican journalists, and the préfets and sous-préfets outdid even the worst doings of the Empire in throwing impediments in the way of Republican electioneering. The consequence is that a complete purgation of the civil service and a sort of defiant and suspicious attitude towards the Church seem to have become prominent features in the Republican programme, and only wait the conquest of the Senate to be carried out. As regards the civil service, the eradication of Monarchical préfets and sous-préfets is perhaps easy enough, but the purgation of the judicial bench is a different matter. The wholesale dismissal or retirement of judges would be a great scandal as well as a great evil; so it has been proposed to call on them to make formal declarations of adhesion to the Republic, in the hope that by this process they will sift themselves. The objection to this is, that there are a great many men in the judiciary who are bound to bygone régimes by ties of opinion or sentiment which do not necessarily prevent the proper and upright discharge of their duties, and which it would be cruel—especially in the case of men of advanced years—to ask them formally to repudiate. But with such an enormous system of centralized administration as France possesses the Republicans believe, or find plenty of excuse for pretending to believe, that their Government will never be safe until they have thoroughly reorganized all branches of the service, and have even put the command of the army corps in the hands of Republican generals.

The danger seems to be that in carrying out this programme the Republicans will commit the error into which all preceding régimes have fallen, of leaving nothing for time to do in the work of consolidation and regeneration; and yet in all such work time has to do the larger part. The Republic will have to strike its roots not by getting the bureaucracy and the gendarmes on its side, so much as by convincing people that it is going to last, and that, on the whole, it is a better government than any other. A generation or two will have to grow up that is used to it and used to nothing else, and on which monarchical traditions have no hold, before France is rid of the greatest of all national curses—a division of sentiment about the form of government or the title to the sovereignty. The Republican impatience with the Monarchists, now that the Republic has got the upper hand, is in fact not unlike the impatience of some of our Republicans here with the Southern whites. They are amazed that, having been well drubbed, they are not docile, contented, and enlightened, and ask whether they do not need additional legislation. But even office-holders learn very soon on which side their bread is buttered, and, if let alone, soon come to love the hand that pays them. Judges, too, soon find their sympathies flow towards the real holders of power, and soldiers forget dead kings and lost leaders as rapidly as the rest of the world. The curse of all changes in the public service for political reasons is that each one makes a bitter enemy for every friend it rewards, and, what is worse, fills the beaten party with the stern determination to play the game of proscription whenever it gets a chance.

THE WAGNER PERFORMANCES AT LEIPZIG.

LEIPZIG, October 12, 1878.

TWO years ago, in commenting on the Bayreuth festival, several critics prophesied that Wagner's star had reached its culminating point, and would now begin to decline rapidly. The extensive special exhibition at Vienna, in the following winter, of paintings suggested by Wagner's dramas was regarded as a sort of twilight which, before many years, would be followed by complete darkness. In spite of these prophecies, I am obliged to state that the Wagner excitement has never been greater in Germany than during the last six weeks. Almost all the opera-houses have opened the season with "Lohengrin," "Tannhäuser," or the "Flying Dutchman," the opening night being always regarded as a very "swell" occasion. Hamburg even devoted her first three nights to these three operas, and the manager is now making arrangements for producing all the stage works of Wagner in historical order, including "Tristan" and the Trilogy. Statistics which I forwarded somewhat more than a year

ago showed that at all the German theatres more nights are devoted to Wagner than to any other first-class composer or dramatic author. Since the introduction of the several parts of the Trilogy at various cities this preponderance has become still more marked. The "Walküre," the most popular, though by no means the best, of these parts, has already been produced at seven or eight places, always with brilliant success. Munich, which was the first to produce "Rheingold" and "Walküre," has now also anticipated Leipzig by a few weeks in bringing out "Siegfried" and "Götterdämmerung," to the great satisfaction of the audience and the critics of all colors. The King himself was so well pleased with the result that he awarded the title of "Königliche Kammersängerin" to Frau Vogel for her excellent impersonation of *Brünnhilde*, and the "Ritterkreuz" of the first class to Capellmeister Levy, as well as to the first cashier, doubtless on account of the immense sums of money he has been obliged to handle recently. For it goes without saying that the prices of admission have been almost doubled.

It is not my intention to enter on an odious comparison between the performances here and at Munich. Only this I will say, that although Munich carries off the palm in regard to most of the vocal parts, yet the total impression produced at Leipzig is better, and more closely approaches that of the model performances at Bayreuth. This is due partly to better preparation and partly to the excellence of the orchestra—the same as that which plays at the world-renowned Gewandhaus concerts. For, after all, the orchestra is the most important element in a Wagner music-drama, and only those who are able to follow its symphonic course with intelligence can properly appreciate one of them. Excepting the extraordinary association of artists collected at Bayreuth, I have never heard an orchestra play with such delicate shading, smoothness, precision, and spirit. The brass instruments are simply perfect, and the same might be said of the strings, only that this is not such an unusual circumstance. At Bayreuth, it is true, the stream of sound was more majestic, the emotional coloring more intense and vivid, but this was due in part to greater numbers and in part to the immense advantage afforded by the so-called mystic abyss. The celebrated funeral march is played superbly by the Gewandhaus orchestra. It is a very difficult composition to play well, on account of the gradual crescendos and the interweaving of motives—the biography in tones, as it has been aptly called. I have heard it played by orchestras of note in a manner which, in comparison with the performance here, makes one think of the piano-playing of a young conservatory miss as compared with Rubinstein. And in general it may be said that to do justice to a Wagner drama it requires not only good musicians, but musicians who do their work with enthusiasm. I have frequently noticed that orchestras never play the first act of a drama as well as the second and third.

This is due to the fact that Wagner's music, like Schumann's, has a very exciting effect on the mind and nerves of the performer. A sort of artistic delirium is gradually produced, which alone makes it possible to play their difficult compositions with the proper spirit and perfection. Every musician knows this who has ever played any of Schumann's chamber music. The Gewandhaus orchestra seems to work under such an inspiration. Nothing else could enable it to play with greater apparent freshness at the end of the fifth hour than at the end of the first. It does its work so well that one entirely forgets how hard it is, for no one need be told that the score of "Siegfried" compares with an ordinary opera score in point of difficulty as Kant's critique of pure reason does with a primer of logic. The only weak point in the Gewandhaus orchestra as now constituted is the need of one or two more harps. The exquisite passage, for instance, where *Brünnhilde* awakes from her long slumber, and which occurs again just after *Siegfried's* death, was incomparably more impressive at Bayreuth, where eight harps united their strains, than here, where only one was used. This shows that at least two harps are required to preserve the proper balance of parts in the Nibelung score.

As already intimated, the vocalists cannot be awarded such unlimited praise as the orchestra. A city theatre has not at command such expensive material as a court theatre, which is assisted by a large annual subsidy. Leipzig has done remarkably well with the material on hand, but by no means well enough to prove that the Bayreuth festival was unnecessary, or that the projected dramatic and musical university there under Wagner's own guidance would be superfluous. With one exception, I have found that the vocalists chosen by Wagner for the festival were far more satisfactory than any of the substitutes I have thus far heard. This may be due either to Wagner's excellent judgment—he made a special pilgrimage to all the leading theatres just before the festival—or else to the thorough training which he gave the artists chosen; probably to both causes combined. The exception alluded to is Herr Schelper, of Leipzig. The scene in the first act of "Siegfried" between *Wotan* and *Mime* was at Bayreuth almost universally adjudged somewhat tiresome and uninteresting. Herr Schelper, however, as *Wotan*, manages to make of it one of the best parts of the drama, thus proving how necessary a first-rate impersonation is to enable one to judge of a Wagner drama properly. Those Boston and New York musicians who pronounced judgment on the "Walküre" after its attempted performance in their cities should take this to heart. Frau Wilt, who plays the rôle of *Brünnhilde*, is a decided failure in this part. I am surprised to find critics, not only here, which might be mere local pride, but some from Berlin, who call her the first of living German sopranos. In my humble opinion she does not compare with Frau Materna, of Vienna, or even Frl. Wekerlin, of Munich. Her high notes are shrill, and ring in the ear very unpleasantly; and then she is no sort of an actress. By singing the magnificent strains toward the close of "Siegfried" like an Italian aria, at the audience instead of at the hero, she simply spoiled the whole scene except for those who were wise enough to shut their eyes, listen to the music, and imagine the scene as it ought to be. Such a *Brünnhilde* as Materna and such a *Mime* as Schlosser are to be seen but once in a generation. Leipzig is fortunate in having Herr Unger, whose impersonation of *Siegfried* is now very satisfactory. He has made considerable progress in the two years which have elapsed since the festival; his articulation and acting are better, and it is refreshing to see and feel how familiar he is with his part.

It will be remembered that most of the accounts of the first performances of the Nibelung Trilogy compared the scenic arrangements rather unfavorably with the instrumental and vocal parts. The difficulties which the stage machinist has to deal with in carrying out the conceptions of the composer are extraordinary, and as some of the arrangements at Bayreuth were of the nature of first experiments, it is not surprising that they should have been wanting in perfection in a few details. Moreover, owing to the carelessness or excitement of the scene-shifters, several annoying blunders were made in the first series, which had not occurred at the rehearsals and did not occur at the second and third series. But, as most of the criticisms were written after the first series, the strictures on the scenic parts were as unfavorable as they were unjust. From an artistic point of view, the total impression given by the scenery was, to say the least, fully as good as at Munich and Leipzig, and in one respect much better. The dark abyss which in the Nibelung theatre separated the stage from the auditorium gave to the scenes, as Wagner had anticipated, the vividness and distinctness of a stereoscopic view; and this result, I believe, can only be attained by adopting the same method. This has not yet been done, although about a dozen German theatres have since the festival lowered their orchestras several feet, even Berlin having followed suit a few weeks ago. I was surprised to find that those poetical substitutes for the clumsy curtain, the introduction of mists and cloud-curtains wherever circumstances permitted it, as on the banks of the Rhine, have only been very imperfectly and unsuccessfully imitated. On the other hand, it must be admitted that in several other details the recent performances have improved on the Bayreuth experiments. This is particularly true of the dragon scene, and of the final catastrophe which closes the Trilogy—the burning of the funeral pyre, the approach of the Rhine from the background, and the destruction of Walhalla. At Munich the funeral pyre was lighted on the left side, and *Brünnhilde*, instead of leading her horse by the bridle behind the scenes, boldly mounted him and dashed into the middle of the flames. In this city a phantom horse is used, partly concealed by the smoke. It is an excess of realism, however, to make the leaves tremble in the forest scene in "Siegfried" by means of a current of electricity. The orchestral part is so exquisitely descriptive here of the *Waldweben*, and intrinsically so beautiful, that the attention ought not to be diverted from it by any such device.

A rumor was afloat at one time that Wagner himself would be present at the first performance in this his native city, but he did not appear. In a letter to Herr Director Neumann he expressed his thanks for the conscientious manner in which his intentions seemed to be followed out, and excused his absence on the ground that he wished to avoid the excitement and fatigue which he would inevitably incur in endeavoring to arrange all the details to his own satisfaction. Several years ago he had not expected that his Trilogy would be at all performed during his lifetime; and what he wondered at now was not so much the sympathy and devotion of the artists, since they had for many years always assisted him in his work, as the enterprise and ability of the director—a class of individuals

who had hitherto opposed him in all his efforts. Herr Neumann, indeed, deserves great credit for the thoroughly artistic spirit in which the recent performances have been carried on, and are still carried on, the sixth and seventh repetitions being just announced. The performances begin at six and end at eleven and twelve. Between two acts is always a pause of half an hour, after which a trumpet-signal calls back the audience to their seats. The lights are then turned down entirely to prevent reading in the text-book, and to give greater prominence to the scene; in short, all the devices are used which at Bayreuth served to secure the ideal surroundings demanded by Wagner. The dramas are given without the omission of a bar, and the result has shown that this was the wisest course to pursue; for the reception by the public has been very favorable, and crowded houses have been in order. Although after four or five hours of close attention to such novel sounds and sights the audience cannot help being physically tired, yet the mental excitement and enthusiasm, as with the orchestra, always seem to be greatest towards the end. The immense success, artistic and pecuniary, of the present undertaking is all the more to be appreciated in view of the fact that in musical matters Leipzig has hitherto been extremely conservative. To see the name of Wagner or Liszt on the programme of a Gewandhaus concert would be as extraordinary an event as the reading of a chapter from Schopenhauer at a Methodist prayer-meeting. But I am convinced that the number of converts to the modern school of music in Leipzig during the last three weeks amounts to many thousands. Foremost amongst them are the newspaper critics. The change in the tone of their articles as compared with what they were in 1876 is marvellous. Among more than a dozen criticisms in Leipzig, Berlin, Dresden, and other papers I have found only one, a little penny sheet, which still preserves its hostile attitude. The critics are now able to see that the reason why they did not like the Trilogy at Bayreuth was not due to the want of beauty in what they heard, but to the incompetence of even a professional musical critic to understand and correctly estimate after a single hearing a work to which the greatest of dramatic composers has devoted twenty-five years of his life.

One word more. Munich and Leipzig have now produced the whole Trilogy, and both intend to give the four parts on successive evenings in the course of the winter. Vienna will be the third city, as "Siegfried" is to be first given there in a few weeks, and "Götterdämmerung" later in the season. Dresden, Cologne, and Hamburg, stimulated by the immense success of all the performances hitherto given, will follow next; and in two or three years there will probably be no prominent opera house in Germany without its annual performance of the "Ring des Nibelungen." Whether under these circumstances another stage-festival may be expected in the immediate future is somewhat doubtful, at least if the present business depression and political troubles continue. But even if there should never be another festival, the first one will have done a great and useful work in accelerating by several years the general introduction of the great Trilogy. If the project of producing "Parsifal" at Bayreuth in the summer of 1880 should fail, and the King of Bavaria does not assert superior claims, it is very probable that the honor of bringing out Wagner's latest, and perhaps last, work will be bestowed on Leipzig.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—XIII.

EUROPEAN CERAMIC WARE.

OCTOBER 15, 1878.

IT is drawing on toward the close of the Exhibition, and for three months past the letters of Paris correspondents, printed in American journals, have come back again to Paris with this much at least of utility left in them, that they guide the most indefatigable and long-practised visitor into by-ways where he might never have gone. This show ought to be open, all except the fine-art galleries and the Retrospective Exhibition, for about six months after those should have been closed; so would the student get a chance to see thoroughly what is outside of those too fascinating and too engrossing stopping-places. The special correspondents have among them discovered many strange forms of pottery and many exceptional pieces of ceramic decoration. Probably they have named and partly described pretty much all there is, so eager, just now, is the pursuit of knowledge in this direction. Lost in the Russian department were some cleverly-painted porcelains, until some sharp-eyed Cincinnati man wrote about them to the sheet he'd left behind him. Perhaps he was stimulated by the admirable example of his townswoman, Miss Louise McLaughlin. Think of finding pottery of really decorative character and of sound and correct *technique* in the American exhibit of Class 20, which consists of the contributions of three persons or firms only, including Miss McLaughlin. It has all been described to you in one way or in another; let this letter not aim at such a result as the last one—a mere *catalogue raisonné;* there is not time nor space for that when there is question of the ceramic exhibit of 1878, but some conclusions that are forced upon the student of decorative art may be worthy of your readers' notice.

In the great vestibule on the left as one enters from the park is the pavilion of the French Government art-manufactures (see my first letter for the topography). Within this structure are gathered the many smaller pieces of the Sèvres display, white and decorated, simple and fantastical—pieces for table-service and *objets d'étagère*. The larger vases are piled in imposing pyramids of flash and glitter outside the pavilion, or—the very largest—stand severally on high pedestals, outposts of ornamental art, vieing in size and in pretensions with the bronze and marble statues near. There is a special catalogue of all this—that is, of the three national manufactures, Sèvres, the Gobelins, and Beauvais, the first of porcelain, the other two of tapestry; and this catalogue describes the pieces one by one, naming their modellers and painters and any artists who may have had to do with their inception. There are one hundred and seventy-five numbers in the Sèvres catalogue alone, of which number half must be big vases from two feet to six feet high, or bowls and *vasques* proportionally large. Every sort of decoration is applied to them: figures and foliage in low relief, solid modelling "in the round" for handles and decorations, reticulated surfaces in projection showing a second body within, designs cut *à jour* through lips and edges, onyx-like incising through one surface to another of different color, cameo-like *pâte-sur-pâte* applications. The painted decoration is now plain, with elaborate care and perfect success in getting an absolutely flat and uniform tint; now wilfully broken and purposely defective and mottled; often with no painted pattern whatever; as often covered with delicate tracery of scroll-work or of natural flowers. The style is as varied as the rest, now Oriental and now classic, Italian here and Moorish there, suggestions taken from every place and every time. But is there one piece which can be approved? Is there one piece worthy to be purchased for a school of decorative art and set before ambitious students of design? Is there a single vase or cup or plate which goes to take away the reproach of our studious and learned, ambitious and wealthy, epoch—that it can do everything except design? To read the catalogue of the Sèvres display, one would suppose that these pieces of decorative porcelain were lovely indeed: "The form and decoration designed by M. Chose, ground of varied or mottled blue *lapis;* subject, The carpenter's workshop, modelled in relief in white paste by M. Un Tel"; it makes one eager to go and look at it. After a visit, which has ended, as many visits before have ended, in disappointment and annoyance, to open the catalogue at home is to light upon the tempting description of something not seen or not remembered, and to long to see it too; but the next visit dissolves the charm. One brief moment is enough to show that here is one more disappointment. A longer and more minute examination, a mental comparison of the piece in question with other fine pieces, and with what has been and might be again—justice calls for this, and admiration of technical skill and archæological knowledge makes it not unpleasant; but the first verdict is not reversed.

Are we setting up too high, too unattainable a standard? At all events it is a standard which should be clearly seen and comprehended. Let us walk down the long alley which opens beside us—that of Group III., "Mobilier et Accessoires," of the French Department—till we come to the ceramic display of French private manufacturers—a world in itself! A centre-table of prodigious size divided with low screens, a wall-table, or shelf, all around and similarly divided; this arrangement, repeated as often as necessary, gives to the chief exhibitors of decorated pottery and china their reserved space. It is a great deal too crowded, the passages are much too narrow, the thousands of pieces of every style and description jostle one another and hide one another from the wearied visitor, but still a part of them can be seen. M. Clauss makes, we find, wonderfully accurate copies of that porcelain which our fathers called "Old Japan," and we Hizen ware, or Imari ware: the porcelain of bluish-white ground decorated with dark blue under the glaze, and with red and gold (and sometimes green and yellow, and even lavender or purple) in enamel color, put on after the glaze. These Parisian imitations are wonderfully close, being copied, evidently, piece from piece—a French jar shaped and painted to imitate exactly a given Japanese jar, there present. The prices are not small—say 1,200 francs for a large *garniture de cheminée* of five pieces,

octagon covered jars and octagon beakers; of which the Japanese originals, if perfect and fine, would cost perhaps 5,000 francs, or, with replaced covers and repaired damages, as more commonly found in the shops, half as much. M. Samson Fils Aîné, at St. Maurice, Department of the Seine, has the most accurate copies of old Chinese enamelled porcelain, far more exact than the famous work of Herend, in Hungary, far more artistic in sense of color and distribution and more correct in tone and feeling than the work of the Royal Potteries of Worcester. Here are the round and octagon plates, of the size of dessert or fruit plates, painted with flowers and birds in enamelled color, such as, when really Chinese, fetch thirty francs apiece in Paris and eight to ten dollars in New York; and the imitation is perfect, almost to absolute deception even of a trained eye and touch. Vases of the darkest blue, with delicate tracery in gold, thinly put on, half obliterated in parts—a well-known style of Chinese ornamental porcelain—are copied with equal success. At four feet it is probable that no expert can distinguish the Chinese from the copy. Something in the look and feel of the porcelain itself and a certain greasy lustre in the surface of the enamelled painting are the only points which one can quote or describe as marking the difference. M. Diffloth has copies of Japanese hard yellow wares, the Kioto and Satsuma *grès*, almost equally deceptive. Other establishments might perhaps be named as equally successful in what has so often been tried without very great results—the exact reproduction of ancient and foreign styles. It is a school by itself, and must be a rather recently established one. It is good as far as it goes, which is not far. But Sèvres is too dignified to copy exactly, or, at least, to lay any stress on exact copying. It has artists and designers; it will create ; it will originate.

Beside the exhibitors we have named, the wares of M. Charles Houry are painted with landscapes and *genre* scenes exactly such as the canvases in the neighboring picture-galleries display, and admirably executed. M. Machereau shows perhaps the most delicate painting of little scenes of gallantry and pseudo-rusticity, like pictures taken from *livres à vignettes*. M. Léon Barreau copies closely the soft porcelain of the old Sèvres factory. M. J. Gauvan reproduces the forms and decoration of the Sèvres porcelain of the Louis XVI. period and of the first Empire with extraordinary delicacy and refinement. The time was when this system of adornment by means of little pictures in medallions, surrounded with borders in gilt scrolls, and of larger pictures with extensive landscape views and figures *à la* Watteau disporting themselves under trees, was the peculiar property of the royal factory of Sèvres, and made an epoch in the history of the potter's art. It was wholly absurd as a system of ornamentation of vases or other vessels ; it could not be defended as in good taste or as logical and reasonable ; it was only very dainty, very wonderful, very novel. But Sèvres has got beyond that now, and is trying to set her designers to other and more lofty tasks.

Among the *faïences*, Barbizet still holds the first place for triumphs in strange directions, for *tours de force*, especially in seeming imitations and developments of the *figurine* pieces of Bernard Palissy. Here in the great cross gallery is a vase of his which seems about ten feet high ; its surface is as if of broken rocks, though strangely enough covered with a most lustrous dark-blue glaze ; it has immense dragons for handles, and a number of fish hanging about it—a monster, without form or comeliness, but a wonderful piece of work. Near by is a figure in terra-cotta, the reference to which I have mislaid—a life-size Daphne or Syrinx. The nymph herself is in unglazed ware, of full color, the vegetation around and clinging to her (into whose substance she is changing) is glazed, and is also in full color. It is in some respects meritorious even as a work of sculpture. A better thing, and one really admirable in its way, is Deck's life-size statue of Henry IV., in his habit as he lived, but in enamelled terra-cotta. But such bold experiments as these are not for Sèvres, which is conservative and grave, and has too pure a taste for one, too much knowledge to put up with another, of these ways of work, and is too wise to affect in porcelain the large parts and bold execution proper to *faïence*.

Seriously, the directors of the Sèvres establishment seem to have a worthy aim ; they seem to be trying to find a proper decoration for porcelain, which shall be appropriate to the material and to the usual forms of the pieces, and at the same time brilliant and rich, and fitted to display the wonderful skill of their painters and gilders. They try the Persian taste, but the charm of the Persian design is lost when accurate smoothness and sharp-edged perfection are substituted in the painting for broad and hasty work, with the color taking its surface and its depth of tone almost by chance. They try the Japanese style, as they understand it, but it appears that great simplicity of purpose and aim is a necessary part of Japanese decoration, and that when contrasting colors are substituted for very subdued ones, and even when the number of colors and of parts in the design is greatly increased, the whole system gives way. The *parti-pris* is delicacy and perfection of workmanship ; it would not be Sèvres porcelain if things were left loose and easy, if the parts of a design did not balance very accurately, and if opposite and corresponding scrolls were not absolutely alike. Here is at once a difficulty. Of the great styles of pottery decoration, Chinese enamel-painted porcelain is about the only one which allows of much precision in these matters, and even the most delicate of that ware is careless and rude beside fine modern Sèvres. Here, we repeat, is a difficulty, perhaps insurmountable ; but it is a difficulty with modern decorative design in all its branches. This and changing fashion are as likely as not to kill it finally, to put an end to the slight and doubtful existence it is leading, and to bring in a new epoch of barren ugliness, and content therewith.

Perhaps the most artistic modern decoration of pottery in Europe is that broad and swift painting with flowers and birds of which the Haviland *faïence* is the best-known example. The forms of the vases and dishes are studiously simple. The ground color is generally rather dark, and always very uneven and full of gradations and clouds ; the flowers or birds are not firmly outlined, but struggle into sight as if through a haze that surrounds them. It is very nearly a successful style of ceramic painting, and if it continues to be popular and "in fashion" for a few years more, may reach a development far beyond what we now see or anticipate. But generally the outlook is dark. There is no better or more generally good china-decoration or pottery-decoration to-day than there was ten years ago. The admirable qualities of the most important styles seem all to be disregarded alike. Modern designers paint flowers in the Japanese way without the Japanese subtilty of drawing, and without the Japanese feeling for decoration and sense of how to fill a space with ornamental forms ; they copy Cairene or Persian sprays and scrolls without any sense of their proper use as parts of a composition.

Let tile-painting be left out of the present enquiry ; in previous letters of this series something has been said of the really admirable use of tiles of many styles of decoration in and about the Exhibition. Ceramic painting generally means the painting of vessels and platters, for use or for show, and it is in that sense that we are using it now. In this sense, what else beside the Haviland *faïence* and its like is promising? Doulton's "Lambeth" pottery has commanded a good deal of attention. Of this the simpler pieces, ornamented with leafage and conventional patterns in very slight relief, or set with balls and "pearls" of the enamel in rows and checkers, are pretty, certainly ; and this system of decoration is sensible and appropriate, but the prices are very high, and the decorative effect, when compared with the cost, is small indeed. There come also from the Doulton factory dishes and trays rather successfully decorated with flowers, and with landscape subjects, generally in yellows and buffs ; there is scarcely any modern work better than that. The ornamentation by means of figures in low relief and in translucent paste, known as work in *pâte-sur-pâte*, practised now by many French manufacturers, as well as by the Sèvres and Worcester national establishments, has given elaborate and costly gems for the cabinet, but does not seem likely to develop into a true style of ceramic decoration. There have been private and isolated successes. M. Bracquemond, known as painter and etcher, has painted a set of plates with minute Japanese subjects, which sell at 15 francs ; and others, darker and more effective, which cost 20 francs in Paris. Quite unusual and peculiar, these plates give an idea of what artists of ability might do to help the growth of a true style of decoration. A very large vase, two metres high, painted with cocks and pheasants by M. Couturier, and exhibited by M. E. Gille, is a good example of the purely pictorial style. Other artists, and even amateurs, have done something from time to time ; but what they do that is good is not followed up, and produces no permanent effect on the art.

Sèvres has been dwelt upon as an instance of failure in decoration because the most important establishment existing, and the first artistic manufacture of the most artistic nation in the world, a nation which, in the highest and purest of arts, sculpture, has reached a degree of excellence which is a surprise to those who—disbelieving in modern attempts at any but popular and ephemeral art—have failed to watch its slow development. This school of sculpture is young, moreover, and at the beginning of its life and growth. Why cannot these people do what is so much lower in the scale—paint teacups prettily and tastily? Of course there is the *consciousness* of the civilized man—he knows too much and all the rest of it ; but the outcome of elaborate and thorough training is to restore the unconsciousness of childhood, and it is for this new birth of the decorative faculty that we are waiting. French orna-

mental art is in fetters, and of what these fetters are some indication may be found in the enquiry we have to make into the furniture and silverware of the Exhibition. R. S.

Correspondence.

AN ANALOGY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It occurs to me that the suggestion in the last paragraph of the article on the "Causes of the Industrial Depression," in No. 692 of the *Nation*, may be supported by some facts from the history of evolution.

The essence of the paragraph is contained in this sentence:

"The working people of the world—that is, its manual laborers—have not kept up in culture with the growth of invention, and they have consequently had things showered on them which they do not know how to use—or, more plainly, make no market for."

Now, first, the history of the evolution of the physical organism shows this fact. One organ or set of organs is often developed to a point far in advance of the others. Then comes what seems to be a necessary stop in its development, lasting until the other organs are brought up to a corresponding point, when all unite in a new progress.

Second, the same fact is found in political evolution. For example, in England, up to the time of the Tudors, the growth of the political constitution had been steady and rapid. But at that time the church was far behind; so there follows a period, the greater part of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, which has left comparatively few permanent traces on the political constitution, but during which the ecclesiastical development is constant, and only when the church reaches the proper level do the two again unite in a new progress with the Revolution of 1688. Historical instances of this sort are numerous.

It need not be surprising, then, that invention should have reached a point in advance of the wants of the mass of mankind, and it is not unreasonable to suppose that the industrial depression is a means of bringing invention—that is, the demand for invention—to a stop until the masses are raised to a corresponding level, when a new progress will begin. Sincerely yours, G. B. A.

Drury College, Oct. 9.

RUFUS CHOATE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am somewhat surprised to see that in your "Notes" you speak of Mr. Choate as "the politician and criminal lawyer." Mr. Choate was a politician in the sense in which Mr. Everett, Mr. Crittenden, Mr. Ewing, and other leaders of the Whig party were; that is, for a time he served in the two houses of Congress, and, although engrossed in his profession, he always took an interest in public affairs. But to describe him merely as "a criminal lawyer" is not only inadequate but unjust. He was no more a criminal lawyer than was Erskine or Scarlett or Samuel Dexter or Webster. He indeed occasionally took criminal retainers, and one case, where his management of the defense has been grossly distorted, acquired a great notoriety. Mr. Choate was a great lawyer in every sense—a great master of legal science, a great logician, a great advocate. Nine-tenths of his practice was in the civil courts, and in these for twenty years before his death he led the Massachusetts Bar. Mr. Sumner speaks of him as its leader so early as 1840 or 1841. I have no doubt your seeming sneer was unintentional, but Mr. Choate's memory has suffered so much from similar disparaging allusions that it would not be right to allow what you say to pass unchallenged. I have not yet read Mr. Whipple's paper upon him, but I hope it represents him more truthfully than only as a criminal lawyer. No great lawyer has ever suffered so much as he has from magazine writers, who usually dwell almost solely on his mannerisms, extravagances, and defects, and forget that, notwithstanding these, he was a great jurist and logician. He has indeed not left much save a few speeches and traditions to perpetuate his great abilities, but the same is true of Dunning, of Scarlett, of Follett, of Dexter, of Mason, and of Binney. But if anybody is inclined to underrate him, he ought to read Judge Sprague's admirable characterization of him, printed in the second volume of Sprague's Decisions.

H.

Boston, Oct. 27, 1878.

MR. GLADSTONE AT FAULT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his recent article in the *North American Review*, entitled "Kin beyond Sea," Mr. Gladstone says that "the struggle with the South for the first time and definitely decided that to the Union, through its federal organization, and not to the State governments were reserved all the questions not decided and disposed of by the express provisions of the Constitution itself."

This strikes me as a most remarkable statement to come from the pen of so accomplished a statesman as Mr. Gladstone. Of course every tolerably well-informed American knows that it is palpably and grossly incorrect. The United States Constitution expressly provides that "the powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people." No American statesman or politician, before or since the rebellion, has questioned the binding force of this provision. The "struggle with the South" decided nothing of the kind stated by the great English statesman. It only decided that the powers which *were* delegated to the Federal Government by the Constitution could not be taken away at the will of one or more of the States; in other words, that a State could not by seceding relieve itself from the position in which the Constitution had placed it.

Mr. Gladstone evidently tells the truth when he avows, in the early part of his article, that "he has not had the opportunities necessary for the careful and searching scrutiny of institutions elsewhere," and that his "notices can only be few, faint, and superficial." He cannot have examined, with any care, either the provisions of our Constitution or the cause of our great rebellion and the result of its overthrow.

M. H.

Albany, Oct. 21, 1878.

Notes.

PART 4 of Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians' (Macmillan) reaches the letter F. It opens with Concert Spirituel, and has a closely-allied article on the Conservatoire de Musique, and takes in Dictionaries of Music. The most famous composers here included are Czerny, Félicien David, and Donizetti, though Dussek has by far the most space accorded him. English music is regarded in Michael Costa (of Spanish family, born at Naples), Charles Dibdin, Covent Garden Theatre, Crystal Palace Saturday Concerts, English Opera, etc. Cristofori, the inventor of the pianoforte, and the Erards, alike receive notice.——R. Worthington will shortly issue 'Stories of Remarkable Persons,' by Dr. Wm. Chambers. Some Americans are among the number.——G. P. Putnam's Sons have in press a 'Life of Thiers,' by François Le Goff. The author, already known by his 'History of the Government of National Defence in the Provinces,' has prepared the present work expressly for the American public, and the translation is made from his unpublished manuscript by Mr. Theodore Stanton.——We have received a liberally-printed 'List of Books added to the Library of the University of Minnesota,' 1875–April, 1878. The Harvard University *Library Bulletin* No. 9, October 1, 1878, contains a list of the more important accessions from June to September; more of Mr. Norton's Michelangelo bibliography, continuations of the Calendar of the Lee MSS. and of the Sumner Collection, a bibliography of the earlier editions of Shakspere's Poems, by Mr. Winsor, and an index-catalogue of books, etc., on the transits of Mercury.——The 'Waverley Dictionary,' by May Rogers (Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.), is an excellently arranged account of all the characters of the Waverley novels. It treats each volume separately, and in the order of publication, and the more important characters are illustrated by brief and well-selected sketches from the text. It has a full index, and entirely fulfils its design as a book of reference.——Mr. C. F. Thwing has done well to gather into a volume ('Colleges, Their Students and Work') the various sketches which he has before printed in *Scribner's* or the *Sunday Afternoon*, and to them he has added chapters on college societies, athletics and health, and choice of a college. They attracted much attention at the time of their publication, and were then commented upon in these columns. In their collected form they offer in brief space an entirely trustworthy and faithful account of the actual state of our colleges, and the information is of value to all interested in education, but particularly to those who desire to make an intelligent choice of a college. G. P. Putnam's Sons are the publishers.——The Boston *Literary*

World (E. H. Hames & Co.), which has been published as a monthly for more than eight years, will hereafter appear fortnightly at a slightly increased subscription price.——B. Westermann & Co. send us the first instalment of Oncken's 'Allgemeine Geschichte,' of which we noticed the prospectus some weeks ago. To make it a better sample of the work, parts of two different books are here bound together, Dümichen's "Ancient Egypt" and Justi's "Ancient Persia." They are, however, more copiously illustrated than the other books are likely to be, as the publishers point out. The letter-press, unfortunately not in Roman type, is characteristically good, and so are the woodcuts. There is a colored fac-simile, reduced, of the scene representing Osiris judging the dead, from the Thebes papyrus in the Berlin Museum, and there are other folded or full-page illustrations. The second instalment will carry on the history of Persia, which here breaks off with Darius.——The Duc de Broglie's important forthcoming work, 'Le Secret du Roi,' reveals the secret correspondence of Louis XV. with his diplomatic agents from 1752 to 1774. It will be published in two volumes by Calmann Lévy, and (in English) by Cassell, Petter & Galpin.

—The leading article in the *Atlantic* upon "The Nationals, their Origin and Aims," has the same instructive value as the evidence offered before Mr. Hewitt's Committee. The author has published, with little criticism, the notes which he has made from the conversation of thirty-four workingmen, of various districts, who are mature in years and enjoy as much education as will ever fall to the common lot under a fully-developed school system. What they have to say is, therefore, worth a hearing by all who desire to see what political aberration is possible among the more intelligent portion of the people. There is much wild talk, ranging from a proposition that the Constitution is mainly valuable as "something to have discussions about," to the novel argument for Government ownership of railroads—that then it would be easy to obtain the value of "lost trunks." But in general the tendency of thought is toward converting the Government into an owner of capital and employer of labor upon a vast scale, and an essentially co-operative, rather than communistic, organization, which should be so arranged that the will of the people would have a more frequent and direct influence upon the making and administration of the laws. The monopoly of banking by the Government is looked on as the first step, to be followed thereafter by a monopoly of railroads, and so on to the end of the list, which will be the monopoly of land-ownership. All that is said is very much in the air, and there need be no apprehension of trouble until there is much more unanimity as to the direct objects to be attained and the specific methods to be employed. The revelation of the absurdities and incoherencies in the plans of the party is very clear, and in this the value of the article lies. Mr. Brooks Adams treats the same subject from the side of the remedies for the discontent of the workingmen in a brief article upon the "Oppressive Taxation of the Poor," which is as lucid, vigorous, and convincing an argument as any one could desire. He limits himself to the incidence of double taxation of mortgages upon the laborers who are trying to become owners of their own houses, and he shows that a laborer who puts a thousand dollars in the bank is taxed seven and one half dollars a year, while one who has invested a thousand dollars in a house and has borrowed another thousand on a mortgage is taxed forty-four dollars. He demonstrates three things: "(1) that children's wages are necessary for the support of the family; (2) that a workingman with a mortgaged house can just cover expenses by his own wages and the wages of his older children; (3) that all payments on the principal of a mortgage debt must be made from earnings of the children under fifteen years old, who ought to be at school." In view of all the statistics he brings forward, his conclusion is hardly too strong when he says: "Massachusetts has done her best to strip herself of her natural defenders, to oppress, to enrage, and to ruin them. The small landholders have little reason to love their State. The numbers of non-taxpayers are daily swelled by ruined mortgagers; those who pay a poll-tax only are already in the majority, while the rich State, like a ripe prize for plunder, lies temptingly under their hand."

—Of the literary articles, most readers will turn first to Mr. Howells's new story, 'The Lady of the Aroostook,' which begins with a deliciously natural description of New England country folk, and is full of entertainment. Prof. Norton writes upon Florence and St. Mary of the Flower, and describes the city and the early history of the Duomo with a marked fulness of knowledge and a fidelity and interest in his subject which lift the article altogether out of magazine literature and give it a permanent value. The recollections of the Brook-farm association are concluded, and this second instalment is more interesting than the first. The other articles do not call for special notice, but the poetry is remarkable as showing very clearly the great influence of Swinburne upon the forms of melody; whatever his faults may be, he has trained the cultivated ear to so exacting a sense of the peculiar music of verse that it is not improbable that he has permanently raised the standard of poetry in this respect. But it is a mastery of word-arrangement rather than anything else that is shown by the poems of this number, and one is inclined to wish that editors would adopt the suggestion of a recent reviewer of magazine poetry, and not print any verse unless it contains thought as well as sound. Altogether this number of the *Atlantic* is one of the most valuable of the year.

—Perhaps the discovery of America was never more strikingly acknowledged by England than the other day, when London gas stocks fell sharply because of Edison's reported success in domesticating (so to say) the electric light. The panic might have been averted by reflecting on the time which has elapsed since the phonograph was invented, without one of the captivating promises made in regard to its practical application having been fulfilled. It would probably have been checked by reading Mr. W. H. Bishop's "Night with Edison" in the November *Scribner's*. Mr. Bishop suggests the defect in Edison's temperament when he mentions the fact of two centenarians among his immediate ancestors, and adds: "It is a point not altogether unimportant to note in passing, since it holds out the prospect, in the ordinary course of time, for the matured completion of the wonderful programme the inventor has laid out for himself" at thirty-one. It cannot be denied, however, that the story of his successes which have given him a fortune not only for self-enjoyment but for the prosecution of discovery on an unprecedented scale, takes a powerful hold of the imagination; and if his career is not exactly one we should like to see figure in Mr. Smiles's 'Self-help,' its influence on the young in making them despise training will be mitigated by the example of a rational use of sudden riches. It is, we suppose, an open question whether Mr. Edison's genius would have been helped or impeded by training. Other noticeable articles in this number of *Scribner's* (the first of a new volume) are Mr. R. H. Stoddard's commendably discriminating paper on Longfellow, of which the illustrations, not excepting the Eaton-Cole portrait, are more ambitious than satisfactory; the first chapters of Mrs. Burnett's 'Haworth's"; and the account of Chambly Fort on Richelieu River. For tourists it is something to be reminded of so curious an antiquity, close at hand, as this French-English ruin; and students of political economy must be interested to view in the same neighborhood the *partage forcé* of the mother country before the inevitable reaction has set in. "In order to enable each member of the family to build his house by the side of the main road, the farms are divided lengthwise; the result being that in many cases the farmer is possessed of a ribbon of land a mile or more in length and about a stone's throw in width." There is generally something to remark on the illustrations in *Scribner's*, and those by Miss Mary Hallock Foote in the present number are among the most praiseworthy, and have been reproduced by a very sympathetic "process." Miss Curtis's Kindergarten sketches in *Harper's* likewise attract attention for their grace and cleverness of design.

—No. 71 of the Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society is a more than usually interesting document. To the fresh Central American discoveries of Dr. Le Plongeon, and to Prof. Valentini's surrejoinder to our remarks on his *Vortrag* on the Mexican Calendar Stone (contained in a foot-note to a translation of the *Vortrag*), we may return hereafter. Judge Emory Aldrich has a convincing paper on "Massachusetts and Maine—their Union and Separation," which would seem to have been inspired by a recent scene in the United States Senate, for it speaks of the narrow personal considerations imputed to the legislators of Massachusetts by persons "who apparently possess a very imperfect knowledge of the history of the subject"; and a quotation from Governor William King in praise of the conduct of Massachusetts in consenting to the separation is followed by the declaration that "he who should now attempt to pervert that history, or should seek to disturb the harmony resting on the foundations so wisely laid by our fathers, could hardly hope to escape the just judgment of being regarded as the enemy of both States." Dr. Edward Hitchcock contributes the result of some investigations into the relative number of college-educated men in Massachusetts during the present century. By this is meant the number of Massachusetts men found attending eleven New England colleges from year to year. Briefly, during 1800–1805 the number was 86 in the 100,000 of total population; during 1875–76 it was but 55. Dr. Hitchcock has availed himself of both the

State and United States censuses, and has grouped about them his periods of five or ten years. The proportions run thus, and for brevity's sake we indicate each period by its closing year : (1804) 86 ; (1814) 90 ; (1824) 82 ; (1834) 85 ; (1844) 76 ; (1854) 56 ; (1859) 61 ; (1864) 56 ; (1869) 51 ; (1874) 53 ; (1875–6) 55. In other words, up to 1835 the average maintains itself at nearly 86 ; for the next quarter of a century it falls below 63 ; and since 1860 it has been not quite 54. Dr. Hitchcock does not propose any explanation of this downward progression, but we believe it is not past accounting for. The falling off caused by the war of 1812 and by the civil war is plainly marked, and there can be little doubt that the panic of 1837 produced the sharp decline from 85 in 1825–34 to 76 in 1835–44. The still sharper decline to 56 in the next decade (1845–54) coincides with the Mexican war, the discovery of gold in California, the completion of trunk-lines like the Erie and Pennsylvania railroads, the annual increase in railroad extension from 4,000 miles to 15,000, the great development of ocean steamship navigation and of steam-power manufactures, together with the Irish famine and the most extraordinary increase in immigration ever experienced by this country. Here was a tremendous combination of material forces against the slender attractions of the learned professions, through which the shortest way to wealth and distinction, both social and political, no longer lay. What is encouraging is that the decline was no greater, and that it was apparently once for all, the average for 1845–76 being 52 in spite of the loss of population caused by the war, and the tendency now being upward in spite of the fact that the foreign-born population of Massachusetts, which was only 16.5 per cent. in 1850, is now probably more than 25 per cent. (24.2 in 1870).

—At the late Church Congress in Cincinnati Mr. Hewitt delivered an address upon the Mutual Relations of Capital and Labor, which was interesting in several ways. He is not alarmed at the conflict between capital and labor, and looks upon it as a healthful sign of social progress. From the history of strikes he shows that the first stopping-place has been reached at the point where labor is sufficiently organized and has enough resources for sustaining itself during a strike to force the capitalists to listen to its demands, to conciliate it, and to submit to arbitration. He points out that any increase of wealth among the laboring classes must come from the funds used in unproductive consumption, and seems convinced that the final result will be the elimination from society of the very rich class. His argument here is a little curious. He says, "The possession of superfluous riches will not stand the test of human justice"; and this statement, neglecting human authority, "is in accordance with the whole spirit and temper of the teachings of Christ himself. He nowhere condemns the ownership of property ; on the contrary, when he tells us that the poor we shall have always with us, he expressly recognizes that there will be inequalities in the ownership of property. He states it as a fact. But he nowhere says that we shall always have the rich with us." He goes on to indicate that the solution of the labor problem will probably be in a system of great corporations in which the workmen will have a joint ownership, but he tells them that this is to be brought about only by their own saving—"abstinence, which is the parent of capital." By these means he looks for a permanent improvement in the social condition of the laborers, which will result in increased consumption, which will necessitate increased production, which "means lower prices," and these again "mean increased consumption," "and thus there is an entire harmony between the two agencies most concerned in the improvement of the condition of mankind." However sure this *dénouement* may be, it is certainly far off ; but Mr. Hewitt seems to rely on Christianity rather than political economy to bring about the results. He says : "I am not disturbed by the objection which will be made to some of my positions, that they are at war with the received principles of political economy. . . . Political economy must follow and not lead Christianity, and will conform itself to the conclusions at which society arrives in its progress toward a permanent moral order." The "truths" of political economy "will be found to conform strictly to the higher laws which bind man to his Maker by the great bond of love." It is curious to see the practical man of business thus in a sort of rapport with Mr. Ruskin's economic theories.

—'La Roumanie,' by A. Beaure and H. Mathorei, is one of the numerous books called out by the Eastern War. It consists of 219 octavo pages, and contains the "Geography, History, Political, Judicial, and Religious Organization, Army, Finances, Commerce, Navigation, and Manners and Customs" of Wallachia and Moldavia. It is chiefly statistical, but the concluding chapters contain some interesting remarks upon the condition and prospects of Rumania, and the introductory chapters give a good sketch of the geography and history of the country. The history is the weakest part of the whole, the question of the origin of the Rumanians being quite confusedly treated, and the most interesting part of the history—the transition to the Ottoman rule—hardly touched upon. The appendix, however, contains some documents bearing upon this—treaties of the Princes of Wallachia and Moldavia with Bajazet I., Mohammed II., and Selim I. On the other hand, the geography is fully and satisfactorily treated. The fullest chapter is that upon finance. The question of the origin of the Rumanians, by the way, which has been discussed with a good deal of animation of late, is in a fair way to be settled by compromise. The latest treatise upon the subject by Jung ('Römer und Romanen in den Donauländern') professedly maintains the old view—that of the descent from Trajan's colonists in Dacia; but with so many reservations that his reviewer in Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift* thinks it would not be hard to come to an agreement upon the conclusion that their centre of gravity was, until the thirteenth century, south of the Danube, but that a portion of them had all the time maintained itself to the north of this river. The book as a whole receives very high praise, especially in the history of the country under the Romans.

SEWALL'S DIARY.*

I.

FOR many years the diary of Judge Sewall, while still in manuscript, was one of the standard authorities for New England affairs. The custodian of the precious record, the late Rev. Samuel Sewall, of Burlington, Mass., was always ready and willing to furnish excerpts to all enquirers. After his death the Massachusetts Historical Society purchased the manuscript, and, at as early a date as comported with its other engagements, has commenced the publication of it. Of the editorial portion we will speak later, but first we will describe the author and his records.

Judge Samuel Sewall was born in Bishopstoke, in the county of Southampton, England, and was the son of Henry Sewall and Jane Dummer. Both the parents had resided in New England, and returned thither ; the father was grandson of Henry Sewall, linen-draper and mayor of Coventry, with whom, indeed, the pedigree of the family begins. In 1661 Henry Sewall with his family landed in Boston, and, returning to Newbury, prospered in that community. Two sons of Henry, John and Stephen, lived in Essex County, the latter attaining some prominence, and the daughters found husbands in the reputable families of Gerrish, Longfellow, Moody, and Northend.

Samuel Sewall was intended for the ministry, and was graduated at Harvard in 1671. He became a Resident Fellow of the college, and in 1674 was for a few months librarian. In this year he took his second degree, and, as he wrote to his son fifty years afterwards, "Mrs. Hannah Hull, my dear Wife, your honoured mother, was invited by the Dr. [Hoar] and his Lady to be with them a while at Cambridge. She saw me when I took my Degree and set her affection on me, tho' I knew nothing of it till after our marriage." During 1675 Sewall seems to have pursued his studies for the ministry, on one occasion preaching for his "master," Mr. Parker of Newbury, when, as he says, "being afraid to look on the glass, ignorantly and unwillingly I stood two hours and a half." On Feb. 28, 1675–6, he married Hannah Hull, the daughter and heiress of the wealthy goldsmith of Boston. Probably his taste for journalizing was strengthened by the example of his father-in-law, whose interesting diary was printed by the American Antiquarian Society some years ago. Certainly his attention was diverted from divinity to commerce, as Hull promptly associated him with himself in his affairs.

Undoubtedly Hull was well satisfied with his son-in-law, but Sewall records one little tiff at least. The note is in Latin, but competent authorities expound it as meaning that Mr. Hull—being much chafed at some one's bringing oats to him, as Treasurer of the Colony, in payment of taxes instead of money, without having previously consulted him—was angry with Sewall for throwing upon the fire, unseasonably as he said, a larger billet of wood than was necessary or meet, and declared that if S. would be so foolish he should have no confidence in him, for that his mind would be as unstable as if it were akin to the wind. But Hull, when he died in 1684, was intestate, and Mrs. Sewall inherited nearly two-thirds of his large estate, the remainder going to the widow, who was evidently on the best terms with her son-in-law. Eventually all her share came to the Sewalls.

* 'The Diary of Samuel Sewall.' Vol. I. 1673–1700. Pp. 509. Boston. 1878.

In 1681 Sewall was prevailed upon to undertake the management of the printing-press at Boston, and some ten pamphlets are known to have been printed by him ; but in 1684 he was released from that trust. He was also rising in the estimation of his townsmen and held several minor town offices. In 1684, under the non-resident system then in force, he represented Westfield in the General Court, and in 1684–5–6 he was chosen an Assistant. (We may here note that the plan of allowing voters to select their representatives free from restriction as to locality lasted in Massachusetts until 1694. The change was made by the friends of Sir William Phips, and was aimed at Boston influence. The vote was 26 to 24 in the House, and in the Council 9 to 8. Sewall voted with the majority in the upper branch.) From February, 1685, his Diary becomes more full, and a very valuable part of it relates to the political matters in which he took an earnest but cautious part. Sewall was, as we shall show, a thorough Puritan of the later type. He sympathized, therefore, with the conservative part of the magistrates, holding with Bradstreet and Danforth, and distrusting Dudley, Stoughton, and the English party.

It would be impossible to cite much of the daily reports of political events, but we transcribe that part which relates to the dissolution of the old charter government and the induction of Dudley as President of New England in 1686 :

Satterday, May 15. Govr. Hinkley, Major Richards, Mr. Russell and Self sent to by Major Dudley to come to Capt. Paige's, where we saw the Exemplification of the Judgment against the Charter, with the Broad Seal affixed : discoursed about their acceptance : had some thoughts of shewing their Seals to the Magistrates and Deputies, though not to them as a Court ; but before we returned, the Magistrates were gone to the Governour's and from thence they adjourned till Monday one aclock. Major Generall came home and dined with me. Went to George Monk's and paid him in full, drank half a pint of Wine together.

. . . . . .

Sabbath, May 16. The Lord's Supper administered with us : In the morn the 2d Ps. sung from the 6th v. to the end. In the family, sung the 139th in course. Mr. Randolph at Meeting, sate in Mr. Luscombe's Pue. Mr. Willard prayed not for the Governour or Government, as formerly ; but spake so as implied it to be changed or changing. It seems Mr. Phillips at the Old Church, prayed for Governour and Deputy Governour. Govr. Hinkly, Major Pynchon, Rawson and Self with Mr. Willy in the Fore-Seat at the Sacrament.

Monday, May 17th 1686. Generall Court Sits at One aclock, I goe thither, about 3. The Old Government draws to the North-side, Mr. Addington, Capt. Smith and I sit at the Table, there not being room : Major Dudley the Præsident, Major Pynchon, Capt. Gedney, Mr. Mason, Randolph, Capt. Winthrop, Mr. Wharton come in on the Left. Mr. Stoughton I left out : Came also Capt. [of] King's Frigot, Govr. Hinkley, Govr. West and sate on the Bench, and the Room pretty well filled with Spectators in an Instant. Major Dudley made a Speech, that was sorry could treat them no longer as Governour and Company ; Produced the Exemplification of the Charter's Condemnation, the Commission under the Broad-Seal of England—both : Letter of the Lords, Commission of Admiralty, openly exhibiting them to the People ; when had done, Deputy Governour said suppos'd they expected not the Court's Answer now ; which the Præsident took up and said they could not acknowledge them as such, and could no way capitulate with them, to which I think no Reply. When gone, Major Generall, Major Richards, Mr. Russell and Self spake our minds. I chose to say after the Major Generall, adding that the foundations being destroyed what can the Righteous do ; speaking against a Protest ; which some spake for. Spake to call some Elders to pray tomorrow which some think inconvenient, because of what past, and the Commissioners having several times declared themselves to be the King's Council when in the Town-House.

Tuesday, May 18. Mr. Willard not seeing cause to go to the Town-House to pray, I who was to speak to him refrain also. Major Bulkley and Mr. Jonathan Tyng came to Town last night. Mr. Phillips had very close Discourse with the President, to persuade him not to accept : 'twas in Mr. Willard's Study Monday after noon just at night. Mr. Stoughton and Mather there too. Now are reading the beginning of the Psalms and the Acts. . . . In the even Mr. Moodey, Allen, Willard, Addington, Frary visit me. It seems neither of the Mathers, nor Baylys, nor Major Richards were at the Fast.

Wednesday, May 19. Capt. Eliot tells me that he hears Salem Troop is to be here on Friday, Capt. Higginson is Mr. Wharton's Brother in Law, and Capt. Gedney is of Salem, commands one of the Companyes. Mr. Higginson and Mr. Noyes steady for Submission ; the former is the Captain's Father. My Son reads to me Isa. 22 in his course this morning. In the Afternoon Major Richards and Self sent for to Capt. Winthrop's, and desired to have our Companyes in Arms next Tuesday, Boston Troop to bring the President from Roxbury ; what was thought of the former notion is now laid aside.

Friday, May 21, 1686. The Magistrates and Deputies goe to the Governour's. I was going to them about 11. aclock, supposing them to be at the Town-House, and seeing a head through the Governour's Room, and, Brisco in the Street, I asked if Magistrates there ; so went in and they were discoursing about delivering the Keys of a Fort which had been asked, seemed to advise him not to do it till the Gentlemen Sworn. Mr. Nowell prayed that God would pardon each Magistrate and Deputies Sin. Thanked God for our hithertos of Mercy 56 years, in which time sad Calamities elsewhere, as Massacre Piedmont ; thanked God for what we might expect from sundry of those now set over us. I moved to sing, so sang the 17. and 18. verses of Habbakkuk.

The Adjournment which had been agreed before, Second Wednesday in October next at 8 aclock in the Morning, was declared by the Weeping Marshal-Generall. Many Tears Shed in Prayer and at parting.

. . . . . .

I waited on the Præsident in the morn to speak with him, and so accompanied Him to Town. Wednesday, Major Richards and I were sent for to Captain Winthrop's to speak with us about attending with our Companyes on Tuesday ; this was near night. Were advised to consult our Officers ; Major Richards objected the discontent of the Souldiers and may be it might prove inconvenient. On Thorsday, before Lecture, at Capt. Paige's, I told the President thought I could do nothing to the purpose : On Friday waited on him on purpose and propounded Lieut. Hayward : when came home, after Dinner went to speak with Lieut. Hayward, found him at George's. There he was speaking with his Capt., the Præsident having spoken to him ; he was to return an Answer to the Præsident. I hear no more of it, so I suppose 'tis left with him. On Wednesday Major spake of warning by Corporals not Drum. . . .

Wednesday, May 26. Mr. Ratliff, the Minister, waits on the Council; Mr. Mason and Randolph propose that he may have one of the 3 Houses to preach in. That is deny'd, and he is granted the East-End of the Town-House, where the Deputies used to meet ; untill those who desire his Ministry shall provide a fitter place. No Body that I observed went to meet the President at his first coming to Town that I know of.

Sewall had the satisfaction of seeing his adversaries in their turn routed, for in December of the same year Sir Edmund Andros arrived with a new commission, superseding Dudley :

Monday, Decr. 20, 1686. Governour Andros comes up in the Pinnace, touches at the Castle, Lands at Govr. Leveret's wharf about 2 P.M. where the President, &c. meet him and so march up through the Guards of the 8 Companyes to the Town House, where part of the Commission read : He hath power to suspend Councillors and to appoint others if the number be reduced to less than seven. He and Council to make Laws. Then took the Oath of Allegiance and as Governour, then about eight of the Council sworn. Court clear'd. Governour stood with his Hat on when Oaths given to Councillours. It seems speaks to the Ministers in the Library about accommodation as to a Meeting-house [for church services], that might so contrive the time as one House might serve two Assemblies. . . .

Tuesday, Decr. 21. There is a Meeting at Mr. Allen's, of the Ministers and four of each Congregation, to consider what answer to give the Governour ; and 'twas agreed that could not with a good conscience consent that our Meeting-Houses should be made use of for the Common-Prayer Worship.

Decr. 22. Kings-fisher comes up but neither salutes the Castle nor the Town. In the evening Mr. Mather and Willard thorowly discoursed his Excellency about the Meeting-Houses in great plainness, showing they could not consent. This was at his Lodging at Madam Taylor's. He seems to say will not impose.

During the period of Andros's rule we find no word of discontent in Sewall's writings, whatever he may have felt. He was on civil, speaking terms with Andros, and visited Randolph and Ratcliffe. He refused to sell land at Cotton Hill for an Episcopalian chapel, but he put his refusal on the ground that the land was entailed, equally with his religious scruples. He gave way on one special point by asking Andros for a confirmation of his land at Hog Island. Finally, he withdrew from New England in good season, sailing for England November 17, 1688, ostensibly to attend to family affairs there. It is probable that Sewall really went charged with the hopes and aspirations of the disaffected and to aid the efforts of Increase Mather, who had already sailed as an unaccredited agent of the colonists. If so, it is curious to read in the diary that Mr. Ratcliffe "prayed God Almighty to bless" him, and that he waited on Andros to ask "his Excellency if he had any service for me to Hampshire or Coventry."

MATTHEW ARNOLD'S POEMS.*

MATTHEW ARNOLD is more widely known in this country as the critic and the liberal thinker than as the poet ; yet, to our mind, his poetry is more valuable than his prose, and it is to him and Clough that the men of the future will come who desire to find the clearest poetic expression of the sentiment and reflection of the most cultivated and thoughtful men of our generation. They are both called the poets of doubt ; but, apart from this characteristic of them, there are in Clough a simplicity in narration, a thrust of wit, and, throughout, a graceful manliness which make him dear to many who have never known the shadow of scepticism ; and likewise there are in Arnold a vividness in picturesque description, a penetrative imagination, a moral ardor, a sensitiveness to

* 'Poems. By Matthew Arnold.' New and complete edition in one volume. New York : Macmillan & Co. 1878.

all that is charming in this world—individual powers and qualities whose results in poetic work are delightful apart from the restless and regretful spirit which infects all his writing. It is undeniable, nevertheless, that the interest of his poetry and much of its value, both in what it teaches and what it reveals, lie mainly in its being the record of the passions, the disappointments and aspirations, the entire life-experience of an open doubter so far as he has entrusted to words what he has seen and felt.

It is easy to say that Arnold is the descendant of Wordsworth, and he acknowledges his debt in many a grateful verse, but this is true only within limits. Something in his manner of treatment, something in large utterance, he gained from him; but, in the main, Wordsworth was to him what he is to all—a master in the lore of nature, a revealer of the place which her loveliness and grandeur should hold in human life.

> "He laid us as we lay at birth
> On the cool, flowery lap of earth,
> Smiles broke from us and we had ease;
> The hills were round us, and the breeze
> Went o'er the sunlit fields again,
> Our foreheads felt the wind and rain."

But the attitude of the two poets towards nature is dissimilar. Wordsworth might not have been equal to the splendid arrogance of Herbert, who sums up the mediæval view of the material universe in the terse, fine lines—

> "Man is one world, and hath
> Another to attend him";

but still he was of those who look to stand unharmed when the earth shall disappear in flame and the heavens be rolled together as a scroll, while Arnold fears that men are really as the spring flowers and the summer grass. The permanence of nature, no less than the repose and ease in which her works are wrought in contrast with the passion and effort that pervade human life, is the source of his awe, which is widely different in quality and in its reaction on the poet's soul from that which Wordsworth felt. This is the burden of her murmur as Arnold interprets it:

> "'Race after race, man after man,
> Have thought that my secret was theirs,
> Have dreamed that I lived but for them,
> That they were my glory and joy;
> —They are dust, they are changed, they are gone!
> I remain.'"

It is a theme on which he frames many a changeful musical movement, and is one of the cardinal ideas which determine his emotions. Sometimes he loses this sombre view, and, gifted in a remarkable degree with the sensuous receptivity which is the common possession of poets, he delights in the direct momentary sensation—the flash and glow of color, the various landscape, all the forms and lights and glooms of the outer face of things, and finds in them a refuge. Once, indeed, he cries out against the "lorn autumns and triumphant springs" as "unmating things," but his normal mood is a trust in the soothing power of nature and in her guardianship of those of whom she is also the mother. Once, too, he seems to retain something of the old feeling that the struggles of men differentiate them from nature as higher beings, but the suggestion is quickly lost in a vague pantheism, often half-audible, and once at least clearly declared in the concluding lines of the stanzas written at Heine's grave.

If he derives from Wordsworth this openness to nature, which results so differently in him, the spirit in which he regards human life comes from Greece, and it is no less transformed. The one fact which he has seized on more closely than any other poet is the necessary isolation of every one, and it reappears from first to last with a persistence and a variety of mournful cadence which recall Beethoven's *Miserere Domine*. It is in this mood that he writes "Each on his own strict line we move," that he recurs again and again to the sea of "our different past" which rolls between all, that he likens men to "driftwood spars which meet and pass," that he bids us take a lesson from the stars, which "demand not that the things without them yield them love, amusement, sympathy." The charm of the series entitled "Switzerland," which is among his master-pieces, is in the force and clearness with which he throws light from every side upon this one idea, and shows how the pleasure of life, so far as this may come from mutual association, breaks upon it and is rebuffed; in his hope that it may not be always so, and in his final reluctant submission to it as a part of the inevitable sadness of life. A second ruling idea which is the master of the mood in many of the poems, and which strikes the most careless reader, is the protest against the results of intellectual doubt in modern life, the "sick hurry," the "divided aims," the "heads o'ertaxed," the "palsied hearts." He exhausts the vocabulary of complaint, and no opponent ever drew up such an arraignment of the tendencies of scepticism as is contained in "The Scholar Gypsey":

> "Light half-believers of our casual creeds,
> Who never deeply felt, nor clearly will'd,
> Whose insight never has borne fruit in deeds,
> Whose vague resolves never have been fulfill'd;
> For whom each year we see
> Breeds new beginnings, disappointments new;
> Who hesitate and falter life away,
> And lose to-morrow the ground won to-day."

It would be too much to say that life under these conditions seems to him not worth while; but for the life of the general mass of men he finds only such similes as the eddying of dust, the foaming of waves in midmost ocean, existence in a brazen prison; for the few who escape this common lot of transitory, trivial, and unmeaning tasks, he sees shipwreck, unfulfilled desire and unavailing courage, and his praise is for the fate of the early dead, like Adonais secure "from the contagion of the world's slow stain." If one would sum up briefly the contradiction in Arnold which is the source of this disappointment, melancholy, and confusion, it lies in the intensity with which he feels the pleasure-giving power of the world, his Greek sensuousness, and in the clearness with which he sees the limits of enjoyment, its unsatisfactoriness at best. He reveals it in "Dover Beach":

> "The world which seems
> To lie before us like a land of dreams,
> So various, so beautiful, so new,
> Hath really neither joy, nor love, nor light,
> Nor certitude, nor peace, nor help for pain."

What, then, is his solution of the way life should be led? It is the old Greek reply—resignation, patience. So strongly does he feel this that he intrudes his own grief upon nature and says that she "seems to bear, rather than rejoice."

This brief, incomplete, and general description of the *ensemble* of the poet's sentiment and thought is necessarily unjust, and needs in the reader a familiarity with the poems to correct and supplement its broad statements with the minute modifications for which there is here no space. In none of the poems do all these forces, ideas, and qualities have play at once except in "The Scholar Gypsey" and in "Thyrsis," which are the best work in the volume. In the narrative poems the special convictions and moods of the poet are almost wholly absent and have only an indirect influence, while his poetic faculties have an opportunity for work less morbid and of more universal interest. His sense of form and allegiance to art are here always true; none can fail to notice, for example, the skill with which in "Tristram and Iseult" the too great tragic intensity of the narrative is relieved by the constant softening of it with descriptions of the natural scenes amid which the action goes on, and such charming pictures as that of the sleeping children; or neglect the far-reaching suggestions underlying the expression everywhere, of which, perhaps, the most powerful example is the last couplet of the second part. Besides these there are lyrics and love-songs of exquisite simplicity and melody, sonnets which ring like a trumpet-call, tender elegies, fragments of Greek choruses strong and subtle in thought and art, pictorial power which mirrors natural scenery like a lake. It would be pleasant to linger over these, but enough has been said to indicate the poetic power of Arnold, the characteristics of his conception of life, and his worthiness to be read.

Fine Arts.

DECORATIVE ART SOCIETY'S LOAN EXHIBITION.—II.

THE PICTURES.

THE collection of paintings in the South Gallery and in the corridor near it is but a small one; there are less than a hundred canvases in all. But this is all the better; a hundred frames of the usual sizes fill the walls of this room full enough, or even too full; certainly no one can wish any addition to the eighty-seven which hang there to-day. There is just a fair chance for each one; none are out of sight; none are unduly favored; the line is not so very much better than the second row when, as in this instance, the pictures hung below are not large, and are generally more minute in scale and in finish than those above. And then this collection is really very choice, and includes a less proportion than usual of the pictures which seem to be painted, in Europe, especially for the New York market.

Perhaps half the pictures are French and Belgian; a number are, or seem from style and author's name to be, German and Austrian; three or four are English, at least if Mr. Alma-Tadema and Mr. Boughton are English painters; and a dozen or more are the work of Americans. This last is a small contingent. We are the more glad to see a picture so good

as Mr. Colman's desert landscape, No. 64; whether new or not does not appear, nor to whom belonging. It is an oblong picture of considerable size; through the clouds of dust which their own march raises, the caravan of Algerian merchants is coming toward the spectator; the sun behind them shines hot and dim through the red haze made by the flying sand; but above and beyond this lurid middle-distance the sky is pure and delicate, pleasant in color and full of light. The desert seems to baffle most landscape-painters. Whatever dignity the treeless waste is capable of is generally missed in a picture. But this work of art, simple and straightforward in conception, and painted quietly and with skill sufficient for its purpose, makes the desert interesting and splendid. Mr. Hunt's strong study, No. 79, in which two bathers are getting a chance to dive by the simple process of wading out into neck-deep water, and then climbing one on the other's shoulders—this slightly-painted picture takes the color and light out of some very elaborate pieces of flesh-painting near. These two works stand well for American painting in this exhibition of the work of very strong men of older schools. In the brief space we can allow, mention is possible only of those pictures which, from one reason or another, seem especially to call for remark.

Not often do we see in a public place a picture of the character of No. 60—an upright landscape by M. Jules Dupré, an artist whose work is very rarely seen in our galleries. This picture is a landscape of a character peculiar to that French school which seems to be passing into one more realistic, more faithful to the details of nature, more fond of portraiture of natural scenes. The new men have our sympathies, and are in the right—those are always right who follow nature as they really see and understand her—but they will need to be strong and diligent indeed to make their transcripts of natural scenery and natural effects bear the comparison as works of art with the intense and simple conceptions of their forerunners. In this picture a single rough and irregularly-branching oak rises against a blue sky and white fleecy clouds; beneath it sheep and a grass-grown country lane, and open field beyond; the foreground in deep shadow, from unseen trees near the spectator. Has the color of this picture become darker than it was left by the artist? It seems possible, so profound is the shadow on the near foreground. No matter; it was never in a high key, never a painting of nature's brightest lights, of sunshine, or actual daylight, or the look of green trees in summer, nor of sheep spotted white on green grass. No rural ideas were near the artist, but a conception had seized him, a dream of something fine *as a picture* possessed him; tree and sheep and clouds were parts of the dream, and are painted as they appeared in it. It is essential to the truth of the conception that the tree should be massive and firm and strongly rooted; nor will one who knows trees doubt that Dupré knew them also. Then see how flat the land is. Is not that one of the rarest things in a landscape, that the foreground shall stretch to the very frame, truly horizontal? See how all about this picture other and really excellent landscapes fail in that, and have foregrounds that tumble down hill to the frame. Some natural things the painter felt strongly and cared for, the rest he let go. But it would be too much to assume that he is no student of nature whose thoughts are bent, first of all, on producing a work of art. They are the truest artists, at least, who aim at that, first and last and all the time.

From the Dupré one should go to the admirable pictures by Charles Jacque—pictures which it is delightful to know are in the country. Insignificant little studies of poultry and sheep, good in a small way, but slight, perfunctory, are all of this artist's work that one generally sees—at least in color. As an etcher, and as the founder perhaps of the modern French school of etchers, M. Jacque has a high and deserved reputation, and his work in that line is well known. Of the three sombre and almost tragical landscapes in this gallery, No. 56 is perhaps our favorite, with the scraggy oaks rooted in the rocky soil, and a poor flock of a couple of dozen sheep, with a peasant in his blouse forming the centre of the gloomy landscape. Yes, that is the most impressive Jacque we know. But No. 22 is admirable too, and the smaller, No. 58, ought to be where one could see it better; it is one of the few pictures in the room that one cannot see satisfactorily. Of course the three ought to be hung together, but we have not got so far yet in our loan exhibitions. No. 21 is a picture of a different kind—a glowing, melting, pseudo-Venetian landscape by the Burgundian, M. Felix Ziem. Compared with the solemn landscapes we have been discussing, it seems not to have much meaning; but it is decorative, and is full of a certain pleasant feeling for warm colors.

It is seldom that our picture-lovers are treated with the sight of a good Jules Breton. No. 59 is one: "A Breton Penitent"; life-size, three-quarter length, in profile, she carries a lighted candle three feet long, and is busy with penitential thoughts. The picture is painted in the artist's best manner, which is a right good and sturdy one; the woman is a real peasant, and not a Parisian model masquerading in Breton cap and skirt. Perhaps one figure alone, without background, can never quite represent Jules Breton in his full strength, but his study of one figure is better art than another man's elaborate picture. The little Millet, though, No. 31, a little scrap of a thing under glass, is another of those pictures which need neither size nor elaboration to be great. For so diminutive a study it is surprisingly complete; there is a wonderful deal of Millet in it. Are there no larger and more elaborate pictures by this great master in New York collections? There is one now at Messrs. Knoedler's gallery, and a fine one; there are one or two at Cincinnati; there were several in a private gallery lately broken up; where are now those latest named? They are needed to teach Americans that French art can be serious and simple, that the French art esteemed in France is serious and simple; the painters most popular here are little regarded at home, as a general thing, but we form our judgments of French art from just those reputations that we ourselves have created.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 7, 1878.

The Week.

AS we go to press the election returns show a general Republican victory. In this city Tammany Hall has been beaten by a majority of nineteen thousand votes, and in the State at large seven Republican Congressmen have been gained, and the Assembly is more strongly Republican than for several years past. In New England, Massachusetts elects Talbot by a majority over all, and a heavier plurality over Butler than the most sanguine hoped for. The Democrats divided their votes between the two, but gave the "regular" candidate, Abbott, a creditably small number, say ten thousand. Butler's total, on the other hand, equals 108,000 against Talbot's 134.000. In the Congressional delegation Field takes the place of Dean, or rather retakes the place from which the Democratic House, following Butler's lead, unjustly ousted him. The non-election of Mr. Martin Brimmer is to be regretted, but happily the "main question" is safe in the hands of Mr. Morse, whose honest course pleaded strongly for his retention in his seat. If Loring is defeated in the Sixth District it can be borne. What is really serious, at least as regards the coming municipal election, is the Butler plurality of 2,641 in Boston. In New Hampshire the Republican victory is probably complete. In Connecticut there was no popular election of the Governor, but the complexion of the Legislature ensures the success of the Republican candidate. General Hawley replaces a Democrat in the House of Representatives, and a Republican senator will take Barnum's seat. In Vermont, Barlow, the Democratic Greenbacker, is elected. Pennsylvania is regained to the party by a large plurality, the Greenback party showing but little strength, although it sends Judge Kelley back to the House. New Jersey elects Robeson and gives the Republicans two additional Congressmen. In Maryland there is a gain of one Republican Congressman, while in the South generally there are indications of more indifference in some quarters and greater disruption of parties in others than was anticipated; the Republicans probably lose one Congressman. Virginia sends to the House Gen. Joe Johnston and J. Randolph Tucker. In the West there has been less disturbance by the Greenbackers than was generally feared, and the Republicans gain in Wisconsin and Minnesota, while the Democrats carry Missouri with a gain of three Congressmen. The general result is a gain of fourteen Congressmen by the Republicans, and the next Congress will probably be Democratic by a majority of thirty in the House and of eight in the Senate.

The result of the elections is likely to be very healthy in giving the Republicans practical assurance that in their present stand on the currency question they are on safe and winning ground; in substituting objects that are attainable by legislation, such as financial and administrative reform, for objects that are not attainable by legislation, such as the sudden regeneration of Southern society, which, like all visionary schemes, has of late been a curse to our politics; in satisfying people who were hoping to escape poverty and debt by Government aid that there is no immediate prospect of relief from that quarter. On the other hand, the exceeding agility displayed by certain Republican politicians, of which the Democrats do not seem able to make the slightest show, in dropping useless issues before it is too late, will restore prominence and influence to various persons who seemed likely even a year ago to be banished to that dismal abode of erring statesmen, "the back seat in the rear car." Robeson goes to Congress with all his sins upon him. Mr. Blaine has become the champion of sound finance, and Mr. Conkling has been shouting for hard money with brilliant success, and will probably have another term in the Senate. The Democrats have, in fact, been beaten with every kind of weapon and in every kind of game. Their hand and head both seem to have lost their ancient cunning. In old days, for instance, they would never have allowed themselves to be made the victims of Senator Morton's stroke in securing and sorting their telegrams. The old Republican with the prunella gaiters and gold spectacles, whom the Democratic managers used to find it so easy to "euchre," has in fact disappeared from the scene. His successor is a person of a very different stamp.

The defeat of Kelly and Tammany in the city election, and the election of Mr. Cooper, is a valuable palliative, and will ease the city cancer for a year or two; but that it will give permanent relief it is useless to expect. The defeat of Willis by Mr. L. P. Morton is a special cause of congratulation, as it gives the city one representative in Congress, at least, competent to speak for it and to do it credit. O. B. Potter, whom Kelly put up in Mr. Hewitt's place, and had the impudence to talk of as a valuable defence against "Jimmy" O'Brien, has been defeated, but Jimmy has succeeded, and is actually the "reform" member from a city district, going to fill the place of Mr. Hewitt, one of the most valuable men of late years in public life, and whom in a real reform movement both parties would have united in sending back. Mr. Cooper will bring to his task a high character and high aims, but will probably be able to accomplish more by letting light into dark places than in any other way under the present system.

Governor Wade Hampton has been making a reply to the charge of not having kept his pledges with regard to the intimidation of Republicans in his State, with special reference to the recent disturbances in Sumter County. He went to Beaufort on the joint invitation of both Republicans and Democrats, and delivered an address on the 29th ult., in which he denied that he had in any way failed in his duty or had failed to prevent all outrages by the use of all the power in his hands, and repeated his promises to the colored people in the most solemn manner, while conjuring them to repudiate at once those of their leaders whose rascalities had been exposed. At this point he produced a thick pile of the evidence of the villanies of Smalls, the principal negro leader in Beaufort County, when that person was in the Legislature, showing, among other things, that he had on one occasion sold his vote for $200, and had received $5,000 of what is known in South Carolina as "the printing steal," which we some time ago explained in these columns. The Governor here produced the checks endorsed by Smalls, and invited such colored men in the audience as chose to come forward and inspect the statesman's signature, which a number of them did, and then "shook their heads significantly." On witnessing this dastardly performance, Smalls, who was on the outskirts of the crowd, in company with our old friend Whipper, indignantly disappeared, and was seen no more. It seems a pity that these elementary lessons in political morality cannot be given to the negro by Northern Republicans instead of being left to old Confederates.

Governor Hampton has also produced the Democratic version of the disturbances at Sumter in the shape of a report from General Johnson Hagood, who attended the meeting at his request. According to this, an attempt was made by the Democrats to bring about an amicable arrangement for holding the meeting together, to be addressed by two speakers on each side; but after some discussion this was declined, and two separate meetings were held, about two hundred and fifty yards apart. The Democrats had two guns for saluting purposes, he says, according to immemorial South Carolina usage, and he was told that the Republicans had arms concealed in the church in front of which their platform was erected. The meet-

ings went off peaceably; the Republican negroes flocked into the town, the Democrats following soon after in a procession. Some negroes formed "a mob" and tried to interrupt the procession; the townspeople rang the alarm-bell and called out a company of militia; some "young men" brought up one of the guns and loaded it with nails; there was an interchange of bad language between two white men on the court-house steps, and two revolvers were drawn; but peace was soon restored, and with it good humor, and, except a negro clubbed by a policeman for trying to rescue a prisoner, nobody was hurt. We dare say that this is a substantially true story, and it would not be worth reproducing but for the fact, which does appear through it, that, for some reason or other, the negroes are very nervous, and do hold their meetings under a certain apprehension, and do not like "dividing time" with the Democrats; and General Hagood doubtless could explain why this nervousness exists, and would probably confess that it was not wholly groundless. He mentions, for instance, that the colored county chairman at a precinct meeting had recently been knocked down by a Democratic speaker for "a personal indignity on the stand when the joint discussion was in progress"; and he mentions another case in which a revolver had been drawn on a Republican orator for speaking disrespectfully of Governor Hampton. Things of this kind, small as they may seem, explain why the Radicals do not enjoy "joint discussion," though, considering what South Carolina was ten or even five years ago, they may not excuse the way in which such incidents are magnified and made symptomatic by the Northern press.

A Republican subscriber, writing to us from Tidioute, Pa., complains of our imputations on the Republican managers with regard to the telegrams in the late Presidential canvass, and enquires: "Is it not extraordinary that if there were such telegrams" (*i. e.*, telegrams on the Republican side that would not bear publication), "only those of the Democrats should have been published, the whole lot, both Republican and Democratic, having been collected by a Democratic Committee of the House." To which we reply that the whole lot never were collected by a Democratic Committee of the House. On the contrary, Mr. Orton, representing the telegraph company, refused to surrender them to such committee, and, being driven to the wall, was summoned before the Republican Committee of the Senate, to which he did surrender them, and Senator Morton did then and there secure possession of them, and sorted them, took out what he wanted, and returned the rest to the company, and in this remainder neither the Democratic nor the Republican telegrams were found. The former have appeared in the *Tribune*, and have convicted a portion of the Democratic managers of a disgraceful attempt at fraud and corruption. But the gross evasiveness with which the discussion has been carried on is shown in the pretence lately put forward that the two or three telegrams which the Democrats caught by listening in Florida, and produced before the Potter Committee, and which W. E. Chandler offered to decipher, were the entire Republican correspondence, and that Chandler's proposal to show his account-books proved that he had spent no money in bribery. We do not rate that politician's mental powers highly, but no one can deny him a certain amount of low cunning. We feel quite sure he never kept a corruption account in his ledger.

The unexpected turn given by Mr. Evarts to the Fisheries dispute has apparently produced in both England and this country a momentary forgetfulness of the facts of the case. Stated in a concise form, they are as follows: By the Treaty of 1818 Americans were given fishery rights on certain coasts of British America without reference to the three-mile limit; elsewhere they were excluded from taking fish within that limit. By the Treaty of Washington this exclusion was removed, and the general right to fish in British waters "in common with" British subjects was given without reference to distance from the shores. A reciprocal right was also given to British subjects in American waters north of the 39th parallel. There were besides reciprocal engagements against shell or river fishing. Citizens of both sections acquired a right to land for the purpose of drying and curing fish. The right to import fish and fish-oils into the ports of each nation free of duties was also reciprocally guaranteed. These rights were given for twelve years. By Art. XXII. the compensation to be paid either Government on an estimate of the balance of advantage was left to a commission. This commission afterwards awarded England $5,500,000, which was to be paid within twelve months after the date of award. The award was made in November, 1877. At the last session of Congress an act was passed providing that the money should be given to England, unless, on correspondence between the two Governments, that country should fail to insist upon it. It will be seen, then, that the payment under the Treaty is a payment for a right which we have been enjoying for seven years. We have derived seven-twelfths of the benefit from the Treaty; and as we have bound ourselves to pay $5,500,000 absolutely for the whole right, we clearly are now in Great Britain's debt (even on the theory that the Treaty has been violated and reduced to nullity by the acts of the Canadians) to the extent of seven-twelfths of $5,500,000.

Now Mr. Evarts in his letter to Mr. Welsh takes the unquestionably sound ground that, whatever rights the Treaty gives us, they are not given subject to diminution by local regulation. The law of the fishery question is to be found in the Treaty of Washington and nowhere else. He grants that the language of the Treaty may be held to qualify the absolute character of the right given. American fishermen are not given a right to fish in British waters as in their own, but a right of an equal nature with the British. This equality of right is to be understood in a natural and plain sense, and means that American and British fishermen may enjoy such fishing rights in Canadian waters as the right of fishing generally includes; that is to say, they may take fish in the way that the custom of the pursuit or the necessities of the case require. It would not, for instance, be asserted that American fishermen might go and poison fish wholesale; they must fish as fishermen usually fish. Hence it would follow that reasonable regulations of the times and manner of fishing might be made, provided these affected fishermen of both nations alike, and did not *impair* the Treaty right. Captain Sullivan's report of the Fortune Bay affair represents that certain American fishermen had violated the Newfoundland laws prohibiting fishing on Sunday, fishing between the 20th of October and the 25th of April, and the "barring" of fish (a particular method of catching herring). Mr. Evarts takes the ground that such regulation, if permissible, must be made by a treaty supplementary to the Treaty of Washington; but it looks as if there might be a plausible argument on the other side, to the effect that they are reasonable regulations of a local character for the better preservation of the fish, and really intended not to impair but to carry out the Treaty. The enforcement of a "close season" is surely of this character. But Mr. Evarts has another point in reserve: the fact that these regulations were enforced not judicially, but by "the rage and predominant force of a volunteer multitude," or what common people call a mob. This seems far the stronger point of the two, though it would doubtless be replied that mere mob violence could be corrected by the courts, while legislative infringement of the Treaty cannot. Mr. Evarts's concluding sentence has the air of a threat not to pay the money under the award; but taking all of his language together, we think the payment will be made on the 24th.

The Indian outbreaks of the past year have led General Sheridan to incorporate into his annual report to the Adjutant-General of the Army an extended discussion of the causes and conduct of Indian wars. He shows that since 1869 we have taken from the Indians west of the Missouri River "their country and their means of life, broken up their habits of living," and at last succeeded, after war, in compelling them to remain on reservations, "with their limits circumscribed, their opportunities of hunting abridged, their game disappearing, sickness in their lodges from change of life and food, and this irregularly supplied." He reaffirms the fact that insuffi-

ciency of food has been the principal cause of the recent troubles, both among the Bannocks and Cheyennes, and traces the wars to the natural preference which men have for fighting rather than starvation; further, he prophesies that the same causes will eventually cause the other tribes of the north to rise, and forcibly points out the folly of the Government in limiting the Army to so small numbers when peaceful agricultural and mining communities are rapidly growing up within tempting reach of a sudden Indian blow. The late destruction of life and property by a hundred Cheyenne warriors in an unchecked raid of seven hundred miles is only a faint indication of what loss might result from a rising of thousands at once, when there is, on an average, but one soldier for the protection of every seventy-five square miles of territory. General Sheridan says that, in his opinion, "with wise management the amounts appropriated by Congress ought to be sufficient, if practically applied to the exact purposes specified," to provide supplies according to our treaty obligations, and he thus thrusts the blame upon the Indian Bureau. That is at least a question in dispute, and would have been even in the days of the Bureau's corruption, since the Bureau is constrained by the action of Congress; but it is clear from this report that we are now breaking our treaties and irritating a dangerous foe, while we at the same time leave the property and lives of our citizens defenceless against him.

There was, during the week, considerable improvement in the financial situation in London. The Bank of England gained specie to the amount of £1,200,000, and increased its reserve from 29½ per cent. of liabilities to 33¼ per cent. The actual discount rate fell to 5½ per cent., although not formally changed by the Bank of England. British consols advanced ⅛ to ¼. A good part of the gold which the Bank of England has gained in the last few weeks came from Paris. At the close of the week sterling at Paris did not warrant shipments of coin to London. Here bills on London advanced nearly to the point which takes gold to London, but again declined, so that it is now very doubtful whether we shall export any gold this year; but this depends on the turn that financial affairs in London take. Silver in London advanced to 50½*d.* per ounce, and the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar advanced here to $0.8585 gold, and closed at $0.8507. It is not known whether the Treasury last week bought 400,000 ounces of silver or less. The "public proposals" to sell which were invited by the Treasury are treated as state secrets, and the "public purchases" are a farce. It is notable that investors are showing a marked preference for securities specifically payable in gold. At the Stock Exchange there was an active speculation in stocks. Western Union Telegraph was run up from 96½ to 102 on the report that the assets of the company were to be divided among the shareholders. It declined to 96½ on the denial of the report.

The decision of Secretary Sherman to withdraw from circulation all greenbacks and bank-notes of less denomination than five dollars, though arrived at late, is the most significant step yet taken to counteract the mischief of the Silver Bill and to secure some degree of safety to the proposed resumption of specie payments on the first of January. About $55,000,000 of these small notes are out, performing the necessary functions of pocket-money and retail trade. As fast as they are withdrawn silver dollars must perforce take their place and fill the vacuum in the smaller transactions of the community. In this way all the silver now coined, and two or three times more, can be "floated" without getting in the way of resumption; that is, without creating an apprehension in the minds of the holders of greenbacks that they may shortly be paid off in silver instead of gold, and thus inducing a run upon the Treasury for gold. If the Secretary had adopted this policy when the first batch of silver dollars came from the mint, withdrawing the small notes *pari passu* with the coinage of silver, the problem of resumption would have been much less complicated than it is; and very likely the people would have become sufficiently disgusted ere now with carrying pound-weights in their pockets to discuss the silver question on the principles of avoirdupois, in which case there would have been a chance of repealing the bill or "suspending" it, as they do in France. It was inevitable from the beginning either that the small notes must be withdrawn to make room for the silver dollars or that specie resumption could not last long.

The French elections of delegates to the Senatorial Electoral College seem at this writing likely to result in giving the Republicans a majority in the Senate of twenty-eight, or more than Gambetta anticipated and much more than is necessary to give them complete control of the Government and make the Republic the settled form. M. Gambetta's speech at Grenoble, and especially his allusions to the Senate and his estimate of its importance, continue to cause much discussion, and he has to defend himself against the extreme Radicals, who hate the Senate and deny the need of it, and the Moderates, who are frightened by his somewhat vague talk of raising new "couches sociales" into political power. He explains in his organ, the *République Française*, that he does not advocate making all citizens eligible to all offices, for that has been done long ago, but the use of Government to qualify them by "national instruction and civic education" to fill them with credit. He has succeeded in making M. Léon Say give up the conversion of the five per cents.

M. Cernuschi has been writing to the Paris *Siècle* to say that M. Léon Say proposes to renew the Silver Convention with the Latin Union for six years. Against this, however, the Bank of France protests strongly, as it has now in its vaults $200,000,000 in silver, and of these $60,000,000 are foreign coins of which it desires to be rid. The probabilities are that the Convention will not be renewed, and that the present suspension of silver coinage will continue. The news from India is also very alarming for the silver-men, as the disorder introduced into the finances there by the depreciation of the metal is so great that a heroic treatment seems to be called for, and the adoption of the gold standard is already talked of. All these things, especially since the reassuring result of the late elections, seems to point to the necessity of a vigorous effort on our part to suspend the operation of the Act of last session, and decide once for all that the standard of the civilized world is our standard. If India demonetizes, we and China shall be the only two great countries adhering to the money of the ancient Hebrews.

The Porte, in spite of the remonstrances of the British ambassador, sent some time ago an almost insulting despatch to Austria, declaring that, the Austrian occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina having been marked by unnecessary violence and bloodshed and gross atrocities, the Sultan would not sign any Convention, as he would thereby be seeming to give his sanction to the slaughter and maltreatment of unoffending Mussulmans. It could not have rendered Count Andrássy a better service, as the attack on the army, in which the population of all parts of the Empire is represented, of course irritated even the Magyars, and destroyed all sympathy for the Turks; and it gave the count an excuse for writing a savage and crushing answer, in which he tells the Turks that their charges are "contrary to the truth"; that there is no evidence in support of them; that the conduct of the Austrian army has been good and humane, in spite of the fact that it has had to repel the attacks of "untamable savages"; that anyhow it contrasts favorably with the cruelty of Omer Pasha, commanding the Sultan's army against the Begs in 1851–2; reminds the Porte that if Austria had chosen to call on the Christians to rise the Mussulmans would have been exterminated, and that the latter therefore owe their lives to the forbearance of the occupying Government. In fact, it is doubtful whether a more contemptuous and insolent despatch has ever been addressed to an independent Government; but no one says it was not richly deserved. The Porte seems to take it in good part, for, on receiving it, it assured Austria of its friendly feelings; but its folly has destroyed the last hope of any recognition of the Sultan's authority in the provinces.

THE LATE REVOLT AGAINST THE BOSS.

THE municipal election of last Tuesday is worthy of more attention than it has probably received, owing to the illustration it affords of the permanence of the Boss type of municipal government and the increasing strength of its hold on the popular mind. It made its appearance in this city in less than ten years after the adoption of the present State Constitution, in the person of Fernando Wood, but in his time was regarded as a mere passing monstrosity which could be easily got rid of either by a popular uprising or by the interference of the Legislature. Both expedients were tried against him, and successfully. A good deal of the local administration was transferred to commissions, and a powerful popular opposition was organized which resulted in the defeat of Wood at the polls in 1858 by Daniel F. Tiemann. There was a great deal of hope and enthusiasm in the movement, because it was supposed that it would put an end to the Wood kind of political adventurer, and money was easily raised for it from "the property-holders and substantial men." Wood speedily got back again, however, and then the war drew away the attention of all honest men from municipal affairs. Under cover of this neglect Tweed began to lay broad and deep the foundations of the new régime. He was its Augustus, Wood having been its Julius Cæsar, and by 1870 he was in the enjoyment of absolute power, and disposed of the city revenues almost at his pleasure. The uprising against him is fresh in everybody's recollection. It was very successful and roused great enthusiasm, and its result was again supposed to be a final riddance of the Boss type of government. Within three or four years of Tweed's fall, however, after a kind of interregnum, his successor reappeared in the person of John Kelly —honester, to be sure, but armed with essentially the same power and influence, and the object of the same kind of denunciations. Kelly decides, as Tweed did, who shall fill the various city offices, who shall represent the city in Congress, who shall fill vacancies on the judicial bench, what the city outlay and income shall be, and in what manner the expenditures shall be distributed, and nevertheless he keeps up all the forms of popular government. There is, as usual, a Mayor and Common Council, but they are simply the registrars of his decrees. Behind him there is the Tammany General Committee, which has all the appearance of a popular representation, but is in reality composed of his creatures. There could not be a more striking illustration of his power than was furnished before the late election by the report of the Committee of the Municipal Society appointed to look into the character of his nominees for the aldermen. They were almost all grogshop-keepers, and were almost all criminals—that is, persons charged with, noted for, or convicted of criminal offenses—and each, it was alleged, had a weakness for a different form of crime. One had committed manslaughter, another rape, another had sold offices, another kept a gambling-house, and so on. These charges may not all have been true; but in the selection of a body of men against whom they were made for the municipal legislature Kelly showed the almost unexampled strength and largeness of his authority. We can recall no previous case in which a despot has filled the high offices of his state with ignorant thieves and cutthroats. In fact, the American Boss is the first dictator on record to make no pretence of respect for the bases of civilization in the organization of his government—a circumstance which from one point of view is greatly to his credit, as it argues frankness and sincerity.

The weakness of the Boss system lies in the inability of the Boss to satisfy all his supporters—or, in the dialect of the régime, "to make the offices go round"; and the revelation of this has led to a new form of attack on him, of which the Republicans have, ever since the overthrow of the Tweed Ring and the rapid growth of the Democratic majority, shown a disposition to avail themselves, and to which they resorted in the election of this week. Enormous as Kelly's patronage is, and the patronage of a Boss in fact has to be, it falls far short of the needs of his voters. For scores of the captains he cannot find even petty clerkships, and for tens of thousands of the rank and file who expect to be remunerated for their support he cannot find labor even at a dollar a day. The consequence is that he is constantly troubled with a Fronde of greater or less magnitude and malignity, who array themselves against him, not on the pretence of desiring better government than he provides, but for the avowed reason that he has not divided fairly. It was a secession of this sort on the part of "Jimmy" O'Brien—a gentleman who is reported to have begun his political career, like the late lamented Morrissey, in the criminal class—that brought Tweed to his ruin, and Kelly's power carries with it the same seeds of dissolution. Were the Boss an independent sovereign, he would dispose of these malcontents by decapitation or deportation, but, protected as they are by their United States citizenship, he is compelled to endure their presence and encounter them at the polls. Of late years the friends of reform, having tried most other devices unsuccessfully, have resigned themselves to the melancholy alternative of making common cause with these seceders, who usually belong to a type morally inferior to the Boss himself and his adherents. After Tweed's overthrow the Republicans were on the point of trying to rout Tammany by nominating "Jimmy" O'Brien for the Mayoralty, though we believe he is unable to read or write with any facility, and had, in his beginnings, a reasonable dread of the police. They afterwards took up Morrissey as the great municipal deliverer, and nothing more curious has occurred in our recent political history than the efforts of even respectable Republican papers to qualify him for his office, criminal as he was down to his death, by turgid accounts of the kindliness of his disposition and his strict truthfulness. Had he lived we should probably have witnessed this year an attempt to put him in the field for the Mayoralty as a reform candidate.

The selection of a man of Mr. Cooper's standing and character for the purpose, from among the opponents of Tammany and the Boss, must be considered a piece of good luck—a lucky accident the recurrence of which cannot be counted on. In using the Anti-Tammany element as an instrument of reform at all the reformers cannot, however, confine themselves to men like Mr. Cooper. They have to accept and work with what is probably the basest and most degraded element in city politics—the class which the Boss cannot satisfy or which he finds too worthless to reward; and no thoughtful friend of good government can look on the alliance with anything but disgust and despondency, even if it occasionally results in things as good as the election of Mr. Cooper. In fact, it is proving, and must eventually prove, the source of subtle and fatal injury to all healthy public sentiment with regard to the cause and cure of municipal misgovernment. When the Republican press takes up, as it has to do in order to make the alliance work, some of the worst characters in city politics, and tries to put a good face on them, to embellish their past history, and make their scanty virtues cover their gross and notorious vices and rascalities, it of course strikes a blow at that popular respect for character to which, no matter how loose our legislation may be, we must look as the last resort for any real and permanent improvement in municipal administration. The whitewashing of men like O'Brien and Morrissey is, call it what we may, a terrible price to pay even for the defeat of Tammany and overthrow of Kelly; in fact, it can only be defended as a resort of despair.

The argument, which is freely used, that, even if we cannot get rid of the Boss, by defeating him occasionally by the aid of any instruments within our reach we shall make him cautious and timid and thus diminish his powers of mischief, might be sound if it were possible to repeat the process very often; but the truth is this policy defeats itself. It is a fight against the best sentiment of the community. Decent people may be cajoled once or twice into joining forces with the Boss's disappointed and disgusted adherents, and pretending to think well of them, but the evanescence of all good wrought in this way, and the degradation of having helped to put jail-birds in office, which the sober second thought brings home after election, not only make an indefinite repetition of the combination difficult or impossible, but deepen that

despair about the city government which is every year penetrating further into the tax-paying body. There has been less enthusiasm in the Cooper movement than in any similar movement before, and less money raised for it; and for the simple reason that less result is every year expected from fighting the devil with fire. The Tammany devil does not really mind fire. What really alarms him is holy water, and if there be not enough of this left in the city to give him an adequate sprinkling, we might as well let him have his way, in default of a radical change in the system by which he lives. It is a notable sign of the times that the rejection of the recently-proposed amendments of the Municipal Commission, to which both parties contributed, has not been followed on either side by the suggestion of any substitute, or by the slightest manifestation of interest in the most serious of existing problems—the government of our cities.

THE WORK FOR PEACE SOCIETIES.

THE late International Peace Congress in Paris was sufficiently successful to show that faith in establishing universal peace by what may be called mechanical contrivances—such as the creation of courts of arbitration and the draughting of rules for government of disputants when they get angry—has not, in spite of all the recent discouragements, greatly abated; but the futility of such efforts was curiously illustrated by the fact that the exercises were closed by an address from M. Richard, in which he made what must have been to Russians a most exasperating attack on Russia for going to war recently with Turkey. It is such criticism, and the spirit from which such criticism proceeds, that does most in our time to bring wars about; and to find it showing itself at the meeting of the friends of peace is a valuable exemplification of the difficulties with which they have to contend. The truth is, and every day shows it more and more clearly, that they do not begin their operations far enough back, and do not adapt their language to the great change which has within fifty years come over the government of states. They talk now as they might have talked in the last century—that is, as if the foreign policy of great states was still moulded by sovereigns and courtiers, and wars set on foot to gratify the pride or humor the whims of individuals. Vigorous hortatory denunciation delivered from a higher moral plane was perhaps a good enough weapon to use against such enterprises, but this was because it was supposed to have the opinion of the civilized world behind it. In our day wars are all, or nearly all, the expression of popular rather than of princely feeling, and have actually increased in number and in magnitude since the people began to take the management of their affairs into their own hands. It is to this supremacy of popular control, in fact, that we owe the increasing disposition of each nation to regard its own wars not, as formerly, in the light of simple displays of prowess, but of missionary enterprises, carried on for the moral and physical elevation of the race, and for that reason likely to be specially favored by Providence. Territory is conquered in our day not to give the conqueror pleasure or add to his power, as in the old days, but to improve the condition of the conquered, and make them the recipients of "blessings" of various sorts. It is on this missionary theory that the British Empire in India now rests; it is by it that the Russians justify their advances in Central Asia, their attacks on Turkey, and the Germans the annexation of Alsace and Lorraine. It is, for instance, only by considering the British Empire in India a regenerating instrument of incalculable usefulness that British tutelage of such a rotten concern as the Turkish Empire can be defended, or that a Christian gentleman like Sir Henry Elliot, the late British Ambassador at Constantinople, could be brought to say that even if 20,000 or 30,000 Bulgarians were massacred it made no difference, as long as it was settled British policy to uphold the Turkish Empire.

To say that these professions are hypocritical would be childish. A whole people cannot play the hypocrite. When a nation loudly proclaims its belief that its own wars are valuable moral agencies, we must, for practical purposes, assume that they are sincere. The steady refusal of a large and influential portion of the British press to give foreign nations credit for this sincerity has become a disturbing force in politics of considerable power, and really deserves, more than any other phenomenon of the day, the attention of the friends of peace. The late civil war in this country came near receiving a frightful extension by the furiously denunciatory attitude towards the Northern people assumed by English society and its organs. The effort to save the Union was persistently ascribed to the basest motives; the leading men engaged in it were denounced as monsters, and the Northern troops as brigands capable of any atrocity, and the bloodshed was mourned over as if it were a new horror introduced into human society by the Yankees. In fact, as nearly every American traveller who visited England between 1860 and 1865 had occasion to remember, Americans were treated as persons under the dominion of a new order of motives of which nothing was known in English history, and as carrying on war under novel conditions and with novel aims, and whose guilt was so flagrant that they were passionately expected to confess it even at dinner-tables.

The weight of the blow struck by all this at the cause of peace can hardly be overestimated. Had a similar outburst of hostility been indulged in against any of the great military monarchies it must almost certainly have resulted in war. The gravity of it is not lessened by the change which English opinion has since undergone with regard to American affairs. On the contrary, this change seems to show that facts are no defence against this furious prejudice—that it may rage for years in defiance of them. This tendency to frenzied views of foreign affairs seems, too, in spite of the experience in the case of America, to have lost none of its force; for it has shown itself with equal virulence regarding Russia. The leading English Tory papers have now for two years, in the teeth of the most notorious facts of contemporary history, been treating the Russian Government as worse than that of Turkey, and bewailing the fate of people who pass from the latter to the former; and such facts (of which there are hundreds) as the rise of real estate three hundred per cent. in Batum since its transfer, make no impression on them. The Russian soldiers and officers, too, have been denounced almost in the same terms of abuse as were heaped on those of the United States fifteen years ago; and, indeed, they are accused of almost the same crimes, and on about the same kind of evidence. In 1865, after the surrender of Lee, one of the leading Tory papers gave a minute account of the hangings and confiscations with which the North was celebrating its victory, and the year before the *Saturday Review* commented with proper severity, but without a shadow of doubt, upon the ravishing of a lady's boarding-school in Tennessee by a Federal regiment, with the connivance of the officers—a sort of offence which the Russians, we are told, are now repeating in the Rhodope region with equal audacity. The accounts with which the English press has been filled of late of the character of Turkish government are shocking, but they seem to have no influence whatever on the analyses one finds in adjoining columns of the motives of the Russians in attacking the Turks. If English-speaking men and women were exposed to such a rule it would have been overthrown long ago by righteous English fury and sympathy, without much regard to the Sultan's sovereignty; but it seems to be absolutely incomprehensible in London drawing-rooms and newspaper offices that Russians should feel a glow of the same generous indignation for their kinsfolk in blood and religion.

What is perhaps most curious of all is that the progress of Russia in Central Asia is every day described as a record of amazing rapacity and unscrupulousness, the mere contemplation of which is enough to rouse the wrath of the mildest moralist; and yet it would puzzle the acutest moralist to point out in what it differed, either as to motive or means, from the construction of the British Empire in India, the story of which no Englishman reads without justifiable pride. It is this passionate love of a Pecksniffian treatment of foreign questions which is just now one of the greatest obstacles to peace and disarmament, and there is no way in which the Peace Society could work so effectually as in counteracting it, by making trustworthy and impartial reports on subjects of angry controversy.

It would not be easy work to do, but it would, if it succeeded ever so little, be more effective than denunciations of all armed aggression, even such as that which drove Austria out of Italy, and raised Bulgaria from the rank of a harem garden to that of a civilized state.

DUMAS'S 'ENTR' ACTES.'—II.

PARIS, October 18, 1878.

I LEFT the "Entr' Actes" of Alexander Dumas, *fils*, in the year 1848, having shown the Dumas of that period full of anger against the men of the 24th February, who had proclaimed the Republic on the barricades; and at the time of the first Presidential election Dumas took sides against General Cavaignac, who had conquered the Socialist insurgents of June, the predecessors of the Communists of 1871. It was enough for him that Cavaignac was the son of one of the famous members of the Convention of 1793. Louis Napoléon was then only a name, but there is much in a name, and Dumas knew it. It is very singular, I might say it is very sad, to read at the distance of thirty years the promises which Dumas made then in his "Letters of a Provincial," in the name of Prince Louis: "France is convinced that the name which he bears will only inspire him with lofty ideas; she is convinced that God would not have taken him from prison and exile if he had not hidden designs on him; she builds her hopes on her memory; she is advised by her superstitions." . . . "He loves the people, and the people love him; is this not as good a guarantee of order and tranquillity as the 80,000 men and the guns which Cavaignac holds ready against insurrection?"

Louis Napoléon was elected, and everybody knows the rest. We do not find a line written by Dumas on politics during the long period of the Empire. It was the time when Dumas, still almost unknown in 1849, notwithstanding his name, built up his reputation as a dramatist. He had enough to do with his representations of his own pieces, from the "Dame aux Camélias" to the "Idées de Madame Aubray"; the great representation of the Empire was one in which he had no part. His sympathies were, however, with a régime under which he gained reputation and wealth, which was somewhat theatrical, and which left the men of 1848 in the shade of oblivion. The drama ended in 1870, and Dumas felt moved again to write on politics. He published a pamphlet under the title, "A New Letter of Junius." When he heard that Germany and France were quarrelling, he bought the photographs of Bismarck, of King William, of the Prince Royal, of Prince Frederic Charles, and of Queen Augusta. He did not send in his retirement for the photograph of Madame Bismarck, for, says he authoritatively, "Madame de Bismarck has not and cannot have any influence on the man of whom she bears the name." His analysis of Bismarck from the photograph is amusing (you must remember that this "Letter of Junius" was written at the very beginning of the war and before Paris was besieged). He infers many, many things from his study: Bismarck is a *man* ("Oh, oh! voilà un homme!"); he has no ambition, his celebrity is often an annoyance to him; he has wished to be a superior man to console himself for his incapacity to be a happy man. He is strong before men, and shows a great will, but when alone he has often said to himself "À quoi bon?" especially when his physical forces have failed him. After this analysis, Dumas undertakes to convince Bismarck that he must make peace at once. I cannot say that his reasons are very powerful; he continues in reality the study of the photograph. He sees in it that Bismarck is superior to a vulgar patriotism. "The more I study this face the more I see a singular compound: the highest and purest ideal and the coarsest manifestations. This man is what in the Kabala is called a *damné*. He has an exalted, almost virginal, devotion for the good, the beautiful, the just; he has softness, kindness, veneration, and (who among us would believe it?) good faith. He only deceives *à son corps défendant*, when somebody tries to be more cunning than himself. With a sincere man he is, or tries to be, perfectly sincere." There are many more things to be found, it seems, in this photograph, and it would perhaps amuse the Chancellor of Germany to find how suggestive this image becomes in the eyes of M. Dumas. He would probably shrug his shoulders at some things; some others would perhaps seem to him like a divination.

Dumas places the portrait of Louis Napoléon by the portrait of Bismarck. He remarks with reason that

"The man who was considered for twenty years the most cunning of statesmen was in reality one of the most *naïf* [there is no word that can well translate *naïf*, a mixture of simplicity, of candor, and of stupidity]. All his life proves it, from the attempt at Strasbourg to the declaration of war against Prussia. His friendships, his love-affairs especially, denote the simplicity of a child. His only cunning, and it came from his temper, consisted in saying nothing in a country where everybody speaks. He was not only *naïf*, he was sentimental. He could never get rid entirely of the maternal romance [this is an allusion to 'Partant pour la Syrie, le bel et beau Dunois, etc.,' which had become a national air under the Empire, and was always played when the sovereign appeared], and his warlike tastes were only of the musical order. He was not, however, wanting in courage. He opposed more than courage to danger; he opposed to it indifference—he did not believe in it; he was convinced that he had a star, a peculiar destiny, and that he would not die without having accomplished it. . . . He hated bloodshed, notwithstanding what may be said of the 2d December, which he wished to be absolutely pacific, but which could not be so with our people. This horror of blood made him sign the peace at Villafranca and the surrender at Sedan. You will find the same proceedings in defeat and in victory. He was the same everywhere. Sedan is Villafranca reversed."

I can hardly agree with Dumas when he goes so far as to say that the Emperor Napoléon did not form any combinations, that he had not read Machiavel, and did not understand the outside world; that he was, in fact, "a sphinx without an enigma." That he was a fatalist is true, and, like all fatalists, he was in the end broken by the iron hand of destiny. But he did write in his youth the 'Idées Napoléoniennes.' I have just had under my eyes a copy of this book, which he timidly and respectfully offered to the beautiful Madame Récamier. He took the trouble to think, if he did not always well understand the forces with which it was his ambition to deal. Dumas comes nearer the truth when he writes:

"No sovereign (and two plébiscites are there to prove it) ever had such occasions to immortalize himself. He had on France a letter of unlimited credit. . . . A transition man, who was to lead France from one state to another state completely opposed to the first, he has been that doubtful shade and that uncertain light called the twilight, under which all objects take the strangest and the most varied forms. . . . Napoleon III. has remained all his life hesitating between what was going to die and what was about to be born, unwilling to retrograde in the night and not daring to jump into the day, darkened by the middle-age theories of which he was the last incarnation, blinded by the rays of the future. . . . He was no focus himself. He was one of the lights which are extinguished by the rays of the sun."

He then defends the Emperor from the reproach of not having favored the budding of great talents. Sovereigns have not much to do with talents. Louis XV. could not extinguish Voltaire. There was nothing to extinguish under Napoleon III.

"If M. Thiers had been willing to advise the Emperor in his Cabinet, instead of scolding him from the tribune, M. Thiers would have perhaps saved France. He was a great historian, a great philosopher, a great politician. It is true that by saving France M. Thiers would have strengthened the Empire, and that was not in his ideas. *Tant pis.* I believe that the true statesmen are not those who attack the power, but those who use it and cover themselves modestly with it in order to accomplish what they could not accomplish in their name alone."

Here we find the true theory of the school to which M. Dumas visibly belongs. He is a positivist in politics, and believes in no dogmas or constitutions. A sovereign is in his eyes an instrument for the statesman.

"If the sovereign is weak, it is all the better; the Richelieus are made for the Louis Thirteenths; the George Thirds are made for the Pitts. Only, the Richelieus and the Pitts are men of genius; to be a man of genius is the difficult thing. . . . We have dismissed our George III.; where is our Pitt? We are delivered of our Louis XIII.; where is our Richelieu? But look at this man with the ironical smile, the deep eye, who, notwithstanding the consciousness of his strength, because of that consciousness has not upset the power, but has screened himself behind it, and who says to you, now that his work is done, 'Gentlemen, where is the power with whom one may treat?'"

That power was found in the end, notwithstanding the resistance of Gambetta to the elections, in a Chamber, and peace was signed. On the subject of peace Dumas makes sentimental prophecies. He says to Germany that there are triumphs which are, so to speak, irreparable. "You had only prepared this formidable war because you felt that an invincible love of peace was coming. You have helped us to kill war. Humanity cannot for ever spend its life behind guns—the men on the drilling-ground, the women making cartridges; sending their children at the age of seventeen in front of the guns and under the rain of the shells. Before twenty years have passed, men—even Germans—will refuse to go to war without knowing why." But hear this tragic prophecy: "I am not Cassandra, but I think that I can predict to the King of Prussia, as did Priam's daughter so justly and so vainly to the King of Argos, that he will die a violent death in his own country. . . . Sire, take care of Karl Sand! *Cave, Cæsar, mortui te salutant!*" Did ever Nobiling read these lines?

"Facts having proved that the men who tried to kill Louis-Philippe and the Emperor Napoléon III. did not appear in advance of the justice of the people, political assassination will cease to be a crime—it will be a mission; and the assassin will only answer his own conscience. . . . The assassin of a king will not be a murderer; he will be a precursor, and only condemned if he fails. . . . Assassination! This is the deplorable form, but the logical and peremptory form, which will be assumed by the universal revolution."

I will not even give a short account of the very unbecoming portraits which Dumas draws, always from his photographs, of Prince Frederic Charles and of the Empress Augusta. It is really extraordinary to find in the same essay pages which are deplorable in every respect, and other pages revealing as much beauty of style as depth of sentiment and of intelligence. We must make every allowance for the state of mind of the writer in this unfortunate year 1870; but I can hardly pardon the want of dignity of some of his remarks, when he speaks of the enemies of France. I can pardon him better when, in the hour of the defeat and degradation of his country, he begins the most enthusiastic praise of France. Chauvinism, as we call it, is pardonable, is generous, is noble after Sedan, if it is ridiculous after Solferino. Dumas ends by prophesying the universal Republic in Europe, in a Biblical style:

"And all the thrones will fall as if the earth was trembling, and the crowns will roll into the sea. And the kings will shriek loudly and run towards the pole; and there will be no more any France, nor England, nor Germany, nor Russia, nor this people and that other people: there will be but one family, the human kind; one object, truth; one master, love; one need, harmony; one method, which will be work; one law, which will be justice. And of these things three-fourths will be accomplished before the end of the century, and the last fourth in the first half of the next century" (December 20, 1870).

With all its alloy this "Letter of Junius" deserves to be read, as well as the long "Lettres sur les choses du jour" (dated June 6, 1871, and January 21, 1872), which follow and end the second volume of these "Entr' Actes."

THE PHILOSOPHY OF THE FUTURE.

BERLIN, September 24, 1878.

IN revisiting the representative German universities of Bonn, Leipsic, and Berlin, after an absence of nearly a decade, one is impressed by nothing more than by the changes which have taken place in philosophical sentiment and opinion. Hartmann, who had enthusiastic admirers in every students' club, is now to a great extent ignored. Lotze, who found great favor in all academic circles, has passed into history. Trendelenburg is dead, and deductive logic, which he made attractive to crowds of hearers, has fallen into comparative neglect. The Hegelism of Michelet has degenerated into fanaticism, while Zeller and Erdmann have still further qualified their earlier allegiance to the great master. Althaus, J. B. Meyer, and Kuno Fischer lecture on modern philosophy as before. The influence and authority of Kant have everywhere steadily increased, while Hegel's sun sinks still lower in his native land as it rises upon England and the Western world.

While the traditional philosophical disciplines have thus declined, philosophical questions have come to attract a deeper and more general attention than perhaps ever before even in Germany. The foundation of religious feeling, the essence, origin, and development of language, art, criticism, etc., have been discussed so thoroughly that each of these departments has opened more fully and distinctly than in England and America into the region of experimental psychology. The same in less degree is true even of history and social science. Courses of lectures on physics are introduced by the discussions of logical methods and of the problems and conditions of knowledge, and although it is felt more and more generally that the first principles of all science—even of mathematics—are provisional, there is no longer any war of hypotheses between chemistry, physiology, the science of light, sound, heat, etc. In testing first principles and in harmonizing if not organizing the special sciences, it is clearly seen that philosophical methods have a wider scope than ever before.

The new Philosophy of the Future, as it has been derisively called, took its rise in the physiological laboratory, and for a quarter of a century assumed to do no more than to investigate the conditions and mechanism of the senses, and the properties of nervous and muscular tissue. Thence it passed to anatomy, and finally to the study of the functions of the different parts of the spinal cord and brain. Even Ludwig, one of the ablest and most conservative of physiologists, has at last planned a very elaborate series of observations on the functions of the corpora quadrigemina. All these tendencies are now best epitomized in the writings of Professor Wundt, who is unquestionably the coming philosopher in Germany. Nearly twenty years ago he saw the value of physiology as a philosophical propædeutic, and applied himself with great vigor to laboratory work and to compilation, and at length published a comprehensive text-book on physiology, which he has just revised in a new edition. Familiarity with the principles of physics is indispensable to the physiologist, and these next occupied his attention for several years till the publication of his hand-book of medical physics, and his treatise on physical axioms. Like Herbert Spencer's psychology, his 'Physiologische Psychologie' summarizes, and, to a great extent, systemizes, the results of vast fields of special research. Though his style is as heavy and tedious as Spencer's is clear and impressive, though he lacks the latter's boldness of conjecture, and still more his great fondness of bringing the universe under one set of formulæ, yet his knowledge of the history of philosophy, the principles of philology, and of all the details of methods and results of the anatomy and physiology of the senses and the nervous tracts and centres, is so much more extensive, that no one who has sympathetically studied both writers can hesitate to ascribe the greater philosophical acumen and significance to the Leipsic professor. Nor is this all. In his 'Mechanik der Nerven,' his last publication, Wundt gives the result of a long series of experiments, extending through several years, in which the methods of irritation by constant and intermittent currents are applied in a most original and ingenious way to investigate the processes of reflex action and of central innervation.

We venture to characterize in the briefest form a few of the positions of the new philosophy. Systems of thought should be studied sympathetically, but critically—from the outside as it were, and never from the standpoint of discipleship. Those philosophers who have had no distinct "school" are best understood. Hegel first in the modern world elaborated the monistic view of the universe, towards which, as opposed to dualism, the leading scientific minds, with few exceptions, now strive. Dialectics is a veritable principle, not of logic, but of sensation. Kant made an epoch by rightly insisting that the forms of time and space, as well as the categories, exist only in us, but he failed to explain *how* they arise. In other words, he elaborated the *Erkentnisstheorie* and left the psychological part of the problem unsolved. To this latter, which in some sense, indeed, conditions the former, Wundt addresses himself. The relations between the outer and inner life, between motion and sensation, or extensive and intensive magnitudes, cannot at present be mathematically formulated in the sense of either Herbart or Fechner, yet it is these relations which are kept steadily in view in his admirable summary of the conclusions of recent investigations respecting the growth, structure, and functions of nervous tissue, the special senses, and, finally, the brain itself.

Of the theory of the specific energy of nerves propounded by Müller, countenanced by Kant's 'Critique,' and now very widely accepted in whole or in part, Wundt is the ablest antagonist. Differences of nervous functions, he urges, depend solely upon the connections of tracts and centres, and very little upon inner structure. Even these connections are determined by experience and environment. The similarity of all nervous substance in form, and in physical and chemical properties, shows that the theory of aboriginal specific differences must give place to the notion of a gradual development. In the adult, no doubt, every distinct function has a distinct, though not exclusive, place in the central organism, yet the laws of vicarious action in disease and of multiplex representation, as well as the comparative non-specialization of functions now proved to exist in the brain of young animals, all show that here the philosophy of evolution confronts an immense problem, in the solution of which anatomy is to have a far greater significance than has hitherto been suspected in explaining the genesis of intelligence.

Whenever any nerve is irritated, a part of the excitation causes inner or molecular changes in the nerve itself, and part finds expression in "outer work," rise of temperature, muscular contraction, etc. By irritating a simple nerve-muscle preparation with a constant and an intermittent current at the same time, Wundt was able partially to isolate the former or inhibitory function, and thus to estimate how much force became latent, or was stored up for future work, at each instant during the course of a single muscular twitch. In the nerve-fibre the outer, in the ganglion-cell the inner, work preponderates. Fatigue or narcotics increase irritability, especially the latter. Every normal sensation and, under certain conditions, even motion, both of which, it is postulated, must be grounded on purely mechanical laws, furthers thus the accumulation of energy in the nervous system. The quantum of "unstable equilibrium," possible and actual, is thus great in proportion as the active

responses to impressions from without are deliberate, intense, and prolonged. These researches afford us the deepest and most significant insight into the physical nature of psychic processes that science has yet been able to obtain, and give still further countenance to the view that, in proportion as conditions can be controlled, physiological, if not indeed psychological, results approach mathematical uniformity and accuracy.

Omitting Wundt's exhaustive and original treatment of feeling, of the special senses, of dreams and hallucinations, attention, instinct, association, reflexes, etc., we have space only to refer to his theory of gestures. These he classes according to their origin, as, 1, Changes due to direct innervation. Every emotion or conception increases or diminishes muscular tension in various parts of the body, especially the face and hands. Blushing, fainting, and the secretion of tears are for the most part purely physiological, mechanical, and independent of the control of the will. 2, Changes due to association of similar sensations. Sour is tasted at the edge of the tongue, and causes the lips and cheeks to be drawn toward either side and away from the sensitive parts of the gustatory surface. Bitter is tasted at the back of the tongue and on the soft palate, and is swallowed while the latter is raised and the former depressed. Sweet, on the other hand, causes the tip of the tongue where it is perceived to be pressed against the lips, that the agreeable sensation may be intensified and prolonged. All impressions which cause feelings that are in any way analogous to these three fundamental tastes come finally to be expressed by similar positions of the mouth. The mimesis of the nostrils is treated in the same manner. The eyes are strained open and the ball slightly protruded to catch impressions in comparative darkness or towards objects which excite pleasurable interest, or they are nearly closed to exclude too intense light. Hence, by the principle of association, the expressions of the upper part of the face are developed. 3, The relations of motion to sense-perception. If the object is present, it is designated by a nod or a movement of the hand; if not, it is imagined as present or described in pantomime. In attention, the eye is fixed on a fancied object; in surprise, it is suddenly closed, etc. The wrinkles on the forehead and the position of the eyebrows are in fixed association with ocular expressions. Language is only the most specialized and perfect form of gesture, and is developed according to these three laws. Words, like gestures, are either demonstrative or predicative. Syntax primitively arranges expressions according to the order in which they interest the speaker. This is mainly determined by the eye, while impressions which come through the ear can only affect the *form* of the word.

The breadth of the field which Professor Wundt has opened to the student of philosophy, his systematic organization of scientific results, the fertility of his suggestions, the new logical methods which he has applied and is now putting into symmetrical form, his acquaintance with and vigorous criticism of Mill, Spencer, Bain, Darwin, etc., all combine to make him deserving of more attention than he has yet received outside his own country, and indicate more, perhaps, than the writings of any of his contemporaries the direction which philosophical thought is likely to take during the next decade.

Correspondence.

'THROUGH THE KEEP-IT-DARK CONTINENT.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following paragraph appears in the New York papers:

"Messrs. Harper & Brothers, of this city, have brought a suit in the United States District Court for the Southern District of Ohio against Robert Clarke & Co., of Cincinnati, for an infringement of the copyright laws in the sale of a Canadian edition of Stanley's recent work on Africa. The book was published in one volume by the Rose-Belford Publishing Company of Toronto, and Messrs. Clarke & Co. sold thirty-five copies of this edition previous to the publication by the Messrs. Harper. The parties are friendly and the suit is brought to test the validity of Stanley's American copyright."

In reference to the above will you please allow us to say that we have not published Mr. Stanley's book on Africa? It was published here by one Magurn. What we did issue was a *brochure* from the pen of Mr. F. C. Burnand, of London, entitled 'Through the Keep-it-Dark Continent,' a humorous burlesque, of about a hundred pages, on Mr. Stanley's great work. We hope you will allow us to make this denial in the columns of your widely-circulated journal. Yours, very respectfully,

Rose-Belford Pub. Company.

Toronto, 31st October, 1878.

Notes.

SIDNEY S. RIDER, Providence, continues his Rhode Island Historical Tracts with No. 4, Dr. Henry E. Turner's 'William Coddington in Rhode Island Colonial Affairs'; and his Personal Narratives of the Battles of the Rebellion with No. 4, a very graphic account of the loss of the *Monitor*, and No. 5, 'Kit Carson's Fight with the Comanche and Kiowa Indians.'——Macmillan & Co. have in press a new edition of Waterton's 'Wanderings in South America,' edited with illustrations by the Rev. J. G. Wood.——Scribner & Co. send us bound volumes of their monthly for 1877-78, and of *St. Nicholas* for the same period. Nothing need be said of the pictorial excellence of these publications, and our readers have had our current opinion of the magazine as issued. In saying that *St. Nicholas* surpasses all its rivals we waive the question of the advantage of juvenile periodicals.——The Authors' Publishing Company announce 'Our Wedding Gifts,' by Amanda M. Douglas; 'In Dead Earnest,' by Julia A. Breckinridge; and 'Linda,' by Mrs. H. L. Crawford.——The *American Naturalist* for November has an interesting paper by Prof. G. Brown Goode on the popular names of the fish best known as "menhaden"—in these waters as "moss-bunkers." There are twenty-eight other designations of the same fish from Maine to Florida. The Indian word from which *menhaden* is derived signified its aboriginal and later use—"fertilizer."——The weighty article in No. 7 of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History* is Prof. Oswald Seidensticker's account of William Penn's travels in Holland and Germany in 1677.——Dr. Leopold Damrosch announces that under his direction the Symphony Society of New York will give a series of six concerts and as many public rehearsals at Steinway Hall, beginning, for the rehearsals, this Thursday afternoon, Nov. 7, and for the concerts on Saturday evening, Nov. 10, when Herr Wilhelmj will appear. Dr. Damrosch will also conduct the four rehearsals and four concerts of the Oratorio Society at the same hall, beginning Nov. 29. Handel's "Messiah" and "Alexander's Feast," Mendelssohn's "114th Psalm," and Kiel's "Christus" (a new work) will be rendered by a choral force of three hundred voices.——Numismatists will be interested in the auction sale of Mr. Henry W. Holland's valuable collection of coins and medals, announced by Bangs & Co. to take place every afternoon of next week at their rooms, 656 Broadway. The curious Chadbourne collection of "store-cards" will also be disposed of at the same time.——With the first of this month that excellent Italian weekly, *La Rassegna Settimanale*—certainly the most satisfactory politico-literary journal in the Peninsula, especially for a foreigner's reading—transfers itself from Florence to Rome.——In No. 10 of the *Librarian* there is an interesting account of the Rochambeau Papers, the purchase of which by our Government is so earnestly to be desired, and of which the value is here made apparent. The *Librarian*, by the way, is a little eight-page sheet, published weekly in Philadelphia as a means of making known the new books received by the leading libraries of that city. The titles are often followed by notes after Mr. Cutter's example.——The *Illustrirte Zeitung* for Sept. 28 has a brief notice of the discovery of a hitherto unknown account of the death of Gutenberg in a manuscript in the Wallraf'schen Library at Cologne. The MS. contains a number of Latin poems of Johannes Butzbach, and in one of them, an epistle of about 2,000 verses written in 1514, it is told how Mayence had become famous through the discovery of a way by which the works of old writers, who had long been forgotten, could be reproduced in a short time; but that this had been the cause of the death of the inventor. He was dragged from his house by a mob, thrown into a wagon amid universal execration, carried outside the gates and strangled. The verses conclude with a moral on the dangers attending too hasty gains.——Recent decisions of our Post-Office Department show our present attitude towards the Postal-Union, in what concerns dutiable matter, to be as follows: Any postmaster may deliver *at his discretion* parcels containing periodicals and not exceeding two pounds three ounces in weight, provided there be no ground for supposing that the recipients intend to dispose of said periodicals by sale; and books not exceeding $1 in value. It would be interesting to listen to a Cabinet discussion on the bearing which Mr. Evarts's argument in the Newfoundland fisheries dispute has on our opposing our local tariff legislation to the general regulations of a Postal treaty.

—The Harpers have published two English Literature Primers by Eugene Lawrence, entitled respectively 'Romance Period' and 'Classical Period,' which are intended to give a review of the literary life of Eng-

land from the birth of Chaucer to the death of Johnson. It is difficult in so succinct a sketch to avoid dryness, but it is possible to be accurate, and this Mr. Lawrence is not always. His index contains more than one hundred and fifty subjects that are treated in as many pages. The first item is "A B C rules," and upon turning to the page indicated we are informed that Chaucer's "A B C" was "rules of love" written for the Duchess Blanche! If Mr. Lawrence had ever read so far as the title of this production he would have found that it is "called *La Prière de Nostre Dame*," and is in reality a devotional poem, in the form of an acrostic, addressed to the Virgin. A few pages further on Mr. Lawrence says: "The Clerk's Tale is from Petrarch's Latin version of Boccaccio, *and the patient Griselda an Italian legend*," evidently quite unconscious that the Clerk's Tale is the legend of Griselda. Of Troilus and Cressida he says: "It was abridged by Petrarch, but Chaucer does not mention Petrarch as its source." Does Mr. Lawrence know that the reason why Chaucer "does not mention Petrarch" is that his poem is based upon the *Filostrato* of Boccaccio? Other Chaucerians will be glad to learn where Petrarch's abridgment of the story may be found. It seems as though a writer on Chaucer ought at least to have read as much of him as the Prologue to the Canterbury Tales, and yet we are disposed to doubt that this author has done so much when we find him giving the Host of the Tabard credit for "real politeness" when he asks the knight to begin the story-telling, since the order was determined by lot, as the Prologue repeatedly states. We are not surprised after this to read that the Knight's Tale exhibits the change of the "fraternal love" of "the unhappy brothers," Palamon and Arcite, into hate, though the poet makes those heroes cousins; nor to be told that "there is no intense or elevated feeling in all his [Chaucer's] writings"; or that "loose tales" follow the story of Melibeus, when in fact the loose tales had been previously told. Probably Mr. Lawrence's index has opened to us the most faulty portion of his work, and we are inclined to take that view of the case; but we find that, if his facts are correct elsewhere, his style is almost always open to objection. The temerity of his generalizations, in particular, is schoolboyish. It is safer for the searcher for information on the history of our literature to go to an author who knows what he is writing about, and is not so pressed for space that he cannot be discriminating in his criticisms, than to depend upon such primers as these.

—In a note following the preface of his new book on 'Diderot' (Scribner & Welford) Mr. John Morley charges Franklin or Silas Deane with untruthfulness concerning the speech of Miss Polly Baker. Mr. Morley presents extracts from this speech on pages 381–2 of his book, and follows them with a story of Franklin's statement that he was himself the author of the speech and that it was altogether fictitious. This statement, Mr. Morley says, must be untrue, because an American correspondent informed him that the entire speech by Miss Polly Baker appears in the *American Law Journal*, published at Philadelphia in 1813, vol. 4, p. 458, and is there said to have been "delivered before a court of judicature in Connecticut, where she was prosecuted." Upon reference to this Journal, known as *Hall's Law Journal*, the speech there appears as stated, but without date or other reference. The story which Mr. Morley relates about Franklin's authorship is taken almost verbatim out of Parton's 'Life of Franklin,' vol. 2, p. 418, and by Mr. Parton in the same way from Jefferson's works, vol. 8, p. 501, where Mr. Jefferson gives it as a conversation with Franklin. The speech is to be found also in the March number of the *American Museum*, 1787, or volume one of that magazine, p. 212. That in the *Law Journal* is an exact copy from the one in the *Museum*, with the exception of the note at the end, wherein it is related that this "judicious address influenced the court to dispense with her punishment and induced one of her judges to marry her the next day; she ever afterwards supported an irreproachable character and had fifteen children by her husband." This note would have thrown some light upon this extraordinary speech, but it seems to have been purposely omitted by all parties. In what newspaper or how much earlier than 1787 the speech was printed we do not know. The version quoted by Mr. Morley was probably taken from Justamond's translation into English of the Abbé Raynal's 'History of the Indies' (Book 17), first printed in London in 1783. It is very different from the genuine version, having been first translated from the English by the Abbé Raynal into French, and then by Justamond back into the English. Mr. Morley gives the date of the first publication of the Abbé Raynal's History as 1772; Brunet, usually relied upon as an excellent authority, gives it as 1780, and that of the English translation as above stated, so that Raynal (who died in 1796) could not well rely on the *Law Journal* as authority, nor (his book having appeared at all events before March, 1787) upon the *American Museum*, but he must have seen the newspaper to which Franklin refers. It is not apparent, therefore, upon the facts that Mr. Morley has caught either Franklin or Deane in a falsehood. To sum up, the *American Law Journal*, which Mr. Morley quotes as an authority, is in no sense a current reporter of the decisions in the courts of the time, such as are the law journals of the present day, but a sort of omnium gatherum, and in the present case gives no dates, and names no county where the transactions took place, but reproduces, without mention of the fact, an article from the *Museum* printed twenty-six years previously.

—It may not be amiss to present the curious with a slight summary of the alleged speech of Miss Baker. It is stated that she was brought before the court for the fifth time, on the charge each time of having bastard children. This time she acknowledges the fact; says that twice she paid the fines imposed, and twice was punished for lack of means with which to pay the fines; thinks all this may be in accordance with the law, but argues on the unreasonableness of the law, which punishes her, who at the risk of her life has brought five children into the world, maintained them well by her own industry without burdening the township, and fitted them to become good subjects of the king; that she has wronged no one, unless it be the minister or justice, by reason of their having missed a marriage-fee; that she would have much preferred to be married, never having refused an offer of marriage, but, on the contrary, accepting the first one she had, and the result was she unhappily lost her own honor while trusting too much to *his;* that she had been most severely punished, while he had been raised to an office of honor and profit, being, in fact, one of the judges in that very court in which she was being tried, but not upon that occasion present. She reminds the court that, according to their belief, she has offended heaven and must suffer eternal fire, and urges if that is not sufficient punishment without their intervention; at the same time declares her unbelief in such doctrines as that Heaven is angry at her having children, when to the little she had done towards it God had been pleased to add his divine skill and admirable workmanship in the formation of their bodies, and crowned it by furnishing them with rational and immortal souls. She further argues that, if men must be eternally making laws, they ought at least to leave alone the natural and useful actions of men, and not by their prohibitions to turn such actions into crimes. They ought to punish the bachelors, who do nothing to populate the country, but leave unproduced (which is little better than murder) hundreds of their own posterity, while young women are most severely punished for obeying the first great command of nature and of nature's God, to increase and multiply—a duty from the steady performance of which nothing has been able to deter her; and that the court, instead of punishing her, ought to erect a statue to her memory. Then follows the note which is quoted above, that one of the judges married her the next day, and she had fifteen more children.

—To most American readers we should imagine that the name of M. Eugène Labiche was a name only; it may be unrecognized even by those who have again and again been amused by the gay creations of his fertile fancy. M. Eugène Labiche is the foremost comic dramatist of France, and for nearly forty years has been putting forth comedies and farces, in one or more acts, constructed with skill, conducted with ease, and filled full of joyous gaiety. The farce sometimés, although rarely, exaggerates itself into burlesque, but it is always founded on a genuine comic idea. M. Augier, at whose instance M. Labiche is now collecting his plays together and issuing a 'Théâtre Complet,' of which four volumes have already appeared, and for which M. Augier has provided a preface, compares the plays of M. Labiche to the pictures of Teniers: "There is, at first glance, the same aspect of caricature; there is, on looking more closely, the same delicacy of tone, the same exactness of expression, the same vivacity of movement. The foundation of these *joyeusetés à toute outrance* is truth. Seek among the highest works of our generation a comedy of more profound observation than 'Le Voyage de M. Perrichon,' or of more philosophy than 'Le Misanthrope et l'Auvergnat.' Well, Labiche has ten plays of this rank in his repertory." And a reading of the volumes of the 'Théâtre Complet' which have already appeared bears out the truth of this generous praise from the present master of the French stage. Like all French authors M. Labiche does not write for young ladies' schools, but, making due allowance, the tone of most of these plays is healthy. And in the second volume of the 'Théâtre Complet' it happens that there is no objectionable play whatever, and indeed no objectionable phrase. This is the more fortunate as this second volume contains the "Voyage de M. Perrichon," and four

other plays, "La Grammaire," "Les Petits Oiseaux," "Les Vivacités du Capitaine Tic," and "La Poudre aux Yeux," all of which can be cordially recommended to American families seeking either improvement in French conversation or merely desiring amusing reading. The latter play has long been known to American readers in the excellent 'College Series of French Plays,' edited by Prof. Bôcher of Harvard. The others are not inferior to it. The comedies in this volume also afford excellent models for the long-expected American dramatist; they are less farcical than most of the author's. To him the English stage is already indebted —thanks to the ubiquitous adapter—for dozens of light and lively little plays, including the "Phenomenon in a Smock-Frock," the "Fearful Tragedy in the Seven Dials," and even the perennial "Box and Cox."

—For any one beginning the study of the Italian dialects no better work could be recommended than that by Francesco Corazzini, entitled: 'I componimenti minori della letteratura popolare italiana nei principali dialetti' (Benevento, 1877). The contents consist partly of poetry and partly of prose, the latter embracing twenty-nine popular tales from Tuscany, Benevento, Bologna, Bergamo, and Vicenza, which are for the most part variants of stories already published in the collection of Pitrè, Comparetti, and Imbriani. The poetry includes over a thousand *canti*, of which seven hundred and sixty-eight have never been published before. These *canti* are distributed into three books: Language and Songs of Children, Songs of Love, and Miscellaneous Songs. The first book is preceded by an essay on children's language, with two tables of the most common words used by them in the different provinces; then follow cradle-songs, games, festivals, diversions, and nonsense rhymes. Many of the games and nursery rhymes are, it is almost needless to say, the common property of the Aryan nations. The two other books add largely to the already enormous mass of Italian popular poetry published within the last twenty-five years. A glossary and index of localities add to the value of the work, the wide range of which may be seen from the fact that eighty-seven localities are represented.

—The three great lexicographical works for the study of the Icelandic and Old Norse are: 1. Johan Fritzner's 'Ordbog over det gamle norske Sprog,' published in Christiania, Norway, in 1859. The definitions are in modern Norse or Danish. 2. Sveinbjörn Egilsson's 'Lexicon Poeticum Antiquæ Linguæ Septentrionalis,' published in Copenhagen in 1860. The definitions in this are in Latin, and it is intended especially to facilitate the study of the Eddic and Skaldic lays. 3. By far the best, and one indispensable to all Icelandic and Old Norse students, is the 'Icelandic-English Dictionary' which was originated by the late Richard Cleasby, but arranged, enlarged, and completed by Dr. Gudbrand Vigfusson. It was printed by the Clarendon Press and published by the University of Oxford in 1874, and contains also the Outlines of Icelandic Grammar and a valuable Introduction by the eminent Icelandic scholar, Dr. George Webbe Dasent. This elaborate work marked a new epoch in the study of Icelandic and English philology and of the Teutonic languages in general. An appendix to it by the Rev. Walter W. Skeat, consisting of a list of English words the etymology of which is illustrated by comparison with Icelandic, was recently issued by the same press. The list contains about six thousand words with reference to the corresponding words in the 'Icelandic-English Dictionary.' Still, those who have had occasion to use these dictionaries must have met with frequent disappointments. Many words have been sought for in vain, and of others the definitions and references have been found insufficient. Icelandic lexicography is yet so new a field of study that we cannot expect our dictionaries to be exhaustive; and, furthermore, new saga-manuscripts are annually being published to which our lexicographers were, of course, unable to give references. Of great value and importance, therefore, is the 'Supplement til islandske Ordböger' (Supplement to Icelandic Dictionaries) by the learned rector of the Icelandic University, Jón Thorkelsson. It contains about three thousand Old Norse words not found in any of the above-named dictionaries. The definitions are given in modern Danish, and there are references to twenty-eight old sagas that have been carefully read in connection with the preparation of the 'Supplement.' The book has only ninety-six pages of closely-printed matter; but, small as it is, it is the fruit of long and patient research. The finding of three thousand words not given, or insufficiently defined, in Fritzner, Egilsson, or Cleasby-Vigfusson, any scholar will readily understand to be no easy task. All libraries and scholars possessing any of the three large works should not fail to secure a copy of the 'Supplement,' which may be obtained, we suppose, directly of Prof. Jón Thorkelsson, Reykjavik, Iceland.

SEWALL'S DIARY.*

II.

IN England Sewall safely arrived, and certainly proceeded to look up his relatives and those of his wife with undeniable promptness. With Mather he at first agreed and acted as assistant in some political affairs. The accession of King William, which had taken place while Sewall was at sea, aroused the strongest hopes in the minds of the agents of Massachusetts. Mather, especially, was indefatigable in his exertions to procure a renewal of the old charter. Various pamphlets, for an account of which the reader is referred to the Andros Tracts, were published for and against this course. Sewall was at least consulted on the Colonial side, and perhaps assisted in the composition of some of these documents. In the midst of it, June 28, they received the news of the rebellion in Massachusetts and the overthrow of Andros, as set forth in Byfield's pamphlet.

Evidence will be found that Sewall was not of the Mather faction, although he was a personal friend of the able envoy from Massachusetts. He seems to have taken no further active part in the struggles for a renewal of the charter, and on the 10th of October, 1689, he sailed for home. He arrived November 29, and on December 5 was sworn in again as one of the Assistants under the revived government of Bradstreet and Danforth. Until the arrival of Phips, as is well known, Massachusetts remained under the forms prescribed by the old charter. During this period a war with the French and Indians was the prominent incident, and in April, 1690, Sewall visited New York, being, with Stoughton, a commissioner to concert measures with the other colonies.

Another public duty which Sewall undoubtedly performed was the preparation of the pamphlet entitled 'The Revolution in New England Justified,' etc., in answer to Palmer's 'Defence of Andros.' It was printed in 1691, and the preface is signed by E. R. and S. S., initials always assigned to Edward Rawson and Samuel Sewall. But no reference will be found in the 'Diary' to the preparation or appearance of this book.

We now reach the period which has given to Sewall's name an undesirable notoriety—the days of the witchcraft delusion. The references to it in the 'Diary' are, unfortunately, very few. He writes as follows:

April 11th 1692. Went to Salem, where, in the Meeting-house the persons accused of Witchcraft were examined; was a very great Assembly: 'twas awfull to see how the afflicted persons were agitated. Mr. Noyes pray'd at the beginning, and Mr. Higginson concluded. [In the margin], *Væ, Væ, Væ,* Witchcraft.

The foot-note appended to this passage is worth repeating for its own sake and as evidence of the character of the editing:

"The references to the terrible paroxysm of delusion and cruelty connected with the subject of witchcraft in Salem village are not so frequent in Mr. Sewall's Journal as we should have expected to find them, but the few which he has made indicate his profound belief in the reality of the alleged enormity while the proceedings were going on, and subsequently his penitence and deep contrition for the share he had had in them when the spell of the delusion was broken. All that the reader may care to know about this distressing subject will be found most ably and wisely set forth in the two remarkable volumes, composed after a most exhaustive research, and luminous with the clear and candid intelligence of the author, by our late associate, Charles W. Upham, entitled 'Salem Witchcraft, with an Account of Salem Village.'

"There had been legal proceedings against reputed witches before the local magistrates in Salem more than a month previous to the date of Sewall's visit there, above recorded. He went thither with the Deputy-Governor, Stoughton, and four other magistrates, for the examination of the last two accused persons. Nearly a hundred of such victims were then in the jails, awaiting trial. On Governor Phips's return from his Eastern war expedition, he appointed, for the emergency, a special commission of Oyer and Terminer, of which Stoughton was the chief, with six associates, including Sewall. It must be taken for granted that Sewall had been trying to qualify himself for his duties as a magistrate, though we have no information as to his legal studies. Indeed, neither of his associates had had any training as a lawyer, the authorities of the colony having always discouraged the presence of that professional class among them. We may not wonder, therefore, that the rules of evidence were so slightly regarded in that tribunal, which was itself of questionable legality, as not commissioned by the General Court. But what signified professional legal training or judicial rules of proceeding and evidence in dealing with a stark delusion, common then to all Christendom, under the spell of which the most eminent judges and lawyers of all the governments of Europe condemned hundreds of thousands of victims?

"A few facts and dates may be of service to the reader. The special Commissioners of Oyer and Terminer were appointed June 13, 1692. They were William Stoughton, John Richards, Nathaniel Saltonstall, Wait Winthrop, Bartholomew Gedney, Samuel Sewall, John Hathorne, Jonathan Corwin, and Peter Sergeant, or any five of them; and their jurisdiction was to be in the counties of Suffolk, Essex, and Middlesex. No record of the doings of the court is now to be found. It opened in Salem in the first week of June, 1692, and met by adjournments on June 30 and August 5.

"'After the executions, on the 22d of September, the court adjourned to meet some weeks subsequently; . . . but they met no more.' Nineteen persons, says Hutchinson, had been executed, all asserting their innocence.

"In January, 1693, the grand jury brought bills against about fifty persons, but all were acquitted save three, and those were reprieved.

"Hutchinson (Hist., II 61) gives a well-authenticated story that Lady Mary Phips, wife of the Governor, did a brave and generous act by signing a warrant for the discharge of a prisoner. The jail-keeper obeyed, and lost his place therefor, but he must have rejoiced afterwards at his costly error."

That Sewall lived to see the error of his course and to confess his mistake publicly, is also set forth in his Journal. He writes as follows, under date of January, 1696–7:

Copy of the Bill I put up on the Fast day; giving it to Mr. Willard

* 'The Diary of Samuel Sewall.' Vol. I. 1673-1700. Pp. 509. Boston. 1878.

as he pass'd by, and standing up at the reading of it, and bowing when finished ; in the Afternoon.

"Samuel Sewall, sensible of the reiterated strokes of God upon himself and family ; and being sensible, that as to the Guilt contracted upon the opening of the late Commission of Oyer and Terminer at Salem (to which the order for this Day relates) he is, upon many accounts, more concerned than any that he knows of, Desires to take the Blame and shame of it, Asking pardon of men, And especially desiring prayers that God who has an Unlimited Authority, would pardon that sin and all other his sins ; personal and Relative : And according to his infinite Benignity, and Sovereignty, Not Visit the sin of him, or of any other, upon himself or any of his, nor upon the Land : But that He would powerfully defend him against all Temptations to Sin, for the future ; and vouchsafe him the efficacious, saving Conduct of his Word and Spirit."

December 7, 1692, Sewall was appointed one of the five justices of the Superior Court, a tribunal then established as the highest court in the province. This position he held for thirty-six years, during the last ten of which he was chief-justice. In 1739 his nephew, Stephen Sewall, became judge, afterwards, for eight years, chief-justice ; after the Revolution, Samuel Sewall, great-grandson of the first judge, became chief-justice of the Supreme Court. In fact, the Sewalls have been a family of the long robe as distinctively as any of the famous instances in French history, sharing the distinction in Massachusetts with the Cushings. Sewall also continued for many years a member of the Council by annual election, but few instances are shown of his supporting any faction or party. He was a friend of Phips and his energetic lady, and a familiar acquaintance of Lt.-Gov. Stoughton. When the Earl of Bellomont arrived he was on equally good terms with him.

The present volume closes with December 28, 1699, or nearly with the century. It leaves Sewall at his happiest point—rich, respected, and surrounded with a family just arriving at maturity. Up to this time certainly his Journal gives but few personal characteristics. Throughout we find evidences that he was a devout Puritan, a worthy member of the Old South Church in Boston. His prayers and fasts were numerous, and doubtless genuine. His early training in theology gives a flavor, always apparent, to his reflections. It is, however, as difficult to make satisfactory selections from Sewall as it always has been from Pepys or Evelyn. The interest of the work lies not so much in any particular part as in the aggregation of the details of the whole record. In this volume we have the daily life of a Bostonian recorded for fifteen years. We enter imperceptibly into a knowledge of his surroundings, his joys and sorrows, his cares and his successes. We learn when his children are born, when they are ill, and when they die. We know, above all, about the daily occurrences of the town at a time when newspapers were not and the reporter was unimagined. To a Bostonian this volume and its successors will be simply invaluable. Thanks to Winthrop's 'Journal,' we had already a touching and authentic history of the first settlement of the town. The numerous pamphlets relative to Andros have given us an acquaintance with the men of that generation, which Sewall now comes to round out and complete.

We have only further to remark upon the editorial care which has been bestowed upon the work. The committee of publication consisted of Rev. George E. Ellis, Henry M. Torrey, and William H. Whitmore—our present minister to Spain, Mr. J. R. Lowell, having accepted his present duties just before the printing of this volume was begun. The elaborate genealogy of the Introduction, though unsigned, we can hardly be mistaken in attributing to Mr. Whitmore, and in by far the greater number of the notes, also, we confidently detect the hand of the editor of the Andros Tracts and the Boston Records Commissioner. It is enough to say of all his work and that of his colleagues (not forgetting the index) that it immeasurably heightens the value, and in no small degree the interest, of this publication, and that it is a remarkable instance of concentration of knowledge, of which one is at a loss whether most to admire the extent or the minuteness. Without being overdone or even obtrusive, it explains, amplifies, and completes the 'Diary' in a manner worthy of the good fame of its author, and of the civic pride whose gratification is always ample reward to the Boston antiquary.

A WHIG ORATOR.*

CHARLES FOX said that "no good speech ever read well," and, tried by this test alone, those contained in this volume must have been very good ones. Mr. Choate's speeches certainly do not read well ; but if they have this mark of excellence they are disappointing in other and more important qualities. Two-thirds of this collection are historical or literary addresses called forth by special occasions ; the rest are political speeches. The latter, contrary to what would naturally be expected, are much the best. All are disfigured by a very bad style. Now and then a passage occurs which is nervous, forcible, and simple, but the sentences are as a rule complex, involved, and of intolerable length. Some of them actually cover a page or more, and read like an unpunctuated catalogue. That Mr. Choate should have made these interminable paragraphs bearable to his listeners would have been an extraordinary feat. Yet he not only did this but he charmed and swayed his audiences, and drew them with him through every varying mood. There could be no better proof than this of grace of manner, personal force, and the possession of great and real oratorical power. Mr. Choate's rhetoric, though deeply overloaded and at times strained, is often brilliant, and is always remarkable for an apparently unbounded vocabulary. He was too fond of Latin derivatives, and never adhered sufficiently to strong Saxon words, the use of which by Mr. Webster he highly commends. Yet with all his faults in this respect no one can read this collection and not be struck by the variety and richness of the language.

The historical addresses with which the volume opens are the most disappointing of all. They seem somewhat artificial, and they are singularly deficient in depth of thought. They play upon the surface, show but little originality, and have no mark of a strong mental grasp. They read like the hasty productions of a facile and brilliant mind ; however well they may have sounded as they fell from the lips of Mr. Choate, they seem very superficial upon the printed page. The best oration in the book, although not free from defects of style, is the "Eulogy upon Daniel Webster," when the speaker was deeply moved by the truest feelings of love and admiration. The best speech is that upon the judicial tenure, delivered in the Massachusetts Convention of 1853. This speech is not only good in style, but it is a fine example of eloquent and exhaustive reasoning. No better defence of an appointed judiciary holding office during good behavior could be found, and there was certainly no subject upon which Mr. Choate put forth his great powers with more advantage to his fellow-citizens.

The political speeches close the volume, and they possess an historic interest which is wanting in the addresses. They are earnest and often eloquent, but they present a rather mournful picture of a typical leader of the Whigs. In these speeches we find the whole creed of the Whig party, and it is not difficult to see the causes of their fall. In speaking of the famous Compromise measures in 1850, Mr. Choate said : "And that henceforward every man, according to his measure and in his place, in his party, in his social, or his literary, or his religious circle, in whatever may be his sphere of influence, set himself to suppress the further political agitation of this whole subject [slavery]." That was the Whig doctrine, and very wretched doctrine it was. No one described the growth and progress of the anti-slavery sentiment better than Mr. Choate himself in his speech upon the annexation of Texas, and yet the only remedy he could suggest was its suppression. The leaders of the Northern Whigs were, above all others, the men whose duty it was to control and guide the anti-slavery movement, yet all they did was to try to put it aside and forget it and pretend that it had no right to exist. They were eternally crying "peace, peace," when there was no peace. With a blindness that must have been wilful, and was certainly unpardonable, they would not admit that the movement against slavery was inevitable and must succeed sooner or later. In 1856 Mr. Choate was denouncing the Republican party as a geographical and sectional party, which was a crime against the Constitution and the Union, while with unrivalled acuteness he questioned its objects and its principles. But there was one question he neither asked nor answered. He sought no explanation and offered none for the existence of a sectional Republican party. He did not tell his hearers that freedom was national and slavery sectional ; that there had always been a sectional party in defence of slavery ; that the South created geographical parties in 1820 and had maintained their side unflinchingly ever since. He did not confess that it was the South, and the South alone, that had called a geographical party of freedom into existence, and made such a party inevitable and strong. In one word, he did not say that slavery was a great wrong and must be effaced, and that he himself, and men like him, were ready to do all in their power to limit and extinguish it by peaceable, statesmanlike, and sure methods. On the contrary, all Mr. Choate could suggest was to vote for Buchanan in 1856, as Mr. Webster would have voted for Pierce in 1852. To throw the whole blame on the Abolitionists, to palliate and find excuses for the conduct of the South, to vote with the Democracy, this was all the Northern Whig leaders from Webster down could find to do.

* 'Addresses and Orations of Rufus Choate.' Boston : Little, Brown & Co. 1878.

It is a sorry picture. Worst of all, these gentlemen had not the sincerity with which the slaveholders defended their peculiar institution, but fell back on ingenious sophistries about the true sphere of philanthropy, such as we find on page 416 of this volume. They failed miserably in a great crisis, and one and all were overthrown by the righteous public opinion which they strove to stifle when they should have guided it. These political speeches will be valuable as historical documents, but they will not heighten the fame of one of our greatest advocates. Mr. Choate's reputation as a lawyer, his attractions as a man, and his brilliant sayings, will be remembered with pleasure when nothing of his politics remains but the memory of their failure.

There are in this volume a few serious errors in matters of fact, for some of which Mr. Choate was no doubt responsible, but all of which ought to have been corrected by a careful editor. The English sloop burned by the Rhode-Islanders in 1772 was named the *Gaspé* or *Gaspee*, not the *Gaspar* (p. 33). The patent cancelled on account of Swift's Drapier Letters was a patent granted by George I., not by William III. (p. 129). Coleridge did not call the law "our guardian angel and our avenging *friend*" (p. 95), but our "avenging fiend." This is quoted correctly in another speech. A loosely-worded sentence on p. 200 gives the impression that the speaker referred to John Adams as the mover of the celebrated resolution to declare the Colonies independent. Richard Henry Lee, as is well known, moved this resolution on the 7th of June, 1776, and John Adams seconded it. None of these very obvious errors should have been allowed to appear.

Children's Books.—Mrs. Beesly's 'Stories from the History of Rome' (Macmillan) hits a want that most parents have felt, by providing a substitute for "fairy tales and the stories of nursery life" wherewith to amuse little children—from four to six years old in the author's own case. But her aim was not simply to amuse, and she selected these tales "with a view to illustrate the two sentiments most characteristic of Roman manners—duty to parents and duty to country"; and, further, she has "tried to indicate that the latter of these sentiments took precedence of the former." There may be in the present condition of England something that makes it advisable to indoctrinate British infants in this heroic fashion; we cannot tell. The result, however, is much like throwing raw beef to them, for a bloodier collection of stories could hardly be made from Fox's 'Book of Martyrs.' The very simplicity to which the legends have been reduced gives a nakedness to their barbarity which we trust would seem repulsive to cis-Atlantic mothers. The duel of the Horatii and Curiatii, which has no useful lesson for nineteenth-century children of any age, is noticeably unsoftened by this process. The book opens with the fable of Romulus and Remus, and ends with "How Pyrrhus Fought against Rome."

In 'The Bodleys on Wheels' (Houghton, Osgood & Co.) we have the third book of the adventures of this remarkable family. Mr. Scudder's pictorial resources have been enlarged by the consolidation of the publishers, and besides the cuts from the *Riverside Magazine* one recognizes a goodly number of illustrations from Osgood's standard works. The fiction which binds these together is a trip to Essex County, Mass., by private conveyance, and it may well be imagined that such historic ground is not exhausted in the present volume, and that we have the promise of a sequel. Like its predecessors, 'The Bodleys on Wheels' is more precious for its imported than for its original matter. Poems of Longfellow and Whittier, Anthony Thacher's quaint narrative of his shipwreck, the stories of Lady Frankland and Flud Ireson, the account of Lord Timothy Dexter, and the "Little Broom-Merchant" (Ruskin's translation), are the chief ingredients of the ingenious pot-pourri.

In 'Grammar-Land' (Henry Holt & Co.) we have an almost ideal dramatization of a dry and for children disheartening study. It does not go very far. Judge Grammar examines all the impersonated parts of speech in turn, and makes them declare by what sign they can be detected; the youthful reader gets a glimpse of conjugation, a fragment of syntax, and all the rest is pure fun and enjoyment. The humor is well sustained throughout, and Dr. Verb, Mr. Adjective, Mr. Adverb, etc., talk always in character. Since the author can point to the success of her *jeu d'esprit* as a text-book, we recommend it for the same purpose and heartily. Perhaps, however, those who have learned the rudiments by the old method will most delight in this new departure. Of course, also, it can be pleasurably read without thought of self-improvement.

The aim of the 'Young Folks' Series,' edited by Mr. George M. Towle and published by Lee & Shepard, Boston, is, according to the preface, "to relate truthfully the romantic and thrilling adventures of the 'heroes' who are to form the subjects of the volumes." If the volume on Vasco da Gama be taken as a sample, we have here the promise of an admirable series. To be sure, there is no certainty that the subjects will always be as felicitously chosen. The "hero" of the second volume, announced as in the press, Pizarro, is by no means a hero in any high sense of the word; and his life, moreover, full of interest as it is, has been so many times narrated that it will be hard to give it freshness. Vasco da Gama, on the other hand, has all requirements—a great but dim name, a character of real heroism, and exploits of the first order in the field of discovery. The story is told excellently well and the interest sustained throughout. Neither is it exclusively suited to children; the adventures are so unfamiliar and so exciting as well as instructive that adults, too, will find it worth reading. The style is just what it should be—no fine writing, no "writing down" to the assumed level of childhood, and, on the other hand, nothing above their comprehension. Quite young children, too, can get enjoyment from it. The illustrations are fairly good, some of them excellent.

The author of 'Parrots and Monkeys' (R. Worthington) makes a somewhat labored excuse for joining his birds and beasts together, the real *nexus* in his mind being not their frequent association in nature, but the fact that there is a great store of entertaining anecdotes about both. There have been better compilations than this, but a dull one on such a subject can hardly be made. The style is not suited to the youngest readers, who, nevertheless, seem to be the proper audience for such remarks as this (p. 10):

"These wild men of the woods, though imitative, have no reasoning power; they seem more really devoid of sense than other monkeys. For instance, a gorilla may find a fire left by some travellers, and he will sit over the embers as long as any heat remains, without ever thinking of putting on more fuel."

From the amount of reasoning power exhibited in this generalization, it would almost be necessary to infer that the writer was himself a gorilla. Elsewhere, however, he denies that he is even an "improved descendant of these brutes"—a notion that seems to him extraordinary, unreasonable, incredible. The book is tolerably illustrated. Some day we hope the infant mind may be trusted to form an adequate idea of the extent and variety of the monkey race by typical examples drawn to scale and arranged in the order of their height, and (if the thought is not too shocking) with the human figure thrown in by way of comparison.

'The Boy Engineers' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) is by the Rev. J. Lukin, author of 'The Young Mechanic' and 'Amongst Machines,' with which it forms part of a series. The new volume deals with the mystery of the lathe, and stimulates the inventive faculty by showing how two lads made shift with a contrivance that seems very antiquated beside the iron lathes now made for boys at a wonderfully low price. In fact, the instruction is here thrown into the form of a story, which relieves it of much of its dryness. These heroes of the workshop make wooden clocks with automaton figures, an organ, a house, presently a steam-engine; indulge in wood-carving; and finish with some experiments in electricity. Not every boy can profit by this book or by the series, but where native aptitude is present these volumes will, we are sure, be found practically useful.

New Greece. By Lewis Sergeant. With Maps especially prepared for this work. (New York: Cassell, Petter & Galpin. 1878.)—If the Treaty of Berlin had produced a real settlement which was accepted at once and heartily by all parties concerned, there would hardly seem to be any occasion just now for such books as this. It consists of an attack upon the past and present policy of England in relation to Greece, and a vigorous advocacy of the claims of the unfortunate little kingdom to more territory and a real independence. The author urges with strong arguments the right of Greece to the control of Crete, Thessaly, Epirus, and of enough territory besides toward the Dardanelles and the Balkans to make her a first-class power. This he considers the true solution of the Eastern question, the establishment of a strong Christian state, not under the influence of Russia but owing its existence and strength mainly to England, and therefore likely to remain friendly to her interests in the Levant. The Greeks he considers the only people in that region who have shown themselves capable of organizing and conducting a civilized government with fair success against great obstacles. This he seeks to prove by the progress which they have made since their national existence began in 1832, or more especially since they have had a constitutional government conducted by a Greek Ministry. It is certainly surprising how much they have done within the last ten years or so, and it seems reasonable to explain

their rapid material development in part by the presence of a king who is popular chiefly because he knows how to reign without governing. Two instances of this progress may be quoted. In 1862 the exports of Greece amounted in value to thirty-two millions of drachmas; in 1873 to seventy-six millions. In 1868 there was not in the Piræus a single steam manufactory; in 1877 there were more than thirty. In the second part of his book Mr. Sergeant discusses the history of the kingdom of Greece with especial reference to the part England has played in it, as in the introductory chapter he discusses the policy in regard to Greece of the representatives of England at the Berlin Congress. He is an Englishman, and his criticism is therefore not that of an enemy, but he seems to show clearly that not a single English statesman since 1815, with the exception of Canning, and possibly of Gladstone, has been just to the Greeks, and that the present Ministry has actually broken pledges made to them. It may be said, it is true, that this is merely a partisan political pamphlet, but if so, it is certainly one that calls loudly for an answer and to which it will not be easy to give one. The book may be almost unreservedly commended to those who wish to see this side of the question strongly and not unfairly presented.

Modern Frenchmen. Five biographies by Philip Gilbert Hamerton. (Boston: Roberts Brothers.)—Mr. Hamerton, the well-known artist, has resided a long time in France, and has found much to admire in French life and in French character. English people, although only two hours away, generally know little of the French except what they see on the Boulevards and learn from comedies and novels, often coming in a questionable shape—French light literature putting its worst foot foremost to strangers, and tempting or disgusting them, as the case may be, with what an indignant French critic calls *feuilles de joie* and *littérature putride*. Mr. Hamerton has already taken pains to make his countrymen better acquainted with their neighbors. He has now written the lives of five persons who interested him—Victor Jacquemont, Perreyve, Rude, J. J. Ampère, and Regnault the painter. Not that they were all great men or celebrated; it is doubtful if the names of some of them have ever reached America. Three died too young to fulfil the promise of their youth. Regnault was not thirty when killed at the sortie of Bugenval during the siege of Paris. Jacquemont, the "traveller and naturalist," died in Bombay in his thirty-first year. Perreyve, the "ecclesiastic and orator," the long and generous dream of whose life was the union of Catholicism with liberty, ended it at thirty-four. François Rude, the sculptor, lived to be an old man. His "Fisher-boy playing with a Tortoise," exhibited in 1833, made him a celebrity in Paris, but did not give him a European reputation. J. J. Ampère had also his full share of years, but, though a learned, ingenious, and industrious author, he wrote nothing of first-rate merit, either as to thought or style. There is, therefore, little new or remarkable to be learned from these lives if we look at them in the ordinary way. Mr. Hamerton was attracted to them by a nobility of character they all possessed, which in its perfection is a higher quality than genius. They were pure, simple, energetic men, whose rule of life was truth, honor, duty. They believed in honest work, doing with all their might what their hands found to do and leaving the rest to fortune; not working for the means of luxury, or to rise for the sake of rising, but to accomplish a duty; satisfied with the position they occupied, not trying to be or to seem something else; sterling silver, not electro-plated. Surely such lives are worthy to be shown as examples to an age whose chief deity is "Almighty Plutus, lord of earth and giver of all good"; whose active men seek to do the thing which will be useful to themselves rather than the thing which is right in itself; while the great majority, weak and unreasonable, are discontented with their position, longing for wealth and consideration without the energy and courage to work for them.

Whether useful or not as a medicine for the times, Mr. Hamerton has made his book pleasant to take. He knows how to write; he has the gift of style. 'Modern Frenchmen' will attract the lover of good literature as well as the moralist. No one who reads it will be disappointed with it or will soon forget it.

History of Geauga and Lake Counties, Ohio; with illustrations and biographical sketches of its pioneers and most prominent men. (Philadelphia: Williams Brothers. 1878. 4to, pp. 259.)—The form of this volume is a novelty in county histories, and it cannot be said to be an example worthy of imitation. It is, however, well adapted for the equally original style of illustrations with which it is profusely provided, and which, on the largest scale, represent prosperous farms and villas and authentic portraits of their owners, all done on the same lithographic stone. Besides these there are several well-executed steel engravings of the more eminent citizens of these counties, and a great number of woodcut likenesses scattered through the text. The wives and daughters are commemorated in the same way, though not to the same extent, as the men; and the work, without regard to the text, is worth studying for its typical examples of American physiognomy and character.

When the text is examined, the only really readable portions (for a non-resident) are the biographical sketches, which, as in the case of Gen. Garfield and Mr. Albert G. Riddle, Capt. S. L. Phelps (now one of the Commissioners of the District of Columbia) and Gen. H. E. Paine (the new Commissioner of Patents), are very elaborate and possess a national interest. These counties were carved out of the Connecticut Western Reserve, and have been settled about eighty years, primarily from Connecticut and other parts of New England. The nature of the soil determined the agricultural destiny of the population, which reached its maximum twenty years ago—in 1846 or 1847 in the case of Geauga. The villages have increased in number, while the inhabitants have fallen off. Of this decline it is stated, on p. 210, that

"The causes which produced it acted with a uniform force throughout the purely farming districts of northern Ohio, with local variations. These were in part a change in the course of agriculture, a disposition on the part of all to increase the acreage of their ownership—the more forehanded buying the smaller farms, and their owners seeking cheaper and often better lands in the newer farther west. During the decade of the greatest loss, from 1860 to 1870, the war intervened to increase what may be called the natural depopulation, which began about 1860."

This New England colony shared the anti-slavery feeling which animated the whole Reserve, and has its stories (now almost legends) of fugitive-slave rescues; and polygamy, which has been called the twin relic of barbarism with slavery, was not less in disfavor. The Mormons settled in Kirtland township (now Lake Co.) in 1831, but were fairly persecuted out in the course of five years.

Wilson's and Bonaparte's American Ornithology. "Popular edition." (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1878. Large 8vo, 3 vols. in one.)—The work of the "melancholy poet-naturalist" is more nearly classic than any other treatise upon American ornithology, the peculiar position it occupies in the literature of this subject being too well known to require comment. Wilson was no scholar in any branch of knowledge, and appears to have been very unlearned in ornithology even, when he began his work; but his genius, taste, assiduity, and love of truth enabled him to produce a luminous treatise, now well understood to possess no authority in the technicalities, though freer from erroneous statements in natural history proper than any other ornithological work of equal extent. Following close upon the period when Pennant and Latham, Barton and Bartram, and Vieillot were leading authorities, the work originally appeared in nine large thin quarto volumes, dated 1808–1814. The *editio princeps* is expensive, and has long been practically inaccessible to the public. Vol. vii., 1813, was the last published by Wilson himself, who died August 23, 1813, the work being concluded from Wilson's inedited materials, with much editorial matter, by George Ord. Between 1825 and 1829 Ord published another edition of the work, including his life of Wilson, in three volumes octavo, with a folio atlas, and 'Ord's Wilson' has always been a standard edition. Meanwhile, the Prince Bonaparte, as appears by his 'Observations on the Nomenclature of Wilson's Ornithology,' 1824–25, became greatly interested in the work, and, with true Napoleonic foresight, conceived the idea of linking his name with Wilson's by producing a work in similar style, if not spirit—a plan which matured in his 'American Ornithology,' 4 vols. 4to, 1825–33. The title and mechanical execution of 'Bonaparte' make it appear like a continuation of 'Wilson,' and from the incorporation of these two works in one, by successive editors, comes the 'Wilson's and Bonaparte's American Ornithology' with which the public is familiar. In 1831, Prof. R. Jameson, of Edinburgh, prepared a 'Wilson and Bonaparte,' with much irrelevant matter and without any plates, in four 18mo volumes, forming vols. lxviii.–lxxi. of 'Constable's Miscellany,' and in 1832 Sir William Jardine published in London another edition in three volumes octavo, with editorial annotations, including a revision of Wilson's nomenclature. The 'Jardine' became the standard English edition: and Dr. T. M. Brewer, of Boston, prepared from it a cheap edition in 1 vol. 12mo, 1840, with the original plates so reduced that two or three of them could be printed on so small a page, appending an original synopsis of the birds of North America then known to him. The 'Brewer' has hitherto been the only cheap American edition of 'Wilson,' and does not contain 'Bona-

parte.' It has been long out of print, the latest issue we have seen cited being of 1852.

In 1871 Messrs. Porter & Coates published a handsome edition of 'Ord's Wilson' and 'Bonaparte,' in three large octavo volumes of text, and two folios of colored plates—one containing Wilson's 76, the other Bonaparte's 27, and both being substantially the same as the originals. The textual characteristic of the Porter & Coates issue is that it includes a reprint of S. F. Baird's 'Catalogue of North American Birds,' 1858, being an octavo reissue, with modification, of pp. xxv.–lv. of vol. ix., 'Pacific Railroad Reports,' 4to, 1858. The present "popular edition" of Wilson's and Bonaparte's respective works is made up from that of 1871, said to cost $100, and sells for $7 50—the three volumes being now bound in one, with interrupted pagination. The text is substantially identical, the great difference in price resulting from such reduction of the plates that several of them may be printed on a page, as in the 'Brewer' 12mo edition; there being, in fact, little difference between these two editions in the size of the illustrations. The 76 + 27 plates of the originals are here represented on twenty-eight sheets, for the most part giving three or four sets of figures, grouped as in the originals, and maintaining to a degree their characteristics. They are coarsely executed and uncolored. The edition answers all the practical purposes of those who may not be particular respecting illustration, and it is of great advantage to have a faithful and respectable presentation of the text of 'Wilson and Bonaparte' in convenient and inexpensive form.

Plays for Private Acting. Translated from the French and Italian by members of the Bellevue Dramatic Club, of Newport, R. I. Leisure Hour Series. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1878. Pp. 355.)—We have from time to time made mention of the successive volumes of the 'Théâtre de Campagne,' projected by M. Ernest Legouvé, and of 'Saynètes et Monologues,' a series in some sort rivalling it. Only one of the plays in the book before us is taken from the Italian. The remaining twenty have been chosen from the sixty-two plays in the five earlier volumes of the two French series. It will be seen that the American editor is more generous than his French predecessor, and it may be said at once that the volume is one for which the patrons of private theatricals should be thankful. The English version here given of M. Legouvé's "By a Cradle" is just the thing to suit the smallest company of performers: it calls for one only, a lady, just as the "Journey to . . ." adapted from M. Charles Cros, is an excellent recitation for a man. But there is, perhaps, an over-abundance of monologues in the volume—there are ten of them—and they, like the rest of the plays, suffer for lack of compression. French dialogue is lighter than ours, and when it is rendered into English it seems emptier, and calls more clamorously for condensation; and to turn the delightful "Billet de Faire Part" of M. Jacques Normand, one of the airiest and most graceful bits of recent French *vers de société*, into bald prose is to rob it of all its charm, and to leave it without any excuse for existence. The spirit of the exhilarating "Lettre du Fusilier Bridet" has been caught as well as may be, but here again only a fraction of the effect of the French original can be imported into English. The translators have had more success in the little dialogue dramas than in the monologues; the "Old Homestead," after André Theuriet, and the "Flower of Tlemcen," after Legouvé and Mérimée, are well done. What was, perhaps, the most amusing and the most apropos play in the 'Théâtre de Campagne,' the "Soupière" of M. Ernest d'Hervilly, does not fare as well here as it did at the hands of Mr. H. C. Bunner, who published an adaptation of it, called "Keramics," in *Puck* a few months ago.

The plays have not always been selected as judiciously as was possible. It would have been better to omit both "His Hat and his Cane" and a "Trip through my Pockets." There are, as we lately remarked (*Nation*, No. 635), very few pieces in any of the four volumes of the 'Théâtre de Campagne' unfit for general reading, and when saying this we expressly excepted, among others, "Sa Canne et son Chapeau." Two errors of the press remain to be pointed out: on page 289 M. Grévin, the well-known comic artist, is called M. Grevu; and both in the table of contents and at the head of the play itself the "Registered Letter" is said to be by M. Gustave Droz; it is in fact the production of M. Eugène Labiche, and it so appears in the second series of the 'Théâtre de Campagne.' 'Plays for Private Acting' is the ninety-ninth volume of the Leisure Hour Series.

Sound. By Prof. A. M. Mayer. Experimental Science Series. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878.)—The teacher of science labors under many difficulties, not the least of which is the need of a good text-book in his subject. It is difficult to combine a philosophical and historical treatment of the sciences classed under the general term "Physics" with an experimental one. In the schools, at present, the teaching of experimental science is for the most part neglected. Prof. Mayer has endeavored to show how more attention can profitably be devoted to laboratory work. This little work on Sound, like that which preceded it on Light, bears the evidence of much thought, and is full of ingenious experiments. The author shows how apparatus can be constructed at little expense by the student himself, or, in case the means are not at hand, he adds a price-list of the apparatus needed to perform the experiments described in the book, together with a reference to a mechanician who is ready to supply it at moderate prices. Many of the experiments are new, such as those involving the use of Prof. Rood's disc to show the reflection of sound, and those in the analysis and synthesis of sounds. Most teachers will desire to add something to this book, but all will be profited as much as their pupils by its perusal and use.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
American Catalogue, Vol. I., Part 1, A–Edwards, swd.	(F. Leypoldt)
Arnold (T.), English Literature, swd.	(D. Appleton & Co.) $0 25
Bailey (J. M.), England from a Back Window	(Lee & Shepard) 1 50
Beesly (Mrs.), Stories from the History of Rome	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 00
Bewick's Select Fables	(Longmans, Green & Co.)
Bucknill (Dr. J. C.), Habitual Drunkenness	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 00
Burnand (F. C.), Through the Keep-it-Dark Continent	(Rose-Belford Pub. Co.) 50
Calvert (G. H.), Wordsworth: a Study	(Lee & Shepard) 1 50
Capes (Rev. W. W.), Livy: Books XXI. and XXII.	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 50
Carl's First Days	(E. P. Dutton & Co.) 1 00
Chambers (W.), Stories of Remarkable Persons	(S. Worthington) 1 50
Cherbuliez (V.), L'Idée de Jean Têterol, swd.	(F. W. Christern)
Jean Têterol's Idea	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Church (Rev. A. J.) and Brodribb (Rev. W. J.), Tacitus: Annals, Book VI	(Macmillan & Co.) 90
Collins (W.), The Haunted Hotel	(Rose-Belford Pub. Co.)
Da Costa (Dr. J. M.), Harvey and his Discovery	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Dana (J. D.), Manual of Mineralogy and Lithology. 3d ed.	(John Wiley & Sons) 2 00
Farrar (Rev. F. W.), Life of Christ. Parts 1–33, swd.	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin)
Fox (Dr. C. B.), Sanitary Examinations of Water, Air, and Food.	(Lindsay & Blakiston) 4 00
Francke (K.), Lateinische Schulpoesie des XII. und XIII. Jahrhunderts, swd.	(B. Westermann & Co.)
Goodridge (J. F.), Mother Goose Rhymes with Silhouette Illustrations	(Lee & Shepard) 50
Hamann (A.), Lessing's Laokoon	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 75
Harland (Marian), The Dinner Year-Book	(Charles Scribner's Sons) 2 25
Holland (H. S.), William Dawes and his Ride with Paul Revere	(Boston)
Jewett (Sarah O.), Play-days: a Child's Story	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 1 50
Johnson (Elizabeth W.), The Studio Arts	(Henry Holt & Co.) 60
Lacombe (P.), Short History of the French People	(Henry A. Young & Co.) 1 25
Lang (R. H.), Cyprus	(Macmillan & Co.) 3 50
Miller (Emily H.), Little Neighbors	(E. P. Dutton & Co.) 1 50
Morice (F. D.), Stories in Attic Greek	(Rivingtons)
Raymond (R. W.), The Book of Job	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Savage (J.), Picturesque Ireland, Part 3, swd.	(Thomas Kelly) 50
Scribner's Monthly, Vols. 15, 16	(Scribner & Co.)
Sergeant (L.), New Greece	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin) 3 50
St. Nicholas, Vol. 5	(Scribner & Co.)
Sidgwick (A.), Cicero's De Amicitia	(Rivingtons)
Stoughton (Rev. J.), Our English Bible	(Scribner & Welford) 2 00
Townsend (Virginia F.), A Woman's Word: a Tale	(Lee & Shepard) 1 50
Turner	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 80
Vail (Rev. T. H.), The Comprehensive Church	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Yonge (Miss C. M.), Story of the Christians and Moors in Spain	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 25
Zola (E.), Helène: a Tale, swd.	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 50

Fine Arts.

DECORATIVE ART SOCIETY'S LOAN EXHIBITION.—III.

THE PICTURES.

IN the *World* of Sunday last were two pieces of information rather interesting to students of painting. One of them contained, in a judicious and suggestive paper on this very Loan Exhibition of pictures, a quotation from M. Taine, to the effect that "nobody paints nude subjects nowadays but from blackguardism or pedantry." The *World* does not quote it with approval or adhesion to the absurd doctrine contained in it; and might have said with justice that to make such a statement is to characterize one's ignorance of art more decidedly than a good-natured critic would wish to do. The other passage in the *World* is an item of news. It is stated that an engraving, or reproduction of some kind, of Hans Makart's immense picture, which has formed and still forms the centre and chief ornament of the Austrian art-gallery at the Paris Exposition, had been hanging until lately in a shop-window downtown, until one morning the frame appeared empty of its picture, and bearing a sarcastic legend to the effect that the Society for the Suppression of Vice had ordered it taken away. If this is true the time has come for some public-spirited person to resist the Society named above, and, if possible, punish such uncalled-for interference with private rights. Makart's picture is thirty feet long, and the figures in the extreme foreground are much larger than life—those in the middle distance and full light are life-size; it stands all across one of the entrances to the Austrian gallery, and an honor is paid to it which no other picture of all the thousands at the Champ-de-Mars this year has received—fixed seats are set before it at what is assumed to be the best distance. Now a

small colored print of it is pronounced unfit for a New York shop-window. If this picture should be brought to New York and exhibited at fifty cents admission, would agents of this Society dare to interfere ?

These remarks are caused by the presence in the gallery of the Loan Exhibition of a painting by M. Bouguereau, No. 70 of the catalogue. Certainly, this artist's work has no great charm in it ; the *World* says it has "no qualities at all"; and in France he seems to be known rather as a painter of mild religious pictures and as a favorite of the priests. Of his eleven pictures in the Paris Exhibition five are subjects of saints with stout golden glories round their heads, and the gentle sentimentality of such of his paintings as we see here may be supposed to be what he thinks the only religion possible to heretics. The picture mentioned above is better worth study than any other of the artist's canvases we have seen in America, because in it his aim has been purely artistic, and what there is in him of good and not so good is to be seen unmingled with an attempt to please a supposed popular taste for mild, young-ladyish sentiment.

Herr Makart, for his part, has nothing here that anybody can object to. His two pictures, each of one life-size figure, are in the corridor, and are interesting to those who like the golden brown with which he loves to invest his work. M. Jacquet and M. Madrazo are represented each by a study or portrait showing the head and shoulders—these pictures also of life-size. The former painter is a young man, it appears, and pupil of M. Bouguereau. The picture in question seems to us an improvement on his master in many ways, and its flesh-painting should be compared with the unnatural bloom of M. Madrazo's lady at breakfast, who is *fardée*, if ever woman was. The most important full-sized figure, except the Jules Breton mentioned last week, is the portrait of a Spanish lady by the late Mariano Fortuny, said in the catalogue to be the only portrait he ever painted—but this must be taken with qualifications. Perhaps it is the only portrait of a lady not a model, of full size, and in oil. One can find faults in it, but its extraordinary merits are much more noteworthy and much more to the purpose. An olive-complexioned young woman wearing a black silk dress buttoned with coral, and a little pretty lace, with bare head and hands, and in the most unstudied of all attitudes, as if she were just passing behind the frame and had stopped to look out through it—this is quite the ideal portrait, in many significances. The above is No. 55. No. 76 is a little study of a single figure, and much more like what one thinks of when Fortuny's name is spoken.

That American favorite, M. Jean Léon Gérôme, is represented here by three pictures, of which No. 37 is perhaps the best—so much more satisfactory is his painting of Persian tiles than of human figures. This is the interior of a Persian inn, with fire-place whose immense projecting hood is wholly sheathed with richly-painted pottery-tiles—not unlike the few fine ones which appear in actual existence in the corridor on each side of the entrance to the Oriental Room, just at the head of the main stairs. No. 52 is the well-known picture, described in the catalogue as "Molière breakfasting with Louis XIV. at Versailles." The title is not exactly correct, nor is the scene as Mr. Gérôme has painted it exactly correct, according to Madame Campan's version ; but as the whole story is denied, as if by authority, that inaccuracy need concern us little. What is more noticeable is the error the catalogue makes in calling the ecclesiastic in blue Cardinal Mazarin. The cardinal had been dead and Louis had been "his own first minister" some three years when this little rebuke to the king's gentlemen is supposed to have been administered ; and if he ever appeared in blue silk in the king's apartment proof of the fact should be furnished ; "if true, it is not true seeming." Right near this picture hangs the only Alma-Tadema in the collection. Mr. Alma-Tadema, Dutch or English at pleasure, is the king of painters of surfaces and textures, of stuffs and marble, of bronze and wood ; nor is he deficient in skill as a painter of flesh, as those can testify who have seen his picture called "The Sculptor's Model," a nude figure of life-size, a really extraordinary work. In the little picture before us some part of his prodigious skill is displayed, particularly in the marble font and the decorative bronze chair near it, presumably a piece of Roman work of a couple of centuries before the scene passing in the picture. Mr. Alma-Tadema's archæology is always careful, and sometimes more than careful—almost imaginative ; and in this picture we especially enjoy the fragments of Roman buildings made to do duty in a Franco-Gaulish building, the granite columns set on a stylobate without bases, and the bits of architrave used so unconsciously as mere ornament while flat arches above do the work.

In our brief space we have sought to name only those artists who seem to be fairly well represented in the gallery ; but the military pictures, however inadequate, require a word. M. Détaille is making wonderful progress in the higher qualities of his art, and there are points in his picture of a Hussar officer, No. 32, in which Meissonier could not match him. His larger paintings do not often come our way, as they are of purely French and modern warlike scenes. French amateurs are naturally more ready than our own to pay their very high prices. He is a young man, and bids fair to become the best painter of modern military subjects. M. Berne-Bellecour and M. A. M. de Neuville, also painters of great merit in the same line of art, have each one small study, both of which are of great interest.

THE COLLECTIONS OF ORNAMENTAL ART.

Perhaps the most remarkable single exhibition is that of the stuffs and embroideries in the Oriental Room and the corridor-cases attached to it. More extensive exhibits of china and jade, of jewelry and plate have been made elsewhere, but we know of no instance in which such a show of fine textile fabrics has been opened publicly. The beauty of Japanese silks has only begun to dawn upon our collectors. Japanese decorative art is popular enough, but there are great differences in the values of different developments of it, and in none is a more positive and remarkable success achieved than in the silks, whether simple in pattern and of two or three simple shades, or blazing with a score of vivid colors and gold thread. There have been a great many fine pieces brought to the United States, ancient as well as modern, robes not unworn as well as the stuff in "breadths" ; and a great deal is owned here in New York. Indeed, nothing but lack of wall-space prevented the collections from being much larger, and nothing but lack of case-room forbade the addition of many fine and delicate embroideries that could not be shown except under glass.

In the Exhibition of last year there was no Chinese porcelain except a few blue and white pieces—of great beauty, to be sure—in one case. This year there is a not large yet a considerable display, chiefly of varieties of color. Mr. Avery's very extensive collection, large and rich if tried even by an European standard, has been drawn upon, and the pieces taken from it are chiefly "colored glazes, splash, soufflé, and crackle"; moreover some very good rose-color, blue, ivory-white, and other plain-colored porcelain is loaned by other persons. There are a few very fine pieces of Oriental porcelain painted in enamels with flowers and figures. There are but few fine pieces of Japanese ornamental pottery, but among those few are some of unusual beauty. The case of rough wares loaned by the Japanese Manufacturing and Trading Company will give to many persons a new idea of the delicate feeling for subdued color and quiet ornamentation possessed by the extraordinary people of the most eastern of lands.

The collection of European pottery is rather varied and instructive than rich. The opening came so early in the season that exceptional treasures could not be got out of their safes and storehouses by owners who were away from town. English pottery and china is perhaps the most fully represented.

In the West Gallery is a collection more miscellaneous than those of the other rooms, and therefore far less instructive and less interesting to students and amateurs. The charm of such a gathering of objects as is possible in an exhibition of this nature lies in the opportunity for comparison ; one is able to compare Kioto decoration with that of Satsuma —the painting of Sèvres with that of Dresden, and the like ; and, moreover, to compare one piece of Sèvres or of Satsuma with another piece of the same ware. But for this examination, really instructive and interesting in the best sense, a collection like that in the west room substitutes the separate impressions produced by separate and unclassified objects. There is, indeed, a case of carved ivories, and these are worthy of detailed description ; and the frame of embroideries and stuffs belonging to Mrs. Hoe includes some most admirable Turkish and Rumanian embroideries which illustrate one another and help one another wonderfully.

These small Loan Exhibitions, held year after year, afford a means of adding to the knowledge and taste of the community which ought to be improved in every possible way. Better cases would be one great help ; a much fuller scheme of labelling the objects exposed would be a still greater advantage ; there is not time to make a classified catalogue, but descriptive labels are in some ways better, and have only one serious defect—that they disfigure the cases ; they should be small and of some neutral color. But these improvements cost money. A public-spirited person, desirous to instruct his townsmen and to spare the treasury of the society, might do a good act in providing one or both of these needed improvements.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 14, 1878.

The Week.

THE financial situation in England improved during the week, and although there was no great change in the Bank of England reserve, the rate for discounts in the open market fell to 4¾ to 5 per cent. The French exchanges are no longer in favor of London, and sterling at New York is about midway between the specie-exporting and the specie-importing points. The most important financial event here was the meeting of the New York Clearing-House Association for the purpose of bringing the banks into line with the Treasury respecting specie payments. The Secretary of the Treasury now sees and admits that silver remonetization is an embarrassment to resumption, and is apparently willing to use the power at his command to put off the practical effects of last winter's legislation until the sober sense of the country demands the repeal or modification of that law, or until the price of silver advances to 60*d.* per ounce. This is the most that he can do now. The New York banks in the meantime have resolved practically to demonetize silver—that is, they will not receive deposits of it except on the agreement that these shall be paid in kind; and they have prohibited the settlement through the Clearing-House of differences between banks in silver dollars or certificates. To do what they can to keep gold the money of account and to keep legal-tender notes at par with gold, they have resolved that either can be used in settlement of differences, and they have asked the Treasury to discontinue the issue of gold certificates. To keep away from the commercial centres so far as is possible the silver dollars, they have asked the Treasury to call in United States legal-tender notes of smaller denomination than $5, hoping thereby to make a place as pocket-money for all the silver that may be coined in the next year or two. After all is done it still is true that unless the silver legislation of last winter shall be repealed or modified, or unless the price of silver bullion shall advance to 60*d.* per ounce, neither the intervention of the Treasury nor the banks, nor both, can avert the logical consequences of the silver folly. Silver in London ruled during the week at 50⅝*d.* to 50½*d.*; at the close the bullion value of the 412½-grain dollar here was $0.8507 gold.

The later returns from the elections correct some previous errors, but do not materially affect the result. The Republicans are surprised to lose one Congressional district in Minnesota by a large majority, which would indicate some special and local cause; in Florida they unexpectedly carry the Second District; and in North Carolina Russell and Martin are elected over the regular Democrats, Waddell and Yeates. The previously-reported gains in Northern States are confirmed, with the addition, probably, of Albright in Pennsylvania, where, too, ex-Governor Curtin is defeated, owing to the well-founded distrust of all parties. Mr. Morrison is re-elected from Illinois. Texas sends one Greenbacker, and the Independents in Georgia appear to have won remarkable success under the leadership of Alexander H. Stephens, who returns to Congress. South Carolina has once more a solid Democratic delegation in the House, and that party is felicitating itself on having carried thirty-one out of the thirty-two counties, while two years ago it carried but eighteen. The charges of wholesale ballot-stuffing have as yet received no reply from Southern papers; the mode closely resembled the Republican "little joker" procedure in Florida. In both these States arrests have begun to be made by the Government. In Virginia the vote was very light, owing, it is said, to the requirement of paying a capitation tax. In Missouri the Democrats gain two instead of three Congressmen. The latest count of the next House gives 134 Republicans, 148 Democrats, and 11 Greenbackers, granting that California will remain evenly divided, as now. Naturally the closeness of this result has started many projects for contesting seats, and there is a proposition to contest the seats of all Republicans where Federal supervisors of election officiated.

One of the performances of both parties in electing a Judge of the Court of Appeals in this State has not attracted the attention it deserves. When a vacancy occurred on the bench, last June, Governor Robinson appointed, for the first time, we believe, in the history of the Court, a lawyer to fill it *ad interim* who had had for years the largest practice at its bar, whose professional reputation was well recognized throughout the State, and who only consented to fill it and relinquish his business at the Governor's earnest request—Mr. Samuel Hand. In fact, the appointment was an ideally fit one, and was received with great satisfaction by the press and the bar, and especially by the bar of this city, from which about half the business of the Court comes. One might naturally have expected that both parties would have contented themselves with keeping Mr. Hand permanently in his place, or at all events that his own party, the Democratic, would have done so. Far from this, one section of the Democratic Convention bitterly opposed him simply because he had been approved by Governor Robinson, and declared its willingness, while admitting his fitness, to support anybody in order to beat him. The delegation from this city, too, wholly ignored the wishes of the bar, and gave their votes to a candidate little known to the profession, and whose practice had been obscure and provincial, and who had begged for the place, rather than give them to Mr. Hand, who preserved his dignity and sat silent.

Mr. Evarts's despatch to Mr. Welsh on the Fisheries question, published on Monday, contains the strongest presentation of the American view of the Halifax award that has yet been advanced. The arguments are not new, but they are put forward with all the skill and force which professional mastery in the art of presenting a case can bring to bear. His chief points of attack are the excessive amount of the award and the lack of unanimity in the decision of the Commissioners. With regard to the first, he lays down the unquestionable principle that an award, to be binding, must not transcend the limits of the matter submitted to arbitration—*e.g.*, if in a private arbitration the matter submitted were the decision of a dispute about a promissory note, and the award were found to cover not only that but a wholly different dispute about an assault and battery, the arbitration would be a mere nullity. The minds of the arbitrators must meet upon the precise matter submitted to them, and their decision must be with regard to it alone. Now, in this case the only question submitted was whether at all (and, if at all, how much) the value of the fishery privileges granted to the United States by the Treaty of Washington exceeded those granted to Canada. If it is clear from the award that something else was considered and decided upon by the Commissioners, the award cannot stand. Thus far there cannot be any room for difference of opinion. The next step is not so easy to take. It is that the mere excessiveness of the award is a conclusive proof that the arbitrators had in contemplation something radically different from that submitted to them. Mr. Evarts shows that, by the evidence in the case, the only real advantage derived by the United States from the Treaty was the inshore mackerel-fishing; that the value of this could by no system of estimation be made to amount to more than a few hundred thousand dollars; and therefore draws the conclusion that the difference between this and the award ($5,500,000) can only be accounted for by the supposition that the Commissioners did not confine themselves within the limits of their powers under the Treaty, but went outside of them, and rendered judgment for something else than the twelve years' fishing-right conceded by Article XVIII.

With regard to the failure of the three Commissioners to agree, and the refusal of the American Commissioner to join in the award, he points out that the Treaty of Washington provided for four boards in certain contingencies: the Geneva Tribunal, the Board of Assessors under it, the British-American Claims Commission, and the Halifax Board; that the first three were expressly empowered to decide by a majority vote, while the clauses of the Treaty with regard to the proceedings of the Halifax arbitration are silent on this point. (The Northwestern Boundary dispute, it will be remembered, was referred to a single arbitrator.) The natural inference from this, Mr. Evarts thinks, is that the high contracting parties desired a unanimous award or none at all, and he suggests the rather improbable explanation that it was felt that "So vague a subject of valuation as the twelve years' prospective catch of mackerel within three miles of the shore, on the coasts of the United States and of the Provinces, so diffuse a problem as the distribution of the burdens of duties between producer and consumer, gave too large a range for floating speculations, unless anchored to sober sense by the requirement of unanimity." We say this is far-fetched because if it had been thought necessary to give any one of the arbitrating boards called into existence by the Treaty an anchorage of that sort, it is infinitely more likely that it would have been that which was to meet at Geneva. Mr. Evarts does not profess any desire, however, to press this point. The main object of his letter is to insist on the first ground of objection to the award, and to warn Great Britain that this Government must not be taken, in any future controversy about the fisheries, to have acceded to the award as representing a true measure of the value of the rights conceded under the Treaty of Washington. Meantime, Lord Salisbury's reply has been received, and is said to hold our Government to the duty of paying first and settling disputes afterwards. There is no reason to doubt that this will be done at the date fixed.

The members of the Returning Boards, and the Southern counters generally, seem to have been encouraged by the cipher telegrams into coming forward with fresh accounts of attempts on their virtue by licentious Democrats. Anderson at once, on hearing the news, offered to explain how it was that he had been seduced into lying about and conspiring against good Republicans by the wiles of bad Democratic politicians. Now comes Mr. Cowgill, one of the Florida Board, and alleges that Mr. Manton Marble told him that "Tilden was a man of immense wealth and great gratitude," and that if he (Cowgill) gave him his vote he "would have the gratitude of the great Democratic party, and also the gratitude of Mr. Tilden and all that that implies." Afterwards Mr. Andrew Banks, of Baltimore, assured him that not only would he help him to establish a National Bank in Jacksonville, but if he voted for the Tilden electors "he could have whatever he desired in office and money." Thereupon Mr. Cowgill looked around for some respectable witness in whose presence this damnable proposal might be repeated, but, seeing no one, strangely took the guilty Banks into the Governor's private office, "which he knew to be empty," and there told him secretly to go back to his employers, and say that Tilden's election would be worse than civil war, and that if he (Cowgill) had to vote for him on the evidence "no favor would he ever accept from the Democratic party or from any individual Democrat." Mr. Banks now writes to the papers denying all this flatly, and produces letters in support of the assertion that his intercourse with Cowgill was on business solely.

Mr. Cowgill's heart is doubtless in the right place, and Banks and Marble mistook their man; but his convictions are not so unshakable as his virtue. He went over the evidence carefully with General Barlow the day before the Board met, and agreed with him in thinking that, to give the vote to the Hayes electors, he would have to disregard satisfactory evidence that 219 Republican votes had been fraudulently added in Alachua County, and would have to adopt one rule of law in passing on Democratic counties, and another rule in passing on Republican counties, and would have to throw out Democratic counties and precincts on trifling grounds and for trifling reasons which no decent court would sustain for a moment. Mr. Cowgill concurred in all this, and told General Barlow that, as a conscientious man, he could come to no other conclusion. He then went off with Governor Stearns, and probably passed the night with him and Messrs. Chandler and Noyes and other workers. The next day he had changed his mind and voted manfully for Hayes. The truth was probably in his case, as in that of any member of the Board who happened to be honest, that he determined that inasmuch as "Tilden's election would be worse than civil war," two and two should not make four for *that* purpose, whatever the mathematicians might say. This view of the functions of Returning Boards —that their duty is not only to count the votes, but count them in such fashion that the enemy shall get the worst of it and the country be saved—has, we fear, proved quite satisfactory to the Democrats into whose hands they have fallen in all the Southern States. We have heard of no legislation changing their character or regulating their duties, and they will hereafter all follow Mr. Cowgill's example and protect the people against bad Presidents and all wicked schemes of the other side.

Mr. Chamberlain, the late Governor of South Carolina, has been indicted in that State for fraud in connection with the Land Commission. As he would certainly be delivered for trial by Governor Robinson, he has made a virtue of necessity by telegraphing that he would appear when called upon—a step which indicates nothing either one way or the other as to his innocence or guilt, but which is of course decent and proper. It is characteristic of the way in which the carpet-bag régime has been treated by a portion of the Republican press, however, that this expression of his willingness to meet a trial which there is no way of evading except by flight and the loss of his legal practice, should be trumpeted by some of them as a sign that he is conscious of no wrong, and that they should add a prediction that he will not get a fair trial. It appears sometimes as if they thought that none of those who plundered the State in Mr. Chamberlain's time ought to be made amenable to any human tribunal, and that it is enough for them to aver when indicted, like the Beaufort colored preacher when accused of stealing turkeys, that they will answer their accusers at the last great day. He himself alleges that the motive of his prosecution is a desire for vengeance on him because he is counsel for certain creditors of one of the State railroads. Neagle and Parker, who were indicted for the same offence, have turned State's evidence.

There is no further news of importance from India regarding the Afghan quarrel, except that the massing of troops at the frontier and the accumulation of stores and transportation still go on. The more the case against the Amir is examined, however, the less defensible the course of the Indian Government in the manner of making an issue with him appears, and the English public finds itself more and more compelled to rely for the justifiability of the war on its necessity to uphold "prestige," which is an unfortunate position for the Liberal press. In the meantime the Russian press amuses itself with all manner of dreadful stories about the dangers to British power which are showing themselves in Central Asia. The account of the march of the columns which started out last June for Tashkend and went to Djam, has been published in terms which show that it was meant to be a diversion in aid of the Treaty of San Stefano, as was also undoubtedly the mission to Afghanistan. Perhaps, on the whole, however, the most important news from that quarter of the world is the report of the return of the Oxus or Amu Darya into its old bed of centuries ago, by which it will discharge itself hereafter into the Caspian Sea, instead of the Sea of Aral. If this be true it will introduce water into the Khivan desert, and remove one of the greatest of the Russian difficulties in controlling the Central Asiatic states, and especially Khiva. But the London *Times* suggests that it is only a branch of the river which is referred to, and which was dammed about fifty years ago and made to flow into one corner of the Sea of Aral instead of another.

Lord Beaconsfield made a speech on Saturday, at the Lord Mayor's dinner in London, in which he scouted the danger to India by an invasion on the northwest frontier, but thought there might be danger of it in the other direction if the Euphrates valley were held by a very strong or very weak power, and it was against this danger that the Anglo-Turkish Convention was intended to provide. The occupation of Cyprus was meant to reassure the Sultan, by letting him know that if any one tried to prevent him from carrying out reform help would be soon at hand. The remainder of the policy of the Government was directed to preventing the fatal supremacy of any one Power in the Mediterranean, and for this purpose the execution of the Treaty of Berlin would be insisted on, in spirit and letter. The passage about the possibility of the Sultan's being attacked by somebody for reforming, and having to defend himself in arms in the character of a reformer, is so humorous that it has probably been misreported. The essentially fragile character of the Government policy is shown in the persistence with which the Premier makes it rest on the independence of Turkey, which probably nobody outside the Cabinet believes in.

The growing uneasiness about the doings of the Russians in Turkey seems to have very good foundation in fact, and is not likely to be permanently removed by the assurances which the Czar is said to have recently given that he meant to execute the Treaty of Berlin faithfully. The Russian agents have reminded the Turks of the undeniable circumstance that the Treaty of San Stefano stands in so far as it is not abrogated or modified by the Treaty of Berlin, and have presented to the Porte the draught of a new Treaty between the two Powers on this basis, which the Porte has declined to accept. The result of this is, the Russian Minister says, that as between Russia and Turkey a state of war still exists, and, although Russia is prohibited by the Treaty of Berlin from making Turkey pay an indemnity in any manner that will imperil the rights of her existing creditors, she is not precluded from making her pay it somehow, and exacting guarantees for it, and squeezing her till she gives them. Moreover, although the Treaty of Berlin fixes the time within which Russia must evacuate the new principality of Bulgaria and the new province of Eastern Rumelia, it says nothing whatever about the time within which she must evacuate the territory of Turkey proper. Accordingly, she announces her intention of staying in Turkey until her demands are met and the safety of the Christian population in the evacuated districts has been provided for to her satisfaction. She has poured down troops from Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia into the Sultan's remaining dominions, the limit of which now passes a little north of Adrianople, and makes no secret of her intention of remaining there for the present. But this in no way conflicts, she maintains with much plausibility, with the rigid execution of the Treaty of Berlin; which illustrates well the looseness with which that instrument was drawn.

She is raising, too, or instigating, another difficulty which probably everybody at the Conference foresaw except Lords Beaconsfield and Salisbury, who either did not see it or affected not to see it. The Russian plenipotentiaries predicted from the first that the division of Bulgaria, as settled by the Treaty of San Stefano, into two could not be carried out in practice; that the two provinces would soon begin an agitation for union which would finally prove successful, just as Wallachia and Moldavia united themselves into Rumania, in spite of the Treaty of Paris which solemnly put them asunder. As might have been expected, the prediction now begins to be vigorously fulfilled. A fierce movement in favor of union has already sprung up in Bulgaria with the sanction or connivance of the Russian authorities. The *Maritza*, a bi-weekly Bulgarian paper recently started and published at Philippopolis, is the official paper of the Russian authorities engaged in organizing the province, and publishes all the official decrees and announcements. Side by side with these are propagandist articles of the fiercest kind directed against the partition of Bulgaria, and exposing the claims and sufferings of the Bulgarian race, not only in Eastern Rumelia, or Southern Bulgaria as it prefers to call it, but in Macedonia, in which the insurrection has recently broken out. Some of the poetry in it, too, is of the most inflammatory kind. As the feeling thus expressed is likely soon to be backed by a formidable Bulgarian army, which the Russians are organizing and largely officering, it will be seen that Lord Beaconsfield's "happy thought" is not likely to prove a very strong tower of defence to the unhappy Turk. This person, in the meantime, has not, it is said, in the least realized that he is beaten into the dust and is living on charity, for he is still collecting troops on the Greek frontier, and keeps up all the swagger of a great military power.

The Italian ministerial crisis proves to have been precipitated by a speech of the premier, Cairoli, at Pavia a month ago. The Cabinet was, in spite of its radical chief, composed of members of the Right as well as of the Left, having Admiral Brocchetti in charge of the Navy, General Bruzzo of the Army, and Count Corti of Foreign Affairs. The relation of these three ministers to their colleagues had already become uncomfortable, and General Bruzzo in particular had taken a decided stand against allowing the pardoning power to interfere with the regular sentences of military tribunals, against the recognition of Republican *tiri a segno* (the Garibaldian militia of 1862), and in favor of dissolving the numerous Republican clubs at which the abolition of monarchy was openly and noisily advocated. Cairoli's speech at Pavia showed how little his radicalism had been tempered by the responsibilities of constitutional administration, or affected by the opposition of the Minister of War. He insisted that the freedom of public meetings was as sacred as the freedom of the press, and rested upon the same foundation, and declared that his Government would punish excesses through the regular judicial channels, but would not suppress associations. He gave notice of a measure for extending the suffrage to all male citizens twenty-one years of age, capable of reading and writing; defended the gradual abolition of the grist-tax as taking an iniquitous burden from the farming class, and gave notice that if any new taxes were imposed they would be of a sumptuary nature. He took the "poor man" under his protection in the true socialistic spirit; spoke vaguely of maintaining the civil order against clerical encroachment; announced as in contemplation a bill to organize the *tiri a segno* as a complement of the reduced regular army; and in analyzing the budget referred to the expenses of some departments as "productive," and to those of the Army and Navy as "inevitable"—an epithet which by a curious accident got reported to the press as "unproductive."

The speech made everywhere a profound sensation, as the programme of a man known to be greatly under the influence of Garibaldi. The extension of the suffrage, joined to the demagogic appeals to class jealousies, the vindication of organizations aiming to overthrow the existing form of government in Italy, and the support of irregular military bands having a political origin, made the relaxation of discipline in the army, the alarming increase in crime and turbulence throughout the peninsula, and the inefficiency of the police seem ominous indeed. The first consequence was the immediate resignation of the Ministers of War and of the Navy, offended not more by the radical programme than by the supposed use of the word "unproductive" in reference to their departments. Count Corti likewise improved the opportunity to withdraw, although Cairoli had defended the foreign policy of the Cabinet. Their places were temporarily filled by Brin for the Navy, and Bonelli for the Army, Cairoli himself taking Foreign Affairs. The new Cabinet is regarded as a makeshift that cannot long survive the meeting of Parliament. Crispi, the most active leader of the Left, has announced his opposition in advance, and that of the Right will be unanimous. The situation is one of great interest and of the highest importance to the kingdom.

THE RECENT POLICY OF THE DEMOCRATS.

THE Democrats have, during the last year, almost attained to the level of their wisdom in 1872, when they raised the flag of reform under the leadership of Mr. Greeley, and gave the Republican chiefs, whose weaknesses were already sufficiently notorious, four years more of a solid hold on power. It was not that in 1872 they proposed anything very wicked; in fact, their programme was harmless, if not praiseworthy; but by taking Mr. Greeley for their candidate, a man who had been their fiercest opponent for a lifetime, and whose want of perspicacity was notorious, they made it impossible to have the smallest confidence in their sincerity. The conclusion was drawn by an overwhelming majority that they proposed to put him in the White House solely because they felt they could surround him with as many Wicked Partners as they pleased, and carry on any number of sinful games under the shelter of his name. Subsequently, when they got a majority in the House, it seemed plainly enough the part of wisdom to address themselves solely to the abuses which had drawn support to them from the discontented independent Republicans, and to refrain rigidly from meddling with things on which all Republicans, independent or not, would be likely to be sensitive and suspicious. For instance, it would be difficult to conceive of a greater piece of strategical folly than the attack on the army immediately after the riots, in which it had rendered essential service. The army, as a source of expense or as a menace to liberty or law, was something which was hardly perceptible to the voters. There was no popular feeling about it in reality. There would have been no outcry from any quarter if the Democratic majority in the House had let it completely alone. They could have done so with a perfectly good grace. But they not only could not let it alone but made it one of their principal topics; and though the reduction they proposed to make in it was very trifling, and the saving likely to result from it very small, they hammered away at it through the winter until they had thoroughly alarmed and disgusted not only the Republicans of the old rock, whom nothing shakes or changes, but the malcontent Republicans, without whose aid the Democrats know they can never get possession of the Government. That is to say, in order to get rid of five thousand soldiers more or less, they furnished their enemies with proof and illustration in support of the theory that they hated the army because it had put down the Rebellion and had helped to save property from pillage; or, in other words, in support of the belief that they were a party of disorganization and disorder. The enquiry into the Presidential count, set on foot by the Potter Committee, was marked by the same absence of sagacity. Granted that its object was, as we have no doubt it was, not to oust Mr. Hayes but to discredit the Republicans, nothing but absolute knowledge and acquired proof of frauds or corruption could have warranted it, because it was certain to excite great alarm among the sober-minded and industrious classes, and to seem to promise a continuance of turmoil and business depression. It was prosecuted, however, for weary months, without any better result than showing, what everybody secretly or openly believed already, that the Republican officials at the South were disreputable and untrustworthy persons.

We say nothing about the recently-exposed attempts at corruption during the Presidential canvass, because it would, on the facts as far as known, be unfair to hold the party responsible for the doings of Mr. Tilden and his immediate adherents. But when the greenback movement began to show itself there was once more a chance for the leaders to prove that they had retained some of the sagacity and comprehension of the strong influences of American society for which Democratic management was once justly celebrated. But about this they displayed almost as great folly as about Greeley. Excepting Mr. Bayard, we believe there is not a single Democratic politician who did not very soon take it for granted that in a country of vast manufacturing and commercial interests, with a large public debt and with untold amounts of property dependent for its value on the maintenance of the Government credit, an attack on this credit, largely supported by avowed communists and agrarians, would probably succeed; and they accordingly, with greater or less disguise, began to promote it. The general result is that they have lost all that the follies and shortcomings of the Republicans during the last twelve years have given them, and find themselves without a single achievement of their own to take its place in the popular mind, and close on another Presidential nomination without a single man of prominence who will be likely to draw from without the votes which will, in a severe struggle, be necessary to elect him, and whom they are in the least likely to nominate.

They have in their ranks the most ignorant and least reflective portion of American society, for which they may or may not be to blame, but they seem to find it impossible to rid themselves of the idea that this is the ruling portion of American society, and that the first condition of party success is to make the platform so low that all this class can jump on it. They are, therefore, constantly taking up doctrines which none but the most illiterate and reckless of the community could possibly entertain, and on which no civilized government could be carried on, and then pushing them as if by much speaking the majority was sure to be won over to them; as if, in other words, the sobriety and intelligence and conservatism of the bulk of the population had had nothing to do with the success of the Government. There was a period only one year ago when it would not have been difficult for them to get the weather-gauge of the Republicans on the currency question. If, while the Republicans were still absorbed in the woes of the carpet-baggers, the Democratic managers had had the perspicacity to do what Blaine and Conkling have done so deftly at the eleventh hour—dropped the Southern question as dead or settled, and had supported the Administration, on which the Republican chiefs were busy making war, in bringing administrative and currency reform to the front, and taken their stand on the old Democratic doctrine of hard money—the position of the Republican leaders would now be pitiable instead of being, as it is, triumphant.

The truth is that the Democrats are paralyzed and likely to remain paralyzed by their faith in something which does not exist and has never shown itself in American politics, and which, if it had shown itself, would long ago have ruined the Government—a popular love of extremes. Nothing will persuade a Democratic politician that people will not push any doctrine they show even a slight fancy for to its last limits, though it is owing to the popular reluctance ever to do this even under the most trying circumstances that Democratic government on this continent has not already proved a failure. For instance, the great Democratic movement towards the exclusion of property, as such, from preponderating political influence, which began early in the century, and finally triumphed in all the State constitutions, led to much rhetorical glorification of "the poor man" and much assertion of his inherent worth and capacity *quâ* poor man. But it all went on in a community in which there were really no proletaries, and in which very few persons indeed lived from hand to mouth; and when the victory came it consisted not so much in the admission of a new class to a share in the government, as in the formal recognition by the actual holders of power of a principle which was not likely to have much, if any, practical effect. To suppose that in a country in which every man is a trader, and the pursuit of wealth eager and successful beyond example, it meant an ascetic repudiation of respect for property, and a desire to see day-laborers filling the legislatures and regulating social affairs with sole reference to their own needs, would have been very fantastic; and yet a supposition of this sort seems to have worked itself in among the traditions of the Democratic party, and still impresses the imagination of its politicians. They are, therefore, constantly betrayed into supposing that if they have the shiftless, unthrifty class on their side—the class which saves nothing and never expects to save anything, and for which the disorder of credit and alarm of capital have no terrors, because it does not understand what these things mean—they cannot fail to carry elections. There cannot, however, be a greater mistake. There is no country in the world in which property and the mysterious thing called "business,"

which means the interests of property-holders, are more powerful in the long run than they are here, unless it be France. There is no country in which it is more dangerous to alarm them, and then meet them man for man at the polls. They are all the more powerful, too —something which Democratic politicians forget—because they are not the artificial creation of law, but in an extraordinary and, indeed, unprecedented degree the product of mother wit, or, in other words, of the free play of people's faculties. The result is that though property-owners may now and then be deceived for a while as to their true interest, there is little chance in the long run for any scheme which there is time for discussion to prove to be likely to result in loss, or likely to give money to loafers and blockheads. The very popular admiration for "smartness" which our moralists so much deplore, tells powerfully against the creation of special arrangements for making life easy to people who are not "smart" enough to get a living out of society as it now is.

THE SOUTHERN QUESTION AS AFFECTED BY THE LATE ELECTION.

AMONG the minor gains of the campaign just closed must be counted the confusion of that stalwart Republican, Mr. William E. Chandler. Our readers will remember his inference from the Maine election that New Hampshire would likewise fall a prey to the Democrats and the Greenbackers if the financial issue was allowed to take the place, or even to take precedence of "human rights." No prophet has fared so badly as he. Tried by the test on which he staked his reputation as a sagacious political calculator, he has proved that the Southern issue is no longer essential to Republican success at the polls, or to the cohesiveness and persistence of the Northern wing of the party. Unlike the pious old lady who felt lost if total depravity was to be taken from her, the Republicans have surrendered the capital on which they had depended ever since the war, and yet find themselves stronger before the country than at any time since the House of Representatives became Democratic, and with hopes and prospects (even for the next Presidential election) superior to those of their adversaries singly or combined. They have actually in one campaign put Banks and Boutwell on the shelf, and Butler out of the pale, and they not only survive but flourish, regain ground that was lost, and resume the offensive.

To this conclusion, we repeat, Mr. Chandler stands committed along with every unprejudiced observer. But we suspect that his friend and co-worker, Mr. George C. Gorham, Secretary of the National Executive Committee, is fully persuaded that the party's success is due to his own "stalwart" management, and that the human-rights documents which he distributed so industriously were of far more avail in saving votes than the cold financial harangues of the President and Secretary Schurz which he refused to circulate. The delusion is of no consequence whatever so far as this bigoted machinist is concerned, but it is time that the party which has just sloughed off its dead covering should rid its organized direction of men who have learnt nothing and forgotten nothing. This would be highly important if only the North were kept in view; it is indispensable if any attempt is to be made to break the "solid South." That such an attempt will be made we sincerely hope. We heard much at the opening of the late campaign of the Republican intention to send speakers throughout the South. The common sense of the managers, however, kept them from a course that would have been simply foolish with "human rights" for a shibboleth, and of little avail at best when, contrary to what was taking place at the North, the question was not between sound and false economical ideas, but whether the local political revolution against the calamities of universal suffrage should be allowed to go backward. If the Republicans still cherish the belief that with or without Federal interference they can ultimately turn it back, they may spare themselves the pains of sending emissaries to the South. There is, nevertheless, nothing to hinder them from sending to-morrow speakers qualified to expound honest money in the spirit in which Mr. Schurz expounded it in Boston and Cincinnati, to South Carolina or Louisiana or Mississippi. In other words, the field is now clear at the South for the discussion of all politico-economical issues, having a national bearing, to which the voting population without distinction of color can be invited.

The one thing the Republican stump-speaker must avoid is an exclusively black audience. Everything which suggests, even remotely, a purpose to revive the color line will beget suspicion first and violence afterwards. The assumption that a negro is of course a Republican—if you please, an honest-money Republican—will not pass at the South. The truer it is, the more strenuously the whites will insist on attending the meeting and "dividing the time" with the Northern orator. Policy will therefore dictate the open adoption of the Mississippi plan—that is, the invitation to a joint debate before the general public, and for the sake not of black hearers but of white. It is through their division that the division of the blacks is to be brought about, which should be the ultimate aim of Republicans who desire to see the blacks regain, not the suffrage, which they have not lost, but the full potency of the ballot. They never will regain it except by taking sides deliberately with rival leaders among the whites. Personal ambition and local interests will sooner or later create this rivalry; but it can be greatly hastened by the introduction of issues which as naturally challenge a difference of opinion at the South as at the North—that is to say, which are truly national. The tariff sufficed in old times, and it may yet suffice. For the present the currency question can summon adherents to the standard of Bayard, of Thurman, of Sherman, or to any other shade of doctrine.

These considerations may seem premature, but they are by no means so. The triumphant Republican party soon to assemble in Congress, a minority but buoyant with hope, and feeling a principle at last under their feet, must decide whether to keep out of sight what was buried in the campaign, or to galvanize it once more into life. Here is Mr. Blaine admitting in Philadelphia that he and his colleagues tried the "remedy of silence" in regard to the Southern question; and while he does not complain of the result of this remedy at the North, he does not find it "satisfactory" at the South. He expected an immediate reciprocity in the shape of a fair proportion of Republican Congressmen from the South, forgetting that Gorham and Chandler Republican Congressmen were not exactly the return which a grateful South would naturally make, and that distinctively honest-money Republicans do not exist except at the North. Mr. Blaine anticipates the very condition of things which it will be his duty from this time forward to strive to create. Instead of this, he raises an alarm about the solid Democratic delegation from the South (not a strict verity, though near enough), and gives warning that "in all the great financial and economic contests of the future the North cannot and will not permit the hostile Democratic power of the South to be doubled by trampling under foot the rights of colored citizens." This means that the Southern question is not dead, and that the two years which remain for a prudent canvass of the South in behalf of financial and economic doctrine may be worse than wasted by buncombe speeches in Congress, renewing the old irritation and deepening the hostility of the two races at the South. Is it not clear to every thinking man that when these "great contests of the future" arise it will be impossible to predict how the blacks or the whites as such will divide; that the one thing certain is that the whites will not be unanimous; and that the negro vote will gravitate to one side or the other according to the strongest arguments or the strongest inducements? In short, there is but one subject on which the South is "solid," and that is misgovernment by an ignorant majority under the forms of law. On all others it is virgin soil, upon which the Republicans may trustfully enter if they can in the next two years, beginning with the coming session of Congress, confine their thoughts and their speech to living issues, and resist every temptation to discipline the South for its intolerance of the Republicanism of Chandler and Gorham, and, we may add, to confound Southern Democracy with Northern Democracy.

THE AFGHAN DIFFICULTY.

LONDON, October 28, 1878.

LONDON may be said just now to be both agitated and tranquil. On the one hand the air is filled with the smell of gunpowder wafted from Himalayan regions, and there is every appearance that the country is about to have a considerable war upon its hands. On the other, the "dead" season has not yet come to life again, and the powers that be are more or less conspicuous by their absence. The Queen is at Balmoral, inhaling the fine Scotch weather of incipient November; the Cabinet, though it held a partial meeting a few days since, is scattered—one of its members being in Scotland with the Queen, and two others embarked for Cyprus in order to examine that much-discussed island and talk over the famous "purchase" on the spot. The Prince of Wales, even, is in Paris, helping to close the Exhibition. This latter personage is not usually regarded as what it is at present the fashion to call a "factor" in English public affairs; but I hardly feel it proper to forbear to mention him, rising as I have just done from the perusal of the extraordinary puff (there is no other word for it) published in this morning's *Times* by M. de Blowitz, the remarkable Parisian correspondent of that journal. The Prince, ever since the opening of the Exhibition, in which he takes a great interest, has been a great deal in Paris, where, according to M. de Blowitz, he has endeared himself to the inhabitants to a degree which, if he were only a Frenchman, would render him fatal to the prospects of the Republic. The panegyric is a "portrait" in the old-fashioned French sense of the term. It represents the Prince of Wales as having so charmed and captivated the French imagination by his reproduction of the temperament and manners of Francis I. and Henry IV.—by his "love of beauty in every form"—that if, instead of being a safe young Englishman, he were a claimant of the French crown, he would carry everything before him on the shoulders of popular enthusiasm. The Prince of Wales is considered in England a very good-natured, pleasure-loving personage, of whose characteristics it would be indiscreet to attempt an elaborate analysis; and I cannot but think that, laid upon English breakfast-tables, the singular effusion in the *Times* will provoke a great many honest British smiles—smiles at the idea of his being regarded in foreign parts as a possible saviour of society. The British public loves a prince, assuredly; but in this case it would seem really to have been entertaining an angel unawares. There is more important news in the papers, however, than M. de Blowitz's opinion of the Prince of Wales. The war-cloud in India is daily growing larger, and if the season had been less advanced and the Viceroy more prepared it would doubtless already have burst. The public is very much in the dark, and it hardly adds to its illumination to suspect that this is also the case with the Government.

The Amir's reply to the English demand that he should receive a mission, despatched by the native agent whom the Indian Government already had at Cabul, after the rebuff of Sir Neville Chamberlain's very military embassy, has been received, but has not been made known. It is known, however, that if it is not absolutely defiant it is quite uncompromising, and that it makes no amends for the much-discussed "insult." The justice and the wisdom, the necessity and the profit, of making war upon Afghanistan are the theme of perpetual discussion. The papers are filled with letters on the subject, some of which are much to the point, and others not at all. Lord Lawrence, the ex-Viceroy, Lord Grey, Sir Bartle Frere, Sir Henry Havelock, Sir John Adye, Sir Charles Trevelyan, Sir James Stephen, have all committed themselves to print, and have expressed themselves in various senses. A good deal of the discussion I speak of has borne upon the point whether the famous insult offered to Major Cavagnari by the Amir's deputy was really an insult. The ultimate impression appears to be that it was an insult tempered by civility—or rather, perhaps, more correctly, that the interview consisted of a good deal of civility tempered by impertinence. A correspondent of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, who professes to furnish the most absolutely authentic account, affirms that the Afghan officer concluded by remarking if it were not for his personal esteem for Major Cavagnari he would shoot him. This can hardly pass muster even as a dry compliment. This, however, is a mere detail, and it is not, strictly speaking, because the terms on which Major Cavagnari escaped with his life were not more liberal that England is going to war. If I say this it is by no means because I am prepared to lay down the grounds of such a course. The war has all but come, is felt to be almost inevitable, is believed to be to a considerable degree necessary, and yet no one here, I suspect—no group of persons—has a grain of enthusiasm on the subject.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer has just been "stumping" the midland counties, and making at Birmingham, Wolverhampton, Dudley, etc., a series of the longest and dullest speeches it has lately been my fortune to read. (At Birmingham, I may say in parenthesis, he on one occasion divided the honors of the evening with the doughty Captain Burnaby, who came to the point in a very short speech—Captain Burnaby reduces the political views of the Tory party to their simplest expression—with a violent dig at Mr. Gladstone for his "un-English and unpatriotic" conduct in writing an article in the *North American Review*.) Sir Stafford Northcote appears to have taken upon himself the mission to keep the country in good-humor, to talk it out of ill-humor, with the present Government, and to explain and justify, so far as might very discreetly be done, the actual, very incoherent state of affairs. But Sir Stafford Northcote's discretion was greatly in excess of his eloquence; he was extremely shy of the Afghan difficulty, and he made no attempt whatever to strike a spark from the public conscience. The public conscience, interrogating itself and the situation, says that England is coming down on the Amir, first, because he refused to receive a mission, and, second, because the Russians are trying to "get round" him. It is, of course, not as a quarrel with Afghanistan pure and simple that the present complications are serious, but because Russia has made herself very frankly a party to the dispute. She has done nothing, indeed, as yet but send an embassy to Cabul (in spite of a "positive assurance" made to the English Foreign Office in 1875 that she would thenceforth "consider Afghanistan as entirely outside of her sphere of action"); but since the Indian Government has begun to prepare to extract penalties from Shir Ali, the Russian press has certainly been allowed to express itself with startling crudity. The "sphere of action" of Russia has enlarged itself considerably since Prince Gortchakoff's promise in 1875. A year ago it was possible to ridicule the idea that her expansive tendencies would bring her, within any calculable time, into juxtaposition with India; but to-day, certainly, the alarmist organs have a slightly better show of reason. It is not necessary to say with the Conservative press that, because there are three or four Russian officers at Cabul, she is actually at the gates of India; but it is perfectly true that within a much shorter period than was to have been expected the strengthening of the north-western frontier has become a practical question. So quickly, just now, does history seem to make itself.

Nevertheless, I should say the country at large is not at all alarmed, but that it is a good deal irritated and disgusted. It cannot rid itself of a feeling that the Amir might perfectly well have been let alone. After all, what had he done? This is the policy satirically characterized by the bellicose party as "masterly inactivity"; but it may certainly be said that in this matter, up to the present moment, there has been nothing masterly in the conduct of the Government. Why should a mission have been tentatively forced upon a potentate, small though he is, who had positively refused several times over to receive one? The demands that were to have been made of the Amir have not yet been made known; but the fact that they are withheld strengthens the presumption that they were such as the Amir might very properly and naturally decline. Why should he be bullied into concessions which no other ruler in his place would have been the least likely to make? And why, furthermore, if the Indian Government was to put itself in a position to receive a resounding rebuff, should it not first have taken care to be ready to resent it? A few weeks since, when the belief in the "insult" was general, there was something almost grotesque in the prospect of the great Indian Empire having to nurse its outraged dignity all winter in the absence of the proper appliances for inflicting chastisement. The chastisement was intended to show to Indian dependencies that the might of England could not be made light of with impunity, but the lesson was to be postponed until the thunder could be manufactured. After the delay that has already taken place there is a growing belief that it is not at all a case for thunder. The retort made to the objections to Lord Lytton's proceedings is that in a case of self-defence it is out of place to be punctilious, and that, with the security of the beneficent Indian Empire at stake, it is absurd for the Government to let their hands be tied by misplaced scruples. Have international usages any force as between "imperial" considerations and such a ruler as the Amir of Cabul, and has the latter any rights which, with the Russians looming in the distance, England is bound to respect? Every one is agreed that India must be defended in the best possible way, but there is a wonderful strife of opinions as to what that way consists in.

Lord Lawrence, who may be presumed to speak with a good deal of authority, is almost passionately of the opinion that the actual

frontier is the most defensible; other reasoners hold that it is indispensable to make a new frontier by the absorption of certain portions of the Amir's territory, and that there is no time like the present, before Russia has fixed herself. An extreme mistrust of the necessity, in general, of new frontiers forms so large an element in English public opinion to-day that I suspect it will take a livelier sense of the aggressive ability (I don't say disposition) of Russia than yet, on the whole, prevails to make the present undertaking seem anything but an ill-disguised calamity. In two or three very weighty and judicial letters that he has addressed to the *Times* Sir James Stephen sets forth the weakness of the "international" view of Shir Ali. He makes out, I think, a very fair case. Sir James Stephen is never mawkish or transcendental; but on this point he can probably not be said to be gratuitously brutal. If the Russians were thundering at the northern frontier of Afghanistan, it is tolerably certain that Shir Ali's independence would stand a poor chance even in those minds now most occupied with the moral view of it. Sir James Stephen thinks, however, with a good many other people, that there is no danger, even of a remote kind, of Russia being able to "thunder" in this region. He believes in her advance, but he believes in its taking place by other means—by the slow, gradual activity of traders and colonists, which, if sufficiently prolonged and sufficiently clever, will practically Russianize the country. If it be asked, What then? have we not still an eminently defensible frontier? Sir James Stephen answers that this may be; that it is a question for military experts to settle; that it is to be supposed that the Government, with a tremendous sense of its responsibilities, will settle it by the pure light of science, and that to attempt to question and overhaul the Government while it is so engaged is a course to be strongly deprecated. It must be confessed that such a recommendation to reserve as this is at present completely wasted upon the more demonstrative section of the Liberal party. There are signs abroad of a theory that the Liberal party has begun to "come up," though I must say I think it slightly premature. The Government is certainly not as popular as it was when Lord Beaconsfield brought home "peace with honor" from Berlin, both the peace and the honor having been observed to be of a slightly inferior quality. But the Liberal tone appears to represent too little else than heterogeneous criticism of an embarrassed administration to be spoken of just yet as a revival. It declines, however, to stay its hand for an hour, and, whatever doubts there may be, the Government certainly has not the benefit of them. Meanwhile the poor Amir remains a somewhat pathetically interesting figure. He is in the situation of a man deprived of the right of choosing his friends—of the right, indeed, of choosing none at all, if it suits him. If he wished to have nothing to do with the English, he was also by no means sociably inclined to the Russians, his hospitality toward the latter being purely comparative. Between the two parties, apparently, he is about to be reduced to the impalpable. If England overwhelms and obliterates him it will be essentially as an anticipatory measure. In the present improved state of English political morality an anticipatory war has an ugly look. Twist the thing about as one will, the Amir is about to be invaded not because he, but because Russia, is aggressive. If Russia were very imminently or effectively aggressive, this anomaly would doubtless seem less striking. But, making proper allowance—evidently a very large one—for bravado and "bounce," is the danger great enough to warrant a possibly unremunerative deviation from the path of virtue?

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—XIV.

ENGLISH ART.

OCTOBER 28, 1878.

THE question whether there be in England anything that can be considered a school of art has been oftener decided than discussed, and generally with more dogmatic than rational precision, the common voice being unhesitatingly affirmative on the western side of the Channel, and not unanimous, pro or con, on the eastern. The difficulty lies possibly in the fact that there is no accepted, precise definition of *art* or *school of art*. If one uses the historical title School of Sienna, School of Venice, or of Bologna, we get a distinct idea of what is meant to be conveyed, because the term has been so long applied to a definite class of workers and works that any given picture belonging to either can be readily assigned to its proper place from possession of certain definite qualities, which show the *training* and *traditions* of the school, and that the artist was taught by some one or other of the masters who created those schools. In this sense of the word there is not nor ever has been a *school* in England, where originality is esteemed the chief excellence; and, in fact, what with the decay of authority in all branches of human thought, and the increased tendency to realism and the sciences rather than the arts, there is nowhere in Europe the same degree of congruity and unity of spirit in art that old schools possessed, while the reverential spirit is utterly extinct. The French, as nearest heirs to the old Greek spirit and artistic insight, still keep up what may be called a school in the true sense of the term, the greater qualities of drawing and feeling for color, and the unity of the work, being maintained with great evenness and distinct evidence of training; but English art in this true sense of the term has never developed a school, and the term, if now applied, can only be taken as meaning collective effort without uniform tendency, sympathy of aim, or collective character. It can no more be called a school than can Italian art beginning with Cimabue and ending with Induno and Pasini. If the parallel be insisted on, then we must put for special schools individuals—Turner for all the Venetians and J. R. Herbert for all Sienna; for no man in England has ever had a following or left traditions of thought or work. Art, where not exotic, has been sporadic. Many will be inclined to say: "All the better that there should be no traditions if individuality succeeds." I should be sorry to admit it. Individuality is not easily swamped, and the case of men whom we deem to have been buried under traditions and manner, because they appear to have been carried away by the force of the masters' style, were much more probably those who never had an individuality to lose, and whose only claim to notice is that, without native genius, they succeeded in adapting themselves to the tone and gest of their great masters.

If individual genius ever does fail to get lost it is through want of help, and wasting of years of energy and enthusiasm in fruitless groping for the best way to do things—*i.e.*, for the results of experience and failure gone before. I could write a chapter of the balked careers of men of unquestionable talent, or genius even, who have wasted their lives finding out, or oftener not finding out, what good teaching of the great masters in art would have given them in a few years—the surest and most direct method of doing what they wanted to do; of seeing what they wanted to see and as they ought to see it—the true relations of art to nature. No one would pretend that in music a man could shut himself up with a piano and books of music and be the better musician for his isolation, and yet plastic art has no fewer mysteries than musical, and the world of to-day has far better and fuller notions of the latter than of the former; yet music must be learned from masters, and public taste will not tolerate the self-taught man even in a church choir, though it applauds him with idiotic enthusiasm and raises a fund to send him to Rome to work out his inanities if they point towards marble. In America especially the absurd complacency over self-taughtness (absurd only where not gravely pernicious), having for its logical consequence real unteachableness in any good sense, paralyzes and will ultimately as completely destroy all taste as it now banishes all humility. It is the intellectual vice *par excellence* of the American mind and endangers all artistic progress—worse, prevents it absolutely in any sound direction. We readily acknowledge in literature the maxim, "Self-taught is ill-taught." We must learn that it is far more applicable to art than letters, and that where it is not accepted all genius must be crippled, all mediocre talent utterly depraved.

While, then, it cannot be denied that English painters have in many cases shown native abilities which place them amongst the best of their respective classes, it is none the less true that they are as a rule excessively refractory material, unteachable to the last degree, and that often great talent loses half its fruit simply from neglect or incapacity to profit by scholastic training and sound artistic conditions. As illustration, suppose Turner and Dante Rossetti—two of the greatest if not the two greatest names, so far as creative genius is concerned, which England has ever known—to have been trained in the sound methods of drawing and color of the Venetian school instead of being left all their lives groping for the best way of doing what they wanted to do, and, at least in Turner's case, groping in vain to the day of his death. I am quite prepared to admit that they would in this case have been amongst the very first of the first school of painting the world has ever seen. Nothing could suppress what was individual in them; sound instruction at the outset would have saved them years of wasted struggle with material difficulties, and in Turner's case would have preserved to us some revelations of the power and art of color which no man can now comprehend, because the most brilliant of his work was the quickest to fail, and nothing but his water-colors retain all the qualities they had originally.

What is true of Turner and Rossetti is the more true of lesser men, and to such a degree that English art in general may be characterized as

the art of amateurs, so strongly is it marked with the crudity of untaught effort, with want of all scholastic quality; strong, and in some cases stupendous, amateurs they are, it is true, not rarely developing singular native genius, but rarely shaking off that certain incompleteness of the untaught painter. The general result is that, devoid of teaching or sound tradition, they fall into the pursuit of naturalism in its most direct and realistic forms and turn their backs on the Muse and all her influences. Throwing out, therefore, Alma-Tadema, Lehmann, Boughton, and a few others of purely foreign *provenance* or training, or both, and who (especially Boughton) owe to England nothing but the gradual degradation of their sense of color consequent on the straining for exaggerated effect to hold their own in the continually-increasing glare of the Royal Academy exhibitions; leaving out what England can only claim as she claims the exile and refugee, one may count on the fingers of one hand the painters who have received the education which in old times was as necessary to a painter as it is now to a musician or a poet. The English art exhibition at Paris proves conclusively two things: that there is plenty of talent and originality in England, and that the utter want of any form of *artistic* instruction beyond the merest and most patent technicalisms has left this talent to flower in its wild, unkempt fashion, and united by no other quality than the unclassifiable diversity of its productions, unless it be gawkish energy of execution and garish intensity of color. But to one having known many of these works long ago, and seen them here over and over again, the definite impression is that of amateurs' work.

Take the contributions of Watts, for example, one of the gravest and most intellectual minds amongst English artists; it is impossible not to feel at first glance that he knows neither how to draw nor to lay on his pigment. His forms are hesitating, indecisive, wrought out by a series of corrections of blunders; his color pigment over pigment, in the same uncertainty of what to do or what effect on the whole it will have when done—from beginning to end devoid of that *savoir-faire* precision and felicity of expression which are the characteristics of culture in any branch of work, and which are so delightful in French work, even when in its lower and meaner pursuit of subject. We can only consider the artist, with all his poetic conception and mental powers, an amateur lost in the technical difficulties which he should have mastered in youth. Burne-Jones, again, is even a more striking example of the rule, though his technical powers are naturally greater and his conceptions more distinctly pictorial, but the weakness of his drawing, his inability ever to conquer the *pose plastique* in any completed figure, fatally limit the value of his work. There is maximum facility of design with minimum power of drawing; great susceptibility to color, but no control of his palette; remarkable fertility in composition, but absolute incapacity to give spontaneity to his groups and compositions; a mine of natural talents, but no one of them wrought out into the pure metal, simply because he lacks utterly the training preliminary to painting which would have added to his facility of drawing accuracy, given his keen sense of color the discipline necessary to perfect keeping and harmony, and not only that Greek grace of line which he aims at without ever fully attaining, but the living and moving grace and unconsciousness which only the Greek attained perfectly and which Jones never even suggests. There is a far-off memory of Olympus and sacred groves, but not first-handed, for we see whence the reflected inspiration has been caught; he has not, like Botticelli, been naturalized to Hellas and the Olympian heights, but seems to have dreamed of them and Michael Angelo, Raphael, the Pisani, Botticelli, and the rest all in one dream. An air of mingled recollections of them all hangs around his work, but the conception never comes to him clearly enough to be embodied with genuine imaginative vitality; it has an epiphytal grace and color, not the dignity and power of a growth whose roots are in mother earth. His principal picture at the Champ-de-Mars, "Merlin and Vivian," has all the faults I have spoken of in a marked degree. It is not only amateur work but fantastic at that. Color meant to be subtle has only, for want of technical knowledge, turned out weak; figures meant to be graceful are really simpering or grotesque; and draperies and accessories aiming at airiness have only reached flimsiness. The good intention is evident, but the want of sound training and the technical power it develops bars the way to complete success in every direction. Jones's water-colors, while not so ambitious, have all his good qualities and do not betray so fully his technical weakness, because what is easy on a small scale and in water-color is beyond his powers on a large scale, where his defective drawing becomes at once evident, and in oil, of which, in common with the rest of his countrymen, he has never learned the management. His powers as a designer are remarkable, and his feeling for color of a very exalted kind; but it is only under what may be called the most favorable condition for amateurs' work—*i.e.*, in water-color and on a small scale—that he shows his best qualities without obtruding his defects; and in the little drawing, "Love, the Physician," he is at his best, delicious in color and with a quaint romanticism in the design which just reaches waywardness without becoming *gauche*.

The honest effort towards scholastic excellence in England has, however, a few eminent representatives, chief of whom is Poynter, whose work entitles him to the first place amongst properly-called English *masters*. To the archæological propensities of "The Catapult" and "Israel in Egypt" I should take grave exceptions under any circumstances; inspiration must have poor and cold sources when it runs only from the dry bones of archæology or classical history. But whatever the subject-matter, Poynter possesses what is rare enough in English painting—style—that, to most folk, indefinable quality which is to painting what good breeding is to the man, and what we use the same term for in literature, and which perhaps may be defined as the simplest, most straightforward and correct way of conveying the fact desired; a virtue independent of, and quite worthy to be considered without regard to, the ideas to be conveyed. Of the professed chiefs of painters in England, the Academicians, only Leighton and Armitage are worthy to be mentioned in this category with Poynter, and these both lack the seriousness and dignity of the master of South Kensington. Leighton is frivolous and affects universality too much to be solid, while Armitage has long allowed his style to sink into the merely mechanical, apparently from want of interest in his art. Of Leighton's work the most notable contribution here is "The Music Lesson," a picture which, with scholarly qualities both in drawing and color, and in its way quite masterly, has the grave fault of emulating the worst model of the contemporary French school, the most specious and meretricious of the clever painters of the day—Bouguereau, the lowest tide-mark of the degradation of what is still entitled to be called art in the France of to-day.

Between Jones and the minor romantic painters of England on the one hand, and the noble, if cold and somewhat unsympathetic, art of Poynter on the other, there is a class of painters of more or less cleverness and held in greater or less enthusiasm by the public, but who may be dealt with in almost the same terms, as *exhibition painters*, whose ideal of subject is some claptrap appeal to local or popular sympathies, domestic *genre*, or costumery, and whose artistic aim is to be up to exhibition-key in color and as vigorous in laying on of paint as possible, graduating from the swagger and slang and familiar vulgarity of the brush and palette to the easy emptiness and commonplaceness of mere "society." Their great ambition is to kill everything around them in the Academy exhibition, and make the most brilliant piece of furniture to be had for their price. They contribute the majority of the exhibition at Paris, so far as the oil-pictures are concerned. The real artistic excellence of England is mainly to be found in the water-color painting, and even those who do the best work in oil are generally better in water-color. There are substantial reasons for this which there is here no room to state. Only, before leaving the paintings I must allude to some work whose merit, though not by any means wanting, is yet very far from justifying the reputation its authors have acquired in England. Of these the chief are the pictures of Millais. I have it in memory that as long ago as 1860 I said to Mr. Ruskin, speaking of Millais, that his artistic career would be rapid, and would degenerate, like that of Raphael, to mere display of technical power, purposeless and utterly disappointing to all who measured his future by his early achievements. Not that I should compare him to Raphael in his powers. Millais has a very limited scope. Beyond portraiture, nothing he has ever done has other than phenomenal value. He has no imagination, no sentiment, no power of composition even, and the intensity of elaboration with which he began his career was a precocious flame which a few years burnt out, the precision of touch he acquired by it leaving him, however, what he is, the most remarkable master of the brush—*i.e.*, the greatest executive talent, in the strictly limited sense—that England possesses; something in the vein of Velasquez, though by no means nor in any quality to be compared with him, nor, in high powers of execution, with Sir Joshua. As a portraitist he is unquestionably the first of the day in England, but beyond the surface he sees nothing. What he sees he *can* paint, as but few men living can, if he will; but the highest merit his portrait has is that of a mirror—no sentiment, no reading (bringing out) of character, only what any man who has good eyes can see in any other man at first sight. But to do this well is not so common as one might think; to have done it well will remain Millais's chief merit.

The position assigned Miss Thompson, painter of "The Roll-Call," "Balaklava," etc., is one which would surprise any critic not conversant with the peculiar waywardness of public opinion in England. Miss Thompson has had a better training in drawing and painting than many of the Royal Academicians, and her work is respectable realistic painting —nothing more—poor in color, only moderately refined in drawing; and it is venturing little to say that if her work were confounded with the mass of French military painting of the day it would never be selected as indicating a remarkable talent. It is hardly third-rate when put in comparison with the work of Pils, Neuville, Phillipoteau, Détaille, etc., etc., and the most hopeless indication of the future of art in England which I have seen is the singular rapidity with which Miss Thompson has acquired her reputation, and her success in the market, which is even more astonishing. That a woman should have painted the "Return from Inkermann" is *per se* a remarkable fact; but when the most remarkable thing which can be said of a work of art is that it is the work of a woman, which is precisely the fact with Miss Thompson's pictures, it is absurd to carry criticism to extremes.

What I have called the best phase of English art—the water-colors—is too important to be treated, as it has been in the Exhibition, as a mere appendix to the larger collection of works in oil. W. J. S.

—In my letter on American art the sentence devoted to Homer's "Cracking the Whip," "is in its way clever and kindly, the memory," etc., should have been "*kindles* the memory," etc.

Correspondence.

LIFE AT HIGH ALTITUDES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In No. 686 (just received) I noticed some notes on "Life at High Altitudes," and as my experience is somewhat different, I send you a few notes on the subject. The "Soroche," or "Puna," or "Veta," as this sickness is called, attacks some persons at an altitude of about 8,000 feet; others are wholly free from it, even up to 21,000 feet. Its symptoms are different with different persons, some having headache, some nausea, some difficulty of breathing, and some have all of these symptoms combined; again, at one time a person may suffer severely, at another time he may entirely escape suffering. The assigned reason is a full or empty stomach; as with the nightmare, so with altitude—the full stomach suffers. It is not unusual for a person soon after arriving at a high altitude to wake up in the night with a shocking sensation of suffocation, chiefly supposed to be due to defective ventilation.

My own experience is as follows: During a residence of two years on the eastern slope of the Andes, at various elevations of from 11,000 to nearly 13,000 feet above sea-level, and often passing greater elevations, I suffered no inconvenience whatever in breathing, as soon as I had learned that it was necessary to go *slow*. This was distinctly impressed upon me, one day when I was out shooting, in trying to catch a winged duck. The duck was not caught, and no more attempts will be made by the writer to go faster than an ordinary walk at an altitude of over 10,000 feet. After leaving there I was two years on the coast and one year in the United States. On returning to Peru, and going up the Andes, I was very much surprised to find that I had the "Soroche." My symptoms were headache and inability to sleep. When the trip was on one of the railroads, and the descent was made on the same day, the headache would pass away during the following night. On coming here (Cerro de Pasco) I was troubled for nearly three weeks with headache, difficulty of breathing, and want of appetite.

I do not think that a person is in danger of dying from the "Soroche" if his lungs be in an ordinarily fair condition. Nevertheless some have died, and others, who have been violently attacked, have, upon being removed promptly to a lower altitude, recovered; but it was generally found that they afterwards suffered from congestion of the lungs. A slight "cold" will affect the freedom of breathing very much up here. I have never known or heard of an Indian having the "Soroche." However, the mortality among the Indians is very great, especially among the very young (babies). The adult dies chiefly from privation and the liquor of the place (*shakia*), and the children die the victims of neglect and cold. A physician who has lived here over eight years says that the children born here are as healthy and as well developed as in other places. Dogs are numerous and most prolific. Cats are scarce and raised with difficulty, and they have the peculiarity of making no noise at night. Poultry cannot be hatched, but hens lay fairly. Animals, such as beasts of burden, brought from lower altitudes, suffer the same as men, except, perhaps, the llama.

This place, Cerro de Pasco, is situated on the eastern slope of the Andes, at an elevation of 14,200 feet above sea-level. It has a mixed population (mostly Indians), variously estimated at from eight to ten thousand. There is very little cultivation in the neighborhood, no grain maturing at this elevation. Barley is sown, but it has to be cut green for forage. It is never very cold, but a fire is necessary all the year. The above remarks refer to an experience of a year and a half.

J. R. M.

Cerro de Pasco, Peru, October 4, 1878.

Notes.

We have received the first number of *Science News*, a fortnightly periodical of sixteen 8vo double-column pages, published at Salem, Mass., by S. E. Cassino, and edited in this city by Ernest Ingersoll and Wm. C. Wyckoff. The subscription price is $2 a year. The prospectus states that the peculiar feature of this periodical is to be the prompt publication of scientific news in the most readable and attractive form possible, considerable space being given to "notes and queries" from correspondents. The scope embraces the general range of the sciences, with special tendency to natural history. Judging from the first number, the new venture bears upon its face its own recommendation as a publication likely to prove useful and valuable if it can secure the support necessary to its continued existence.——The *Magazine of American History* for November (A. S. Barnes & Co.) opens with an interesting review of the first volume of Sewall's Diary, by Mr. H. C. Lodge. A portrait of Beaumarchais accompanies an inedited memoir "to the King alone," setting forth his scheme of assistance to the American colonies through the fictitious firm of Rodrigue Hortalez & Co. This is undated, but may be referred to 1776, for Beaumarchais's "Requête à MM. les Représentants de la Commune de Paris" contains the end of a presumably earlier memoir addressed to the king Dec. 18, 1775, with reference to separating England and the colonies; and mention of another memoir "très-fort sur les droits de notre neutralité que j'établissais sans réplique." The point in the present memoir about strengthening their paper money by a cash loan to the colonies, is made in the same writer's "Observations sur le mémoire justificatif de la cour de Londres."——Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago, announce a translation of Jules Sandeau's 'Madeleine,' and a 'Young Folks' History of France,' by Miss E. S. Kirkland, author of 'Six Little Cooks.'——An announcement of no little interest for lovers of American art is that of the first sale of Mr. John La Farge's works ever made at public auction, by Peirce & Co., 5 Park Street, Boston, on November 19 and 20.——We are glad to observe that Mr. W. L. Fawcett's 'Gold and Debt: an American Handbook of Finance' has reached a second edition (Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.) We do not ourselves wholly agree with the author's theoretic conclusions, but we know by frequent use the value of the statistical parts of his work. We need only mention one feature—a summary text of the U. S. statutes relating to coinage, U. S. notes and bonds, and national banks and bank currency. A great number of tables on prices, interest, annual production of gold, etc., etc, help to make this book indispensable.——The Memorial Volume of the late Dr. Wm. R. Dimmock is now ready for the gratification of his friends and admirers. But 200 copies have been printed, and only a few remain unspoken for. The volume will be mailed to any address on receipt of $1 75 by Mr. Horace P. Chandler, P. O. box 1200, Boston.——The Public Library of Worcester, Mass., has joined the Boston Athenæum in the issue of an annotated list of its late additions, each library striking off its own edition of the list with some matter peculiar to itself, but sharing the expense of that part of the matter which is common. We understand that the Athenæum, which furnishes the type and most of the notes, is ready to admit other libraries into the union.——Economists will be interested in two recent French works, 'Bastiat et le libre-échange,' by A. Bouché de Belle; and 'Les grands ports de commerce de la France,' by L. Simonin. M. Bouché de Belle's work was "crowned" by the Bordeaux Chamber of Commerce, one of whose members, M. Marc Maurel, prefixes to it a report in which, says *Polybiblion*, "he discusses in an original manner, and with the competence arising from long business experience, the question whether the protective system is really necessary

to new countries." He also dwells on the inferior position in which France is placed by her law of inheritance (*partage forcé des successions*). M. Simonin's work is largely statistical, and pleads for more adequate quays and basins, and a mitigation of customs and transport dues. He advocates a direct railway line from Marseilles to Calais.

—We have received from the American News Company the first number of the *Oriental Church Magazine*, a quarterly periodical devoted to religion, science, literature, and art, and edited by the Rev. Nicholas Bjerring. The editor announces as "the motive of its publication the desire to lay before English-speaking readers a candid and authoritative statement of the constitution, tenets, and progress of the Oriental Church, which are so little known and understood on this Western Continent." At the same time the magazine will "deal incidentally with many kindred subjects, not exclusively religious in character, which will attract the interest of the general reader." Perhaps "Greek" might have been a happier term than "Oriental," since we are wont to connect the latter word with Asia, and it is here nearly synonymous with "Russian." To judge from the articles presented, the editor intends to carry out his plan from two different sides: one, the positive, giving actual information as to the real Russia—Russia as she appears to her own people; the other, negative, in criticism and correction of misjudgments and misstatements. The most interesting article is of the first class. It is a very noble and beautiful translation of the service for the eve of Sunday in the Greek Church. The rubric is given with it, so that it presents very completely the "Great Vespers," which, lasting all night, end with the morning prayers. The articles on "Western Siberia" and "Modern Greece," if somewhat slender, are of the sort which our people are seeking in their interest about the Eastern Question. Of "Schools in Russia" it would be well to tell us much more. The condition of education in Russia is both better and worse than is commonly supposed. The two remaining articles are severe criticisms upon Mr. Schuyler's translation of Tolstoy's 'Cossacks' and upon 'The Russians of To-day.' Certainly a Russian may be forgiven much exasperation at the utter falsity of Murray's book. A better parallel for it, by the way, than Dumas's sketch is the 'History of Russia' (Bohn) prepared at the time of the Crimean War. After the lapse of twenty-five years the identity of animus in the two is very curious. But such tissues of absurdity might almost be left to refute themselves, and time and space be better spent in showing us what men in Russia actually think and do. The magazine will find a larger circle of readers in proportion as it can offer fresh and trustworthy accounts of the state of affairs both within and without the pale of the Church. Under the more lenient censorship the Russian reviews themselves now contain much that would interest Americans, if prepared, not as mere translations, but in suitable abstracts and with the necessary comments.

—The first instalment of the long-desired 'American Catalogue' (New York: F. Leypoldt) appears with broad margins and elegant typography, and ends with the title *Edwards*. Its arrangement is primarily by authors, but subject-titles are liberally added, and pseudonymous and other cross-references complete the design of making this a finding-list. The size of each work, date of publication, price, and publisher's name are annexed to the title. Nothing marks better the advance in bibliography, as well as in the *esprit de corps* of the book-trade, than the contrast which this catalogue presents at all points with its imperfect, yet meritorious and useful predecessor and namesake, the 'American Catalogue' of Mr. James Kelly, of which the second and final volume appeared in 1871 (New York: John Wiley & Son). Most of the "modern improvements" in cataloguing, due to the association and concurrence of our leading librarians, are exemplified in the later work, which embraces books (and even music) "in print and for sale July 1, 1876." Comparing it with Mr. Kelly's, as well as his unsystematic entries will allow, one discovers the ephemeral issues for which the public has ceased to care; while, comparing it with Allibone, one finds it a serviceable supplement to a very considerable extent. Sometimes

"Revivals, too, of unexpected change,"

connect the earlier and the present periods, as in the case of Mr. Alcott's 'Record of a School.' With the more popular authors we get nearly a complete bibliography under their respective names. We see at a glance how much of Harrison Ainsworth it is worth publishers' while to keep in the market, and how much of Miss Bremer; that ten publishers compete with each other in producing the works of Dickens; that there are 82 editions of Bunyan, 45 of Burns, 39 of Byron, etc. It is obvious what a guide is here for those who in the coming holiday season wish to choose according to their purse or taste; or if the question be of a gift for a child, scan the 23 editions of Æsop, the 24 of the Arabian Nights, the 53 of Robinson Crusoe. For Æsop we may decide between illustrations by Griset, Herrick, Tenniel, and Weir, as for Æschylus between the translations of Buckley, Edwards, Potter, Plumptre, and Webster. The titles themselves offer a psychological study. *Black*, and *Blue*, and *Beauties*, and *Beautiful* are clearly meant to seduce the senses; *Blind*, and *Broken*, prepare you for an attack on your feelings; *Captain* catches the boy's eye or ear at once. Then, why should *Alice* be the greatest favorite among girl heroines; and after her *Amy*, *Anna* or *Annie*, *Daisy*, and *Edith?* And why do they not grow up into "cousins" and "aunts" keeping their relative popularity? As a fact, we hear more of *Aunt Hattie* and *Aunt Margaret*, who seem to have had no girlhood, or to have been anything but shining examples when young. As cousins their existence is not recognized—at least in this Catalogue. *Arthur* and *Charley* are the corresponding boy heroes. But these reflections are carrying us beyond our limits. We conclude with a reference to the valuable notes under the select list of Bibles, and with the hope that this admirable undertaking will receive a generous support.

—The November number of the *Princeton Review* contains eleven articles, all by men of considerable reputation. One of these may or may not be regarded as having been prepared expressly for the American public. We refer to "Duties of Higher towards Lower Races," by Canon George Rawlinson, of the University of Oxford. This article occupies forty-four pages, of which the first twenty are devoted to establishing—or rather to reiterating—the theory of the unity of the human race. Many texts are brought together to prove this, though the author considers one sufficient: "Occurring as it does, this passage, which is very solemn and emphatic, seems to lay down an important fact, that Eve was the mother of the whole human race. It does not say that Adam thought so, but that 'she was.' It is difficult to see how we can exonerate the author from the charge of having made a false statement if she was not." We are here concerned, however, neither with Canon Rawlinson's theory nor with his method of proof—only with the remarkable inference he draws from his premise, which is as follows:

"On the whole, therefore, we conclude that self-interest points out to the Americans, and to all other nations similarly situated, that their aim should be to absorb and assimilate the inferior races with which they are brought into contact, to fuse the different bloods into one, and become as soon as possible a united, homogeneous people. Let this course once be recognized as what true patriotism dictates, and the social bars, the miserable caste prejudices and distinctions, which at present keep the races apart would rapidly disappear. Mixed marriages would become as common as are now mixed unions of a less moral kind; the white blood, which is to the black as nine to one, would in each generation more and more preponderate; and before a century was over, only the skilled physiologist might be able to perceive the existence of a negritic element in the composite nation. . . . As it thus appears that one and the same course of conduct is prescribed, in the matter before us, by both self-interest and benevolence, it is unnecessary to pursue any further the present investigation."

—The *North American* for November-December contains for its leading article a contribution on "The Government of the United States," by Horatio Seymour. It is a remarkable fact that in the North the party among whose leaders the most genuine devotion to universal suffrage is found, is the one whose constituency is on the whole the least calculated to inspire the cool observer with an admiration for popular sovereignty. Whether this is because these leaders find such a constituency most easy to be managed is a question which we have no room to discuss here, but the fact can hardly be disputed that the Jeffersonian Democrat has a much greater confidence in institutions carried on by the uneducated, half-naturalized voters of the large cities and towns than the "Old-time Republican" has in the patriotism or enlightenment of that or any other constituency. Mr. Seymour is no exception to this rule. He is as optimistic as to our form of government as could be wished. His optimism, too, is not the hot idealism of youth, full of confidence and faith in the future because it knows little of the past, but the deliberate and considered optimism of maturity, which knows all there is to know, and looks at the bright side of things because a ripe acquaintance with the world has taught him that he will find his account in so doing. He writes with clearness, if not force, and if some of his observations are trite and others untrue he ought not to be blamed for it; for most of those which are trite have the seal of age and authority, while those which are untrue have the merit of originality. With regard to the teachings of socialists, for instance, he points out that in Europe they "are deemed dangerous to social order," while here "they serve only to satisfy the public of the folly" of socialism, and "to strengthen the public faith in the value of

social order and of time-tested truths"—which is certainly itself a time-tested truth of American political literature. But when he says, apropos of the prevailing financial and social discontent, that men who are in trouble "turn with interest and hope to every proposed remedy," and adds, "It is our duty to treat their views with respect, for, while their theories may be false, their sufferings are real," he certainly sacrifices truth to rhetorical beauty and originality, for the reality of suffering can hardly furnish a ground for intellectual respect. But it must be admitted that Mr. Seymour is rarely original. Most of his article we have met with before, and we cannot help feeling, after reading it, that its author belongs to that class of statesmen (of which the world has always been full) whose chief claim upon public confidence is that they repeat without weariness and with proper emphasis the sayings of other statesmen. Those who do this tolerably well are politicians; those who do it with genius become at length themselves statesmen.

—The article by Hobart Pasha on "Systems of Offence and Defence in Naval Warfare" will be found decidedly interesting, though written in a somewhat hasty way. The chief peculiarity about modern naval warfare, he insists at the outset, is that so little can be positively said about it; although wooden ships have gone out, and iron ships, rams, monitors, torpedoes, and electric lights come in, theory as to the proper use of these new weapons is as yet far in advance of experience. Farragut probably had more actual experience of modern naval warfare than any commander of our times; and yet he is quoted as having expressed the opinion to the writer that the best class of vessel were fast wooden ships, heavily armed, with water-tight compartments. This question, one would think, might by this time have been settled; but that such an opinion should be quoted from so high an authority, and within such recent times, shows how slowly opinion is definitely formed on these subjects. Hobart Pasha's own opinion appears to be in favor of ironclads. England, he thinks, should be provided with small, fast ironclads for the protection of her distant colonies; while for this country, the protection of our ports being the main object, he thinks we need vessels of the same sort to run out at all hours and attack a blockading squadron. With these, backed by the torpedo, he is of opinion that no blockading force could hold its own. With regard to the general naval engagement of the future, he thinks that it is likely to partake more of the character of a mêlée than an old-fashioned sea-battle—a mêlée in which much must be left to the commanders of separate vessels, and in which, after an enemy's ship is crippled, rams may be used to good effect. As to the torpedo question, he gives an account of an attack by fish or Whitehead torpedoes during the late Russo-Turkish war on the Black Sea. At about midnight, the night being very dark and hazy, an alarm was given by the boats on guard (pickets have now become just as necessary at sea as on land) that "something was moving about in the dark." At about the same time "a thing like a rocket on the top of the water was seen rushing from the darkness in the direction of the ships at anchor, then another, then another." The boats were immediately recalled and a heavy fire opened in the direction of these machines. The first of these fish torpedoes "struck one of the ironclads just abaft the fore-chains, knocked its foremost part in like a man's hat when he is what is called bonneted, *did not explode*, but cannoned off as it went to the shore, where it was found." A second struck the stern-chain and went on shore, while a third disappeared. "The Congress of Berlin and its Consequences," by "an old diplomatist," is also worth reading. Indeed, the number as a whole is a very good without being a striking one.

—In his third annual report, just published, President Gilman takes occasion to review somewhat elaborately the grounds of the decision by which a university and not a college was erected on the munificent foundation of Johns Hopkins, and to explain the essential difference between the two schemes. Passing on to results, he remarks that, incomplete as is the Faculty, it embraces "graduates of the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, London, and Göttingen, of American colleges, of a medical school, and of a technological school"; well qualified, therefore, by varied experience to evolve a system imitative of no other but profiting by all. The fellowships have been eagerly sought after, and from them other institutions have drawn instructors, and the University itself assistant professors. The students are not distributed into classes, but "each one has been assigned to a member of the Faculty, who has acted as his official Adviser, and has assisted him in determining the order of his studies." Existing schools in Baltimore have been brought into an arrangement by which the necessary instruction preparatory to the University courses is furnished to city students. The Peabody Institute practically makes (or probably will make) its library that of the University, and thus two remarkable foundations become "co-operative in promoting the good of the community." In connection with the University there have been organized a General Scientific Association, a Philological Association, an Historical Association, and a Mathematical Conference. During the past summer a Chesapeake Zoölogical Laboratory was fitted up at Hampton Roads and successfully carried on. The three regular scientific laboratories have been engaged in important original researches, the account of which by Professor Remsen is perhaps the most interesting feature of the report, and best illustrates the aims of the University. In several ways it is apparent how much the institution gains by its proximity to Washington, both the Government and the Smithsonian Institution being able and ready to extend it facilities, as by lending it books, apparatus, etc. Altogether the report is very encouraging.

—Two new humorous periodicals have recently been added in Germany to the large number already in existence there. How great the demand for them is, every person knows who has resided in Germany and adopted the custom in vogue there of visiting a café in the afternoon to read the papers. It requires some skill, or a private understanding with the waiter, to get hold of one of the sheets in question. An examination of one of them is followed by the conviction that Germans must be contented with a much more primitive form of wit than English-speaking nations—a circumstance which is perhaps connected with the incompatibility of wit and judgment pointed out by John Locke. The only great wit the Germans have produced, Heinrich Heine, does not enjoy a popularity among his countrymen at all commensurate with his deserts. They seem to prefer the ephemeral platitudes of their papers to his sparkling pages. Of the comic papers read at the cafés those printed at Vienna are decidedly the poorest. Their illustrations are far below criticism, and the reading-matter fit only for coachmen and bootblacks. The *Kladderadatsch* of Berlin, and the *Fliegende Blätter* of Munich, are much better. The former mainly appeals to those familiar with the details of German politics. It has a large circulation, and is considered one of the best advertising mediums in the country. The *Fliegende Blätter* is more devoted to domestic and artistic subjects, and seldom enters the field of politics. Its cartoons are sometimes very clever, and, if we mistake not, some of the celebrated Münchener *Bilderbogen* first appear in its columns. None of these periodicals, however, can pretend to rank with the London *Punch*. *Punch* is often dull enough, but seldom indulges in jokes quite as flat and pointless as the German papers often do. There was room, therefore, for a new paper, modelled after *Punch*, careful in the choice of its reading-matter and illustrations, and adapted to the parlor rather than the tavern. *Schalk*, published at Stuttgart (W. Spemann), proposes to fill this place, and the few numbers that have thus far appeared certainly make a favorable impression. They contain contributions by Friedrich Bodenstedt, Ernst Eckstein, Felix Dahn, Oscar Blumenthal, Julius Stettenheim, and other well-known feuilletonists. If *Schalk* means to keep to its programme, we wish it a prosperous career. It is not likely, however, that it will endeavor to change the general direction of German humor. The scene of its jokes will continue to be placed in the barracks, the tavern, and the theatre, just as *Punch* has its regular drawing-room and hunting scenes; and the Jew will still have to take the place of the Irishman in our country in being made the victim of all the jokes and satire.

—*Schmollis* is the name of the other new humorous periodical. It made its first appearance several months ago, with aims somewhat unlike those of *Schalk*. What it means to be is "an illustrated German beer-gazette, written by students and philistines, for philistines and students." Every semester, or University term, there are to appear three numbers, made up of original contributions and of selections from the humorous literature of the past, relating chiefly to students and their doings. A similar periodical was at one time issued at Jena, but at present, so far as we are aware, *Schmollis* is the only students' paper in Germany, and we need hardly say that it bears but a very remote resemblance to the numerous college papers published in this country. Judging from the first three numbers, it is doubtful whether *Schmollis* will be a success. It must depend for its patronage chiefly on students; but German students, as a class, have very little pocket-money, and what they have they are much more likely to spend on beer than on a beer-gazette.

—M. Gustave Fagniez, editor of the *Revue Historique*, has just published a document of considerable historical value: 'Journal Parisien de Jean Maupoint, Prieur de Sainte-Catherine-de-la-Couture,' extending

from 1437 to 1469. It is not very large, consisting of 114 octavo pages, twenty-two of which are introduction. It is very far, therefore, from being a diary, but contains 206 independent entries, scattered along over the space of these thirty-two years. The editor says (page 11) that the good faith of the author appears unimpeachable, but otherwise his merit is simply that of reproducing faithfully the news of the day—an intelligent contemporary witness, but with no exceptional sources of information. His story is most valuable and detailed, he adds, in regard to the battle of Montlhéry; and in general, the War of the Public Weal, the most important event of French history during this period, is fully treated. We find some interesting allusions to the Council of Basel and to the actions of Charles the Bold; also many statements, valuable to the student of economic history, as to seasons, prices, etc.

GEORGE COMBE.*

THESE volumes present a full and fair account of the life of a man who was well known—almost famous—among the last generation, but of whom little is heard at the present day. Within a short time after his death the sale of 'The Constitution of Man' had reached 100,000 copies; now the book is rarely read. Its author was in correspondence with men of learning and rank—even with the royal family—yet his memory cannot shield from ridicule the doctrine of which he was a leading apostle. Finally, he labored long and hard in behalf of reforms which the present generation enjoy with seldom a thought of the obloquy heaped upon their earlier champions. This may seem hard, but it is certainly not unnatural. The impression made upon the world during the lifetime of George Combe was due to his advocacy of opinions contrary to, or in advance of, those of his time, rather than to his possession of unusual bodily or mental powers. In fact, the essential mediocrity of his nature was cheerfully recognized when he said, at the age of forty-four, "No man whose brain does not exceed the average more than mine is of importance to the world."

George Combe was born at Edinburgh on the 21st of October, 1788, and died at the age of seventy, on the 14th of August, 1858. Eight months before his death he began an autobiography in which is described his early life up to 1804, when he entered upon the study of the law. His father was a brewer in moderate circumstances. There were seventeen children, of whom George and Andrew—playfully called "blockheads" by their father—alone became publicly known. George ascribes much of their feeble health to the utter disregard of the simplest physiological laws. At one time five or six children slept in a single small room, which was practically an air-tight box. His depression on awakening in the morning was piously ascribed by George to "the fall of man and sin." This experience gave point, in later days, to his urgent advocacy of physiological teaching in schools. In this and many other matters his "ruling passion through life was to act the part of a reformer."

The autobiography fills sixty-eight pages of the first volume. The materials for the biography were almost embarrassingly abundant. George Combe kept letters upon phrenology, education, etc., and from 1820 he kept copies of all his own letters; he also left "thirty journals." The biographer seems to have made judicious use of this material. His style is simple, and his personality never obtruded. His introductory sketch of Combe is appreciative but not overwhelmingly laudatory. Combe was admitted "Writer to the Signet" in January, 1812. Three years later he was made Notary Public. About the same time he became interested in phrenology, of which more hereafter. His first European tour was made in 1817. His moral status is indicated by his characterization of some public dancing in London as "not only contemptible but positively abominable," while his superiority to national prejudice is shown in his remark upon the English ladies whom they observed through the windows of the coach: "We never saw so much female beauty in the short compass of our lives." Notwithstanding this recognition of feminine charms, Combe remained a bachelor until the age of forty-seven, when he married Cecilia Siddons, a "daughter of the celebrated queen of the stage." Their married life seems to have been exceptionally happy, although no children were born to them.

Combe was gradually led to write for the journals and reviews, and was invited to give public lectures. The 'Essays on Phrenology' appeared in 1819, the 'Constitution of Man' in 1828, and 'Science and Religion' shortly before his death. A list of his publications forms an appendix to the present work. In 1834 Mr. and Mrs. Combe started upon a continental tour, which was repeated nearly every year thereafter. In 1836 Combe was one of ten candidates for the chair of Logic in Edinburgh University, Sir William Hamilton being successful. The following year he declined the chair of Mental and Moral Philosophy in the newly-established State University of Michigan, but regarded the offer itself as an additional incentive for visiting this country. Finding that Mrs. Combe's small fortune, together with his own savings and the sale of his books, would ensure an income of at least £1,000 a year, and being "anxious to complete some important parts of his education before it was too late," Combe, in 1836, relinquished his legal practice, and devoted the remainder of his life to reforms in general and phrenology in particular. Among other preparations for this work he continued his studies in anatomy, physiology, and chemistry, and gave an hour each morning to the German language.

In compliance with the wishes of many American admirers, and hoping to aid the spread of phrenology in the New World, Combe with his wife crossed the Atlantic in the fall of 1838. No doubt many now living recall the cordiality of his reception, and the interest excited among the most cultivated classes by his lectures in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and other cities. Testimonials and public dinners are mentioned. His lectures usually lasted two hours, with a brief intermission, and it is not strange that his health—far from robust at any time—was seriously affected. During the summer, however, he enjoyed two months near Portland at the sea-shore, which, "but for the mosquitoes, would be a paradise of a place." Here he was visited by Horace Mann, who cordially sympathized with his views as to both phrenology and education. The Combes visited Canada and the West, and returned to Edinburgh in June, 1840. In the fall of 1841 they went to Germany. A tutor in the language was obtained, and Combe set about preparing a course of twenty-two lectures on Phrenology, to be given at Heidelberg. The regular audience numbered forty, including several professors. During the progress of the course he was attacked by a painful malady, but by an effort of the will he succeeded in accomplishing the task.

Combe's health became more and more delicate, and in December, 1851, he made his last public address, in the course of which he characterized the "state of education of the people in Great Britain as a disgrace to our civilization." In 1854, during the rest enforced by a fall from a carriage, he made some reflections upon death which are at once solemn and amusing. He spoke of himself as "more than half dead," and yet as "very happy." In February, 1858, he had a serious illness, and for two days was thought to be dying. An operation was performed, in which the state of his lungs and heart forbade the use of chloroform. In August he took a severe cold, from the effects of which he died peacefully on the 14th.

Combe himself regarded any enquiry respecting creeds as an impertinence, and especially resented the inquisition to which he was subjected in this country. But the reader of the present volumes need not long remain in doubt as to his religion. The rigid Calvinism which shadowed his youth, and, later, his good mother's anxiety as to her salvation, caused a reaction toward beliefs the liberality of which, when first made known in 'The Constitution of Man,' caused "bewilderment, horror, and indignation" among many of his best friends, and he was even accused of "infidelity." He wrote on one occasion: "I am conscious of living habitually in the presence and under the law of God, and I think more frequently of death than I do of my dinner, yet I am called a man without religion." But he "could not comprehend a future life," and while he did "not deny immortality to man, neither did the fact of his own existence prove to him that there is a life beyond the grave." He even hinted that "this intense longing after immortality in a state of bliss is a form of unwarrantable egotism, arising from the love of life and self-love and hope all combined." He was, at least, too honest to pretend to accept two such incompatible dogmas as the "resurrection of the body," with all its faculties trained for work, and a "heaven of blissful idleness." He advocated entire freedom of religious thought and observance, "for which he was handed over to perdition by both Protestants and Catholics." Instead, however, of resenting these attacks, he merely insisted that "the true way of combating the arrogance of both sects is to enlighten, humanize, and liberalize all classes of the nation by improved *education*."

Education itself, according to Combe, should be both more general and thorough and wholly independent of theology. He laid great stress upon the value of physiology, which he regarded as the "primer of all knowledge." He believed that an elementary form of this science could be

* 'The Life of George Combe, author of 'The Constitution of Man.' By Charles Gibbon.' 2 vols. 8vo, pp. 739; with two portraits. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1878.

imparted to children of ten years. Even for those intending to study law he advised less of classics and mathematics and more of the natural sciences. He thought the laws of health should be especially taught to women, because the lives of children depend almost exclusively on the care of the mother. While it does not appear that he contemplated the admission of women to the universities, it is to be noted that in 1828 he "was presented with a pair of silver calipers by a number of ladies, in token of their respect for him as the first lecturer on a serious subject who had admitted their sex into his class." He was active in behalf of "prison reform," especially in regard to the very unphysiological method of compelling an exhausted man to do more labor by depriving him of food. He opposed capital punishment, and bore witness to the ill-effects of public executions. In place of large standing armies he held that youths in schools should be taught "military exercises, both as an excellent recreation and as a means of enabling Government to organize the physical power of the country at a moment's notice." He was a temperate man, but not a "total abstainer."

Combe's adult life was really devoted to phrenology. Curiously enough, however, he became interested in it by an apparent accident, and almost against his will. He had found little aid towards the study of the human mind either in the Scotch metaphysics of the day or in Dr. Barclay's exposition of the structure of the brain, which ended with the "lame and impotent conclusion" that "nothing was known as to its relation to mental operations." When Spurzheim lectured in Edinburgh in 1815 Combe at first ridiculed the whole matter and refused to hear him, but after witnessing Spurzheim's dissection of the brain he attended a second course, investigated the subject, sent for some "casts," and "in three years' time became convinced that phrenology was true." He took an active part in the formation of the Phrenological Association and the conduct of the *Phrenological Journal*. He lectured and wrote in behalf of the new doctrine, and his private correspondence was largely occupied with it. Eminent personages were not exempt from his cranioscopic scrutiny, and he commented freely upon the heads of prime ministers, and even of the queen herself, as seen *across a theatre*. Present believers in phrenology will be surprised that Combe was but slightly impressed by Dickens, Sumner, and Carlyle. He characterized Napoleon III. as a "meteor," and predicted his downfall, although not, apparently, upon phrenological grounds.

So firm was Combe's conviction of the truth and value of phrenology as to seem, at times, to overbear his habitual toleration and sense of justice. Witness the following extract from a letter written in 1833:

"No good article ever has been or ever can be written against phrenology, for an obvious reason: if the brain be good, and if the subject has been studied, conviction is inevitable. If the brain be good, but the subject has not been studied, there must be gross misapprehension. If the brain be poor, there will be natural incapacity to perceive the truth; so that the two circumstances indispensable to all good writing on the subject, a good brain and sufficient study, never can be united and opposition follow."

The natural corollary of the foregoing axiomatic expression is, Unbelievers in phrenology are either natural fools, or persons of insufficient information, a most uninviting dilemma for the vast majority of the more intelligent classes of civilized mankind. Combe certainly practised what he preached, and for many years his domestics were selected according to phrenological indications. He says he was rarely disappointed excepting in case of a tendency to intoxication, of which there is no obvious sign.

As an *art*, phrenology professes to have ascertained the coincidence of certain forms of the skull with certain qualities of the mind; it is merely a cranial physiognomy. It must be admitted that such coincidences are at times extremely close, as when Von Struve's marking of Combe's head is compared with the latter's account of his own character. On the other hand, in this and some other cases mentioned in the present work, there were discrepancies, and that these could be both numerous and important is amusingly shown in Harriet Martineau's account of her examinations *incog.* by Deville and Holm.

The *science* of phrenology is based upon the assumptions that circumscribed areas of the outer surface of the hemispheres are the organs of certain mental faculties, that size is the measure of power, and that undulations of the brain surface are recognizable as inequalities of the skull. In the present state of our knowledge it is necessary to say that size is a measure of power only when all other things are equal, and that the physical criteria of *quality* are not yet fully known. The conformity of the skull with the brain is masked by the inequalities in the thickness of the former, and especially by the "frontal sinuses," respecting which Combe had an unprofitable controversy with Hamilton. Finally, no reason has ever been assigned by the phrenologists for excluding from the category of "organs" all those portions of the cerebral cortex which lie between the hemispheres, or between them and the cerebellum.

In Combe's time little use seems to have been made of the microscope, and the value of pathology to cerebral physiology was but slightly understood. The brains of animals were seldom compared with reference to their natures, and Combe himself regarded vivisection as "cruel and useless." It would be interesting to hear the comments of Combe or Gall or Spurzheim upon the proceedings of a neurological society of the present decade. They would find their own teachings either wholly ignored or mentioned as bearing to modern neurology somewhat the relation of alchemy to modern chemistry. They would observe a by no means general assent to the idea that the larger divisions of the hemispheres may subserve different kinds of mental activity. Some comfort would be derived from the microscopic peculiarities of certain regions of the cortex, from the pathological indications of some relation between the powers of speech and the "third left frontal convolution," and from experimental and pathological evidences that groups of muscles are in more direct connection with certain areas of the cortex. But this by no means proves that these areas are the "organs" of mental faculties, since the same emotion, say "combativeness," may be expressed by the hand, by the foot, by the tongue, or even by the head in "butting."

It is probable that Combe, at least, would conclude that we are only upon the threshold of the enquiry, and that any mapping of the hemispheres into circumscribed organs is unjustifiably premature. He would read some such summary of our present knowledge respecting the localization of brain functions as is contained in the current volume of the *Journal of Anatomy and Physiology*; he would study yet more carefully some of the works and papers there referred to; and he would discontinue the fingering of heads until he had made independent research in one or more of the directions there suggested. That this would be the course of Combe we are led to believe from the general tenor of his life, from the fact that he directed his own brain to be compared with that of his brother Andrew, and, finally, from the following estimate of his character, which has been published by Mrs. Frances Anne Kemble: "He was a man of singular integrity, uprightness, and purity of mind, and of great justice and impartiality of judgment; he was extremely benevolent and humane, and one of the most reasonable human beings I have ever known."

Johnson's Chief Lives of the Poets, being those of Milton, Dryden, Swift, Addison, Pope, Gray; and Macaulay's 'Life of Johnson,' with a preface by Matthew Arnold. To which are appended Macaulay's and Carlyle's Essays on Boswell's 'Life of Johnson.' (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1878.)—Mr. Matthew Arnold, as he informs us in his preliminary essay, has printed this work with a professedly educational purpose, as a literary history of the century which devoted itself to the creation of English prose, told in a single volume which is itself "a piece of English literature of the very first class," by the greatest man of letters of his age; and, secondly, as a valuable *point de repère* or natural centre in the study of English literature as a whole. He declares that the modern system of education looks to the acquisition of too complicated, general, and wide-ranging knowledge, and needs to be much simplified. "Grant that the knowledge I get may be the knowledge that is worth having—that is the spirit of the prayer which ought to rule our education," he says, and as to much of our knowledge he quotes the old saying, "Teach me rather to forget." Many critics have been unable to see how the cause which is thus stated is likely to be advanced by putting into the hands of young students a confessedly inaccurate book, marred by prejudice and wrong judgments, uncorrected by any editorial comment, and accompanied by Mr. Arnold's advice to the teachers who may use it not to supplement Johnson's work for their students. What is to be said of Johnson and the revival of his fame latterly will be said at another time, but now we will limit what little we have to say to the educational value of this publication, and we think that, despite the critics, its value is very great. Nothing is more difficult or requires more skill and tact than the teaching of literature to any purpose. Usually the student is given a mass of facts relating to the lives of authors and the names and sequence of their works, which is of no more value to him than a like number of scientific facts—that is, information whose acquisition depends on mental toil and memory, and whose utility consists in its serviceableness in the practical business of life. But the mental capacity upon which any valuable knowledge of literature is conditioned is of a different sort, and, as in art, consists in powers to perceive imaginative

truth, to remember remote associations and catch evanescent suggestions —that is, in powers which are mainly functions of sympathy and sensitiveness. Clearly enough these powers are not to be cultivated by primers and manuals of dates, and, to use Arnold's illustration, it is of the very slightest consequence whether "it was Molly Aston or Miss Boothby whose preference for Lord Lyttleton made Johnson jealous, and produced in his 'Life of Lyttleton' a certain tone of disparagement." Clearly enough, too, although they depend largely on native endowment and character and on social circles in youth, their increase in strength is to be best fostered in study by enlarging the human experience of the student and bringing him into relations of admiration toward the men who have been in the past most highly gifted in such powers and character; and the best means of doing this is by placing in his hands biographies which will represent vividly and interestingly these men as they actually were—in their habits as they lived. The tendency of youth to hero-worship will do the rest, and, as in Arnold's plan, the reading of the works will come after the acquaintance with the poet. Such is the answer, we fancy, which Arnold would address to his critics, and in this light the lives he has chosen from Johnson are perhaps the best calculated to inspire the sort of interest we have described. The minor errors of fact or judgment have no appreciably bad effect, and may be corrected afterward in a natural way if the student cares to stay among the prose-writers of that century and know them thoroughly; and if he prefers to go back to Elizabethan poets or forward to the modern time, or elsewhere to choose what authors he will have teach him or to whom he will go for delight or sympathy, it will make but little difference to him whether Addison's "little Dicky" was Steele or not. Mr. Arnold has done in this volume for the teaching of literature what so many eminent scientists have done for the teaching of science: he has indicated the proper mode of work, and given the best book for following that mode applied to the century of the creation of English prose.

Cyprus: its History, its Present Resources, and Future Prospects. By R. Hamilton Lang, late H. M. Consul for the Island of Cyprus. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1878.)—The first eight chapters of this work, being a little more than half of it, are taken up with the classic topography of Cyprus and with the history of the island to the present time. In this narrative the author shows himself a compiler at second-hand, sceptical of tradition but bold in proposing hypotheses of his own; and the result is naturally not calculated to inspire confidence on the part of the reader. This portion, however, was written nine years ago in Cyprus, and is a legitimate if not very valuable introduction to Mr. Lang's personal observations during a residence of upwards of ten years in Cyprus, as manager of the Imperial Ottoman Bank agency at Larnaca, occasional vice-consul, practical and successful farmer, and diligent archæologist.

Nothing shows better the rapid march of events in the East than the ninth chapter. How antiquated already seem these phrases: "When Turkey lay prostrate at the feet of Russia . . . England interposed; and . . . restored to Turkey her independent existence, and carried back her frontiers . . . to the strongly-defensive line of the Balkans." "The firmness of British diplomacy was, however, rewarded with perhaps the most brilliant success recorded in history." "A glance at our sketch will demonstrate the advantages which England derives from the possession of Cyprus. It forms an invaluable outpost for the defence of the Suez Canal," etc. And how refreshing is the remark on p. 198 about "the cause of progress in Turkey":

> "To those who believe in the regeneration of Turkey by the hands of its present dominant race, the British position in Cyprus will be acceptable as affording a near and practical example of the kind of justice and administration which all the Turkish provinces require: and as it is easier to imitate than to initiate, the task of the Sublime Porte is thereby immensely facilitated."

One would suppose that foreign occupation of a province would remove it out of view of the central authority, and that anyhow Bosnia and Bulgaria would furnish the imitative Porte with nearer examples of good government, and perhaps quite as practical as Cyprus. How near it has seemed to the Porte heretofore Mr. Lang shows when he says: "Thus, in the Vilaet system Cyprus was put under the Vali for the Greek Archipelago, whose residence was at the Dardanelles. All serious crimes could only be judged at the residence of the Vali, at a great distance from Cyprus, with which there was only a fortnightly communication. Witnesses as well as criminals had all to be transported thither." Yet, "of all the Turkish provinces perhaps Cyprus was the best administered. No crying abuses could be perpetrated without the voice of remonstrance reaching the ears of—the Foreign Ambassadors at Constantinople." (The punctuation is our own.)

Mr. Lang does not disguise the difficulties of British administration, and he suggests a prudent conservatism in altering the existing systems of taxation and customs revenue. In so doing he exposes candidly the ruinous oppressiveness of Turkish taxes, and the various ways in which the inhabitants were swindled by extortion, false pretences, and peculation. The story of the Agricultural Bank, that was to put an end to usury, would make a Greenbacker blush. Then there is the road from Nicosia to Larnaca, "which every governor during the past fifteen years has found it his duty to construct without delay. . . . Four times what was required to make the road was extracted from the island, and the road was never made." The tax levied on the peasants for the purchase and destruction of locust-eggs was punctually collected, but "from ninety to fifty per cent. (according to the courage and ability of the officials) of the cash was misappropriated." American cotton could not be grown, because it so matures that "the picking requires to be done almost daily during the season. But the tax-gatherer, who had to receive his eighth portion, would not allow this, because he could not be in daily attendance."

There are interesting chapters on farming; on drought and locusts, its chief enemies; on the climate and the preservation of health; on hunting and archæology; and a rather meagre account of a trip through the island. The book is well provided with maps, both physical and political, but the typographical errors are too numerous for so fair a volume—*e.g.*, "Prytagoras" for Pnytagoras (p. 109); "*F*lemcen" for Tlemcen (p. 210); "coute qui coute" for coûte que coûte (p. 297); "Revue archæologique" for R. archéologique (p. 331); depôt, specialité, etc. These errors, perhaps, and certainly "General *de* Cesnola" and "Count de *Vagne*" (Vogüé), would have been avoided had the author corrected his proofs, as apparently he did not, since his preface is dated at Bucharest, August 28.

Personal Reminiscences. By Robert B. Forbes. (Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1878.)—No citizen of Boston who has trod its business streets for the last twenty-five years will need an introduction to Mr. R. B. Forbes. To a New-Yorker a parallel may be suggested by a reference to the late Geo. W. Blunt. Mr. Forbes has been thoroughly devoted to the maritime interests of the city where his long life has been passed, and to the class of seamen who were much better known to men of his generation than to those of later date. We believe that few young men of good family now commence their lives by voyages before the mast. In Mr. Forbes's time it was a good school, and has given us many brave and hardy men of enterprise; but the introduction of foreigners and a lower grade of seamen has made the association much less desirable. Macaulay says that one of the charms of 'Paradise Lost' is in the lists of names of places which are familiar to us, and Mr. Forbes's book is filled with the names of men who are identified with the mercantile enterprise of Boston. The methods of business, too, are a history of the past. Formerly the merchant placed his bags of specie in a ship to be returned after a year or two in the form of merchandise with a profit of one or two hundred per cent. Now the telegraph and letters of credit, with the shipment of goods by steamer from China to San Francisco, have placed matters upon a different footing. Mr. Forbes was in China at the outbreak of the English opium war, and the fact which we principally note about it is that the English consul Elliott took up some 20,000 chests of opium for account of his Government, and the scrip which he issued was afterwards redeemed at about £60 per chest. One wonders how much the owners would have recovered from Congress.

The most interesting part of the book is not unnaturally the upward struggle of a young man of good principles, sound constitution, and unlimited pluck and buoyancy. Mr. Forbes grew up with the development of steam navigation, and there is a long list of vessels built or bought by him with varying success. Instances are not wanting of fortunes made out of the Government during the war, but we judge that Mr. Forbes's experience in this direction was not very satisfactory. Indeed, he observes: "I cannot say that I feel particularly grateful to the paternal Government under which I live." Probably the fault was not altogether on one side. Those who remember the formation and parade of the "coast-guard" at the commencement of the war will hardly read the details of the ceremonies without a smile.

The style of these 'Reminiscences' bears evidence that Mr. Forbes's achievements have been those of the man of action rather than the closet,

but it has the advantage of being perhaps more realistic than a more polished narrative. Everybody knows what mines the diaries of Evelyn and Pepys have been to the historian, and Mr. Forbes may furnish valuable material for a New-England historian of the twentieth century. Still, it is rather original to print many columns of verses to prove that one is not a poet.

A Short History of the French People. Translated from the French of Paul Lacombe. (Boston: Henry A. Young & Co. 1878.)—We were hoping that we could welcome this translation, but the slightest comparison of it with the original text shows that it is the product of haste, carelessness, and ignorance of the French. We have opened at random on section ix., and, not to dwell on the labor-saving paraphrases, we find on one page (41) "ils transmettaient les appels du roi pour la guerre" rendered "they transmitted *to* the king *appeals for* war"; "indépendants dans leurs fonctions," "independent in their *duties*"; "domaines du fisc," "*government* lands"; "impôts . . . levés dans leurs propres terres, sur leurs colons," "taxes . . . levied *upon* their estates, upon their *coloni*," etc. Again at random, in section xxx., we meet (p. 168) for "La dixième partie du peuple est réduite à la mendicité, et mendie effectivement," "The tenth part of the people are reduced to beggary and beg *effectively*" (!); while on the next page the frightful poverty which Massillon reported to Minister Fleury—viz., that the peasants half the year "manquent du pain d'orge ou d'avoine, qui fait leur unique nourriture," turns out in the English to be that they "*eat* bread made of barley or oats for their only food"—a considerate tempering of their hardship, due to reading *mangent* for *manquent*.

We need hardly seek further for a condemnation of this translation. By all means let the young student avoid it and grapple with the French in spite of its terseness. That he may get, with all needful notes, in the edition just published by Henry Holt & Co.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 21, 1878.

The Week.

IN one way or another, and notably through an interview with Mr. Evarts, the report has been corrected that the President meant to abandon his "policy" at the South. He denies very properly that he has any policy at the South, or ever had. It seems impossible to get it into the heads of some of the people who write on this subject that the President's business is to execute laws, and not to right wrongs and succor the oppressed. If there be any law which directs him to keep an army in the South and superintend the working of Southern politics, his attention ought to be called to it and he ought to be impeached for disregarding it. If there be not, there ought to be an end of the nonsense which is talked about his "abandonment" of Southern Republicans. Those who dislike the way the Southern Democrats are dealing with the negro vote—and which is largely a copy of Republican tricks during the carpet-bag period—ought to propose some means of preventing it, in the shape either of an act of Congress or an amendment to the Constitution. There is a law now which directs the President to prosecute persons for interference with voters at Federal elections, and this we believe he is faithfully executing; but when he has done this he has done all that a constitutional officer can do. Any one who desires to govern the South by martial law, in defiance of the Constitution, ought to come out and say so like a man, instead of cursing and grumbling under his breath about "betrayal" and "desertion."

The New York *Tribune* recently sent down a correspondent of well-merited reputation for accuracy and impartiality, Mr. Z. L. White, to South Carolina to report on the state of things there. He began at Kingstree, where is the residence of Swails, the colored politician who has been driven from his home by a Democratic committee. Mr. White narrates that in the belief of the negroes they all voted the Republican ticket, but somehow their votes did not count. Instead, however, of also reporting that the whites passed their time killing blacks and drawing up "rebel claims" against the Government, he relates that the first thing he saw on going into the street from the hotel was the return of the children from school; first the white boys and girls, and "following soon after them the colored children, thirty or forty of them, intelligent-looking, well-dressed, decorously-behaved, carrying their satchels and books," which he well remarks "would at one time have been a strange sight in South Carolina." The principal of the colored school he found to be "a Southern man, and something of an enthusiast in his calling." He heard a good deal of strong Democratic talk from the editor of the local paper, a lively young man named Brady, of "small mental calibre," but then on the following day, riding out from the town, he found "that more than half the land for the first eight miles, on both sides of the road, and within one or two miles of it, had been purchased by negroes during the past five or six years, and that most of it had been paid for." They own farms of from twenty to two hundred acres, and "cultivate them fairly," raising all the Southern crops, and, as his negro driver told him, "live as happy as a big sunflower." Facts like these do not excuse ballot-stuffing, but they show that the agencies which everywhere else make cheating and intimidation difficult or impossible are at work in South Carolina, and will before long bear fruit.

Mr. White found plenty of evidence of fraud and intimidation, and found the story of the expulsion of Swails, the colored politician, from his home to be very much the same as has been told at the North. But he found also that, "unfortunately for the Republican party in South Carolina, very few of its members who have been prominent in politics during the last seven or eight years have escaped being tarred with the same stick that besmeared every one who had any connection with the Scott or Moses government." "Mr. Swails," he adds, "has not escaped suspicion. He has been accused of having profited by the Land Commission swindle, and when Governor Hampton was here he charged him directly with having been bribed in connection with the printing bill, and produced original documents which seemed to prove the accusation. I express no opinion with regard to these matters." Swails is a colored carpet-bagger from the North. Mr. White must not be so modest and timid about corruption when he is so bold and self-reliant about intimidation and ballot-stuffing. Nothing is more entertaining than the difference of mental attitude of the Republican press about Southern "stories," according to the source from which they come. The Bollandist Fathers are not more credulous than they about the doings of the Rifle Clubs, no matter who reports them, while a charge of swindling against the Carpet-bag statesmen is met with a stern scepticism worthy of Huxley, mingled with a most respectable dislike of tattle about other people's affairs.

The methods which the Southern Democrats are charged with using in the late elections have received their most detailed illustration in the suit brought in New Orleans in the Sixth District Court by the Citizens' Conservatives' committee to contest the election of their opponents for city offices. It charges that numerous false registration papers were issued and voted on; that the registration papers of men who had changed their residence or had died were voted on; that well-known Republicans were refused the right to vote, others having been allowed to vote in their name previously; that challenges were not noticed; that names on ballots were changed in the count; that the ballot-boxes were stuffed after the polls were closed; that there was violence at the polls, and numberless informalities in the official conduct of the election—all of which, and much more, is set forth minutely with names and places specified. In South Carolina the charges which were early reported have received some confirmation from the reports of the supervisors which have been printed, and are limited to obstructing the United States officers in the discharge of their duty in such a way as to interfere with their guarding the purity of the vote and actually witnessing ballot-stuffing and "repeating," of the commission of which crimes, however, the election returns themselves show evidence. In only one case has it been charged that any violence was used toward these officers. In Florida there seems to have been an attempt to elect the Democratic Congressman in the Second District by throwing out the returns of three precincts of Alachua County, but the Supreme Court of the State has issued an alternative mandamus, on motion of the Republican candidate, to compel the Canvassing Board to canvass these precincts, and the case is not yet decided. There have been some further arrests in South Carolina, but it will be impossible to discover the truth until the cases come to trial.

Lord Salisbury has replied to Mr. Evarts's proposal that the British Government should decline to receive the award of the Fisheries Commission, and takes the ground that it cannot be considered excessive, considering that the Canadian counsel claimed $15,000,000; that even if it were proper, which it would not be, for Great Britain as one of the litigants to revise the proceedings, and thus constitute herself a court of appeal in her own cause, there was no time to do so in the interval between the receipt of Mr. Evarts's despatch and the date fixed for the payment of the money; that the plea that the decision ought to have been made by a unanimous court is not supported by usage in such cases, or by the text-books;

that the failure of the Treaty of Washington to provide expressly for a majority decision, as it did in other cases, is due to the fact that in the other cases numerous findings had to be made over a long period, and to avoid inconvenience and delay it was necessary that in each case a majority should be sufficient; that in this case there was only one judgment to be rendered; that anyhow the appointment of an umpire would have been useless, if either the American or the British judge could prevent a decision by his veto, and that no tribunal constituted as this one was is ever called on for unanimity, because this would probably make all litigation before it fruitless.

The award, it is settled, will be paid on the day named. There never was any honorable way to avoid it, and while it was but right to call the attention of the British Government to the enormity of the sum and suggest a voluntary reduction of the amount, and to give notice that it would not be accepted as a basis for a renewal of the Convention, it was unfortunate that the unanimity objection was ever made, because it helps to discredit all arbitration and to make the machinery deliberately created by the two Governments in the present case look a little ridiculous. If two arbitrators, respectively representing the parties, and an umpire have all to agree in order to decide, the umpire's position is plainly absurd, and the case is really referred to the representative of one of the two litigants.

The silver craze appears likely to take a new form, in the shape of war on the banks for refusing to treat silver as money of account. An article in the Chicago *Tribune*, the only prominent paper which shows no symptom of recovery from the malady of last year, berates the New York Clearing-House severely, and threatens that the next Congress will punish the banks by compelling them to redeem their notes in gold, forgetting that the sinners can evade this trouble by surrendering their circulation altogether, which to the city banks is of little moment. It also threatens them with the loss of their charters, with popular indignation, and other Gaucho vengeance. It says it is a lie that silver is not as good as gold, because the silver *now* in circulation is at par with gold; alleges that $300,000,000 of silver can be maintained at par with gold, thus tacitly admitting that if we coin silver *ad libitum* it will not stay at par with gold, and claims exclusive prophecy rights in the whole matter; says we shall not be at a disadvantage in our foreign trade, even if silver is depreciated below the standard of the rest of the world and fluctuates in value; and asserts, with the usual gravity of the insane, that English trade with India "has not been disturbed" by the fall in silver. The whole article is a sad and yet entertaining exposition of Gaucho finance, but it is worth attention because it foreshadows another acute attack of mania in Washington next winter. The Cincinnati *Commercial* seems to have partly recovered; it has no more "Silver articles," but occasional little Gaucho paragraphs abusing and threatening the banks.

In the financial markets the week has been uneventful. Money in London fell to 4½ to 4¼ per cent. for discounts; but the Bank of England, although increasing its reserve from 34⅞ to 38⅝ per cent., did not reduce its discount rate—6 per cent. In New York there was little or no change in the money market. Gold, however, fell to 100 to 100⅛ per cent., with sales at 100$\frac{1}{16}$, the premium being less than the regular commission of brokers for selling gold. The action of the Clearing-House Association respecting silver was well received here. Silver was very steady during the week, both here and in London. The German Government is credited with having made sales of £350,000 at 50½*d*. Our Government bought at Washington some silver, but the secrecy with which its operations are surrounded makes it impossible to say what the amount was or what was the price paid. At the close of the week the bullion value of the 412½-grain dollar was $0.8546. The Treasury called in for redemption another $5,000,000 of 5-20 6 per cents—making $85,000,000 called in this year and redeemed, or to be redeemed, with the proceeds of sales of 4 per cents.

There are numerous signs that Congress will be urged with unusual vigor at the next session to transfer the care of the Indians to the War Department. General Sheridan's report, which we lately summarized, was manifestly intended as an argument in favor of this change, and General Sherman's is found to reinforce it. The latter holds that the Indians can be converted from nomadic to pastoral habits only by force, "because persuasion is wasted on an Indian." The constraint will not be the same in every case, he says, because tribes differ in docility, and each one must be dealt with according to its nature, and not by any fixed rule laid down for all the Indians. "There must not only be a show of force, but actual force and subjection used." He repeats General Sheridan's statement that the Cheyenne outbreak was due to starvation, but Secretary Schurz asserts, with evidence, that the raiding Cheyennes were well fed at the agency, and left it supplied with subsistence, and he has called upon General Sheridan to make good his charges against the present conduct of the Indian Bureau. It is natural that army officers, compelled to resist constant outbreaks with insufficient forces, should fancy they could manage the affair better than civilians; but they miss the real source of all the trouble, which is Congress, incapable alike of any far-seeing, thorough policy concerning the Indians and of sincere intentions towards them. Niggardly appropriations are not the cause of so much mischief as the inexcusable delays in making them. The Indian budget, on which depend not merely the salaries of officials but the lives of men, women, and children, the peace of the far West, and the fortunes of our little army, is regularly treated as a political measure, and, instead of being promptly voted at the beginning of the session, is postponed to the end, along with those over which political differences may properly arise. This is eminently one of the abuses which the admission of Cabinet officers to the floor of Congress might remove or greatly mitigate.

The regular or "Abbott" Democrats of the city of Boston have nominated for the approaching municipal contest the former mayor, Mr. F. O. Prince, whose conduct of the office was so unsatisfactory that the Republicans were able to defeat him under the lead of Mr. Pierce. That this success could be repeated would be improbable even with the same excellent candidate, but Mr. Pierce declines a renomination, and the Republicans were some 3,000 votes behind in the recent State election. There is, therefore, every reason to expect that Mr. Prince will resume his place, and that with him will begin again those practices which are in perfect accord with Butlerism, even if not carried on in his name and under his auspices. The defeat of "Beacon Street" and "State Street" in this field is the only consolation left the Essex statesman. He knows well enough that the extraordinary vote he commanded in the State at large is as unsubstantial as Horace Greeley's at the South for President. The Republican nomination is not yet made.

The theft of Mr. A. T. Stewart's body from his grave is hardly surprising in view of the extraordinary influence his career has exercised on the imagination of the generation which witnessed its close. Probably no man who has appeared in America within the present century has roused such a spirit of emulation, owing to the fact that he made his fortune in a pursuit in which vast numbers of ambitious and not very well trained men are engaged, and by the display of qualities which no dry-goods man had much difficulty in believing himself to possess. He died, too, with the reputation of possessing enormous wealth, and yet without having won much personal reverence or respect, while he left hundreds, if not thousands, filled with a feverish desire to get some of his money by any means fair or foul. The number of persons who have tried their ingenuity on his widow and Judge Hilton with claims of one sort or another is said to be very great, though perhaps not greater than that of those who tried to extract money from him while he was living by every variety of false pretence. The desecration of his grave is a last attempt to put him to ransom, and is in a measure explained by the sensation the affair has excited and the amount of space the press

gives to it. It is not surprising that under the circumstances a guard has had to be placed over Mr. Vanderbilt's remains. In fact, considering the disgusting and prolonged prominence given by the newspapers to the history of *his* last illness, the revolting minuteness with which the reporters were allowed to describe his ailments, and the still more revolting conflict over his property in the courts, the wonder is that some wretch has not thought before now of robbing his tomb also. It has been well said that not only the living but the dead die, "etiam pereunt ruinæ." But it appears as if this was not going to be true of our millionaires: their dead live on to be a stimulus to brutal cupidity.

The situation in Turkey can hardly be said to have improved. The Porte has accepted with some modifications the English project of reform for Asia Minor, which consists in the formation of a gendarmery, the supervision of the tax collection by Europeans, and a change in the judiciary, the nature of which is not yet very clear. But in Europe trouble seems to grow. Prince Dondukoff Korsakoff, who was left in charge of the new Bulgaria, came down into Eastern Rumelia, and, without waiting for the International Commission which was charged by the Berlin Treaty with the organization of the province, went to work and organized it himself, providing it with a full administrative machinery and a Russian general as governor, all the while speaking of the Berlin Treaty as a rather foolish affair invented by Lord Beaconsfield, to which it was not necessary to give much attention. In fact, he designated its arrangements as "grotesque." When leaving Philippopolis to go back to Bulgaria he received a warm address from the Bulgarian notables, thanking him for all he had done for them, and protesting in strong language against being separated from northern Bulgaria. In his reply he gave them every encouragement to believe that the separation was merely temporary. The general result was that when the Commission arrived they found their work done for them to the satisfaction of the inhabitants, though on a strictly Russian model, and that the kind of organization they were directed to create, on the basis of Turkish law, would be odious, and, moreover, that the people looked on them as intruders. There was, in fact, nothing left for them to regulate but the finances. It becomes, indeed, more and more likely that before the Russian forces leave Eastern Rumelia—that is, six months hence—the division will, by hook or crook, have been wiped out.

In the meantime the insurrection in Macedonia grows and spreads, and is being fed from Bulgaria by Russian volunteers; the Russians are still massing troops in Turkey proper, and there is apparently no remedy for the disorders. The English Jingoes are justly indignant, but there is no way in which they can call Russia to account. They believe she is fomenting the Macedonian rebellion, but they cannot prove it. If they ask her why she keeps troops in Turkey, she says she has the right to do so until her differences with the Porte are settled, these being differences which the Berlin Treaty expressly excepted from its operation. If they ask her why she continues to occupy Rumelia, she replies that the term of occupation fixed for her by the Treaty of Berlin does not expire for six months yet. If they threaten her, which they are just now careful not to do, she begins to move "a column" towards Afghanistan. The situation is a most perplexing one, and is making great havoc with the Beaconsfield Ministry. It is a sign of the times that the London correspondent of the *World*, Mr. L. J. Jennings, formerly a warm admirer of the Earl, a few days ago acknowledged his utter failure and the gradual loss of his popularity.

The Amir of Afghanistan returned an evasive and impertinent reply to the first communication to him, which set the blood of all the Anglo-Indians boiling, and they were for instant war and asked leave to declare it; but the Ministry in England, feeling already the horrible weight of the Turkish protectorate, were afraid to push matters to extremities, and directed Lord Lytton to give the Amir another chance by sending him an ultimatum, a step which appears, if one may judge from the telegrams to the press, to have made the Indian Government furious, as likely to be taken as a sign of timidity and to make operations before winter impossible. The Liberals are, of course, making full use of the situation. Mr. Gladstone has pointed out most effectively, in a speech in Wales, the contrast between the condition in which the Liberals left the relations of India with the Amir and that into which the Tory policy has plunged them. Sir William Harcourt, too, in an address at Scarborough, has poured out on them one of the most savage and effective pieces of political criticism we have ever read, and has followed it up with a letter to the *Times*, pointing out, protocol in hand, apropos of recent efforts of the Government to get Germany and Austria to remonstrate with Russia on her manner of executing the Treaty of Berlin, that Prince Gortchakoff actually proposed at the Congress that the execution of the Treaty should be placed under the joint guarantee of the Powers, and that Lord Salisbury fought the proposal tooth and nail and defeated it. He naturally, after this, treats the two British negotiators as dunderheads, who have not sense enough to conceal their folly after they have themselves perceived it.

Lord Beaconsfield, however, shows no loss of self-confidence and no sign that he has been impressed by the Liberal invectives against him. Lord Lawrence, probably the highest living authority on Anglo-Indian affairs, who administered the Punjaub during the mutiny, and kept it quiet, has been arguing strongly in the *Times* against the Afghan War, and has lately, with a number of other prominent men, formed a committee to agitate for the meeting of Parliament, and asked for an interview with the Premier to present their views, which, considering who they are and that Parliament is not sitting, was a very reasonable request. But he curtly refused it, and intimated moreover that he would stand on the letter of the law organizing the Government of India, and communicate to Parliament whatever needed to be said at the proper time—that is, within a month after it meets; or, in other words, after the war has begun. This ill-concealed indifference to the opinions of the legislature, and bold straining of the prerogatives of the Crown, are probably the rock on which the Ministry will finally split. The House of Commons has supported it well so far, but has a good deal of self-esteem, and will not stand snubbing indefinitely, even to avoid a dissolution.

The attempted assassination of Emperor Wilhelm, followed not long ago by a like attempt on the King of Spain, has now been imitated in Italy. On Sunday, as King Humbert was making a formal entry into Naples, a young man named Passanante, whose occupation is that of a cook, thrust at him with a dagger, and slightly wounded him in the left arm. The king at once struck his assailant with his sheathed sword, and Signor Cairoli, who sat in the same carriage, promptly grappled with Passanante and received a wound of little consequence in the thigh. The assassin was secured, and turns out to be an amateur regicide, with no grievance of his own, and a member of the Internationals. How deeply the poison of their infernal doctrines has worked in Italy is shown by what happened in Florence, where, in a procession celebrating the King's happy escape, a bomb was thrown among a corps of veterans, and, exploding, killed several. These events will be regarded as a practical commentary on Cairoli's speech at Pavia, and the Premier's bravery in defending his sovereign will hardly save him from fresh censure for his assertion of the right of voluntary association in Italy. Every day the newspapers report the formation or the murderous resolutions of some *Circolo Barsanti* (Barsanti was a private who killed his superior officer), and these clubs are distinguished by specific titles, such as "9th Feb., 1849," "God and the People," "Sons of the Future," etc., and one even reads among the students at Leghorn of a *Circolo Carlo Nobiling*. In fact, Italy is now taking her turn with the spirit of the Commune. The Pope has sent his congratulations to King Humbert, and the clerical journals join the general chorus of public indignation against the assassin and his kind. A very able and forcible, yet temperate, analysis of Cairoli's speech has been made by Signor Minghetti, formerly Secretary of the Treasury, at Legnano.

THE POLICY OF "SOLIDITY."

ONE hardly needed to be informed, as we were by the *Tribune* the other day, that Mr. Zachariah Chandler greatly rejoiced over the recent Republican triumphs, and thinks the party will have "no difficulty in electing Blaine or Grant next time." We are afraid his state of mind is only too common among prominent Republican statesmen –that is, they were willing to take up "honest money" even, like Messrs. Blaine and Conkling, at the last moment, and are glad to win by it; but the first use they would like to make of the victory is not to prepare the way for other victories of the same kind, but to get back the good old times when the offices were fairly divided, and when a politician, instead of bothering his head with finance, had only to instruct his secretary to collect "outrages" for him, and to launch an occasional volley of abuse at the "shot-gun Democracy." Nothing but great vigilance during the next two years on the part of the better element of the Republican party—the element which, in spite of its numerical weakness, made it necessary to put reform into the Cincinnati platform and the President's letter of acceptance—will prevent a rush back on the part of the managers into the old slough, and a vigorous effort to nominate and impose on the party one of their own set, who, like General Grant, will not harass them with "reform," nor enquire too curiously into the use they make of their patronage. They have taken up the currency question grudgingly—how grudgingly, Mr. Conkling's declaring himself on it a month before election after two years' silence during the critical period when public opinion was forming, illustrates curiously. They believe it will be disposed of and out of the way after January next, and their hope is that they will then be able to drop the subject, and all similar subjects, and go back once more to the simple work of denouncing the South.

It is of prime importance that this programme should not be carried out, and as a contribution towards its defeat there are two or three things to which we beg to call the attention of those Republicans to whom the party is, as it ought to be, interesting only as an instrument of good government:

1. It must not be forgotten that the policy towards the South which the Stalwart Republicans recommend, and would fain recur to, did not succeed when it was practicable and carried out. That is to say, outrages on the blacks were never so numerous, and were never attended with so much impunity, as when the Stalwarts had their way as to the manner of repressing them. Life and property and speech, on the other hand, have not for fifty years, or perhaps ever before, been as secure at the South as under Mr. Hayes's Administration, which has made no use of the Army or Navy or of the "bloody shirt." The cotton crop this year is the largest ever made, and has been produced by free labor, and a large cotton crop so produced is a sign of order and security which cannot be discredited by flaming newspaper articles or stump speeches. In fact, we now hear nothing of outrages on negroes as negroes. What is now complained of is outrages on them as voters, and, unhappily, most of the news we get on this point reaches us at election time from gentlemen actually engaged in the conflict and greatly interested in making the picture as black as possible.

2. For the sake of our present argument, we desire to have the stories of intimidation and cheating at the polls in the South, as told by the Republican press, accepted as literally true. If it be true that in one way or another the entire negro vote at the South has been coerced into support of Democratic candidates, it will only make the argument we are about to use the stronger. It shows, if true, an all but unanimous determination on the part of a masterful, able, and fighting race not to permit the colored population to be opposed to them in politics on the color line. In other words, the South is "solid" not against negro suffrage—for it likes that, because it increases the white representation in Congress—but against negro suffrage that is not controlled by white dictation, or is controlled by extraneous influence. It matters little how this dictation is exercised, whether by threats of armed violence or by unpunished ballot-stuffing, or other forms of fraud. Its existence is a tremendous fact, and the mode of dealing with it constitutes a political problem of the first order.

The Republican chiefs have as yet proposed only one way of solving it, and that is the opposition of a "solid" or united North to a "solid" or united South. There is, it is true, another plan on which some of our "esteemed contemporaries" seem to rely. It consists in strong writing directed against the Southern whites and their principal men, telling them how wicked and ruffianly their conduct is, and how ungrateful they are, and that ballot-stuffing and assaults on public speakers are wrong, and are disapproved of by the wise and good. But this method is better suited to the Kindergarten than to the political arena.

3. The objections to the Solid plan are that it is simply a game of mutual defiance, and therefore can lead to no practical result, and may last indefinitely. It resembles extremely the plan of promoting peace now generally adopted in Europe, by the maintenance of enormous armaments. France is armed because Germany is armed, and Italy because Austria and France and Germany are armed, and so on round the circle. Each is "solid," in other words, because the others are "solid." A solid North can only be produced and maintained by incessantly preaching hatred and distrust of the South, and urging or instigating the blacks to organize and vote against the whites; and to this the whites will reply by increased solidity, and each party will propose as a condition of peace that the other should mend his ways and acknowledge his past transgressions, or, in other words, undergo some sort of humiliation. There would, in truth, in such a situation be no means of bringing on a crisis of any kind, because there is no legal means of breaking down the Southern resistance. The government of every American State is based on the assumption that the majority of the voters possesses the preponderance of physical force, as well as of numbers, and is gifted with sufficient knowledge of its interests for its own protection. If, for instance, in the State of New York the majority finds that it has been cheated at the polls, either by violence or the misconduct of executive officers, it is presumed to be capable of providing a remedy, either by fresh legislation or a change of officers, or both. An appeal to Washington or to public opinion in Ohio for relief would be considered ridiculous. Now, there is no question that the state of facts is not the same in South Carolina as in New York, but the law is the same. The majority in the former is not capable of taking care of itself, but it lives under a Constitution which presumes that it is. The Federal authority can do nothing for it but see that Federal elections are properly conducted, and this is an imperative duty; but its practical results must at best be small, because the elections which most concern the negroes are State elections, and because a man who has been so cowed or corrupted as to be unable to follow his honest choice in voting at State elections cannot be, by any process the President can issue, made brave and independent in voting at Federal elections. In short, solidity as a remedy for solidity is what the aged "Bill" Allen, of Ohio, calls "a barren ideality." Nobody can tell when Northern solidity would break down Southern solidity, or give any reason, drawn either from principles of human nature or from experience, why it should ever do so. On the contrary, systematic hostility of any kind everywhere and always breeds systematic hostility and perpetuates it. The lesson has been taught in lines of fire in the history of a dozen nations. There is no political agency more thoroughly discredited. Its appearance among us in the hands of a party rooted in philanthropic aims is little short of grotesque.

4. Nothing kills a political party more certainly than having no legislative end in view—that is, having no policy capable of being embodied in legislation, or promoted by legislation. A party cannot live by preaching or hiring preachers; it lives by making and executing laws, or by seeking the power of making laws which it is able to describe in advance. The Republican party has afforded an excellent illustration of this in its own history. As soon as the reconstructing of the South was done, and it could make no more promises, and had to commend itself to popular support simply by "pointing with pride," it began to decline steadily and lose its hold

on the Government. It has owed its recent partial recovery to its again offering to undertake and carry out a definable policy in legislation. It will again go to pieces if, after the currency question is settled, it goes back to the work of denunciation. Solidity could only be offered as a policy in case the South were governed or governable as a conquered province, and the question before the public was whether military rule should be maintained or how it should be exercised. As the South is, solidity against it might be a proper object for a sect or a proper theme for a debating club, but there is nothing in it by which a political party can live.

5. The only way within our reach of securing a people in the condition of the negroes at the South in the free exercise of the franchise (that is, without an abandonment of our present form of government and the acknowledgment that State majorities are not really sovereign), is to make it an object with the whites to protect them in it, by giving the whites an opportunity to divide into two political parties. As soon as this happens each party will draw a portion of the negro vote to itself, and will see that its negro voters are protected at the polls. In other words, "shot-guns" will then be met by "shot-guns"; rifle clubs which go out to intimidate will be met by other rifle clubs as brave or as ferocious as they. Ballot-stuffing will be repressed by the same methods which are found effectual here. The negro will be assailed by persuasion from each side, and one side at least will have relations with the North which will make it seek and welcome Northern speakers and opinions. This division cannot be brought about suddenly; nor will it be the result of "gratitude," the want of which at the South furnishes the subject of some very amusing articles in Republican papers, whose complaints sound very much like the complaints of a man, who has been pummelling another severely, because the rascal did not thank him when he let him go. It will come from the growth of new questions; from the revival of trade and industry; from the cessation of intestine denunciation, and from honest endeavors on the part of Northern politicians to act with Southerners on national questions without examining too closely into the condition of their hearts. It can never come as long as the Southern whites are kept constantly on the alert to prevent a restoration of negro government by the existence of a party at the North which makes the vote it ought to have at the South out of the census returns, and treats every negro who votes the Democratic ticket as necessarily the victim of violence. Progress by this process will doubtless be slow, but Republicans have enough experience of the difficulties of government among men of their own race at the North to afford an example of great patience towards a community whose burdens they do not share, and which is still heaving with the throes of a revolution which has gone deeper down than any other recorded in history.

THE COLLAPSE OF HOME RULE IN IRELAND.

MR. GLADSTONE, in the last *Nineteenth Century*, discoursing on the causes of the recent misfortunes of the English Liberals, sets down as prominent amongst them the defection of the Irish members, or at least of the section of them known as Home-Rulers, and makes the uncertainty of their future course one of the difficulties in the way of bringing the Liberal party back into power. And there has been nothing in the recent conduct of the Irish members to offer any compensation for the damage they have done to the cause of good government in England. A party which is so lost to self-respect as to seek to gain its ends by introducing trials of physical strength into deliberative bodies is a party from which no cause, however good, has much to expect in the way of real aid. In fact, if the knot of members of the House of Commons who adopted and carried out the policy of "obstruction" in the last session of Parliament had really represented their constituencies, the condition of Irish politics, which has never been very hopeful, might fairly have been set down as desperate. A country delivered by patriots who served her by perpetual motions to adjourn, and sitting up all night to call for divisions, could hardly be worth saving. A people who could turn its representation in any free legislature to no better account than this, Liberals all over the world were rapidly concluding, could get little out of independence of any kind.

But the latest news from Ireland shows that the Home-Rulers in Parliament really had nothing behind them. Their "filibustering" had as much charlatanry as wrong-headedness in it. It furnishes, moreover, a curious illustration of the way in which politics can be treated as a sort of joke in Ireland by the there very large class corresponding to what our politicians here call "the boys." In fact, the "Home-Rulers" in Parliament seem to have been sent there by voters who did not care a straw about "Home Rule"—or, in other words, to have been sent there for the fun of the thing. We have phenomena of a somewhat similar kind in our own politics. It is impossible, for instance, to believe that one-half of the 110,000 who voted for Butler the other day in Massachusetts believe in the "reforms" proposed by the General, or in his "fiat money" plans, or his curious and wholly original device of "scaling down" mortgages in proportion to the decline in the value of the thing mortgaged. We do not believe it is unsafe to say that he owed half his support to the desire of "the boys" to make things lively and uncomfortable for the decorous and respectable classes, and have the fun of seeing an amusing old rowdy in a high official position. Irish voters have a traditional love of making "it hot under the old flag," even when they have no definite aim in view, and probably enjoyed O'Connell's ability to shock the English "swells" by his insolence as much as his efforts in the cause of Catholic Emancipation. There is, in fact, a key to much that is inscrutable in Irish politics in the story of the Irish farmer whose lawyer declined his retaining fee on the ground that he had no case, but was urged "to keep the money anyhow and make the coort ring."

The latest Irish papers reveal the fact that the Irish people refuses to exhibit any mark of interest in "Home Rule"—or, in other words, in the cause of Irish independence—beyond sending absurd representatives to the House of Commons. A most pathetic letter appeared in the Dublin *Freeman* three weeks ago from Mr. Alfred Webb, the son of the Webb so well known to American abolitionists, giving up completely the Home-Rule movement, of which he has been a prominent and honored promoter, and an officer of the Home-Rule League, and explaining his action. He acknowledges the total failure of the movement among the Irish people, in spite of its prominence in Parliament. It has not failed through the causes which brought the Fenian movement in this country to an untimely end. It had able and honest men in its Council, who did not suffer any party or religious differences to divide them. It had an excellent Secretary, and its accounts were properly audited and its debts regularly paid, and the Saxon Government did not interfere with it in the least. The organization started, in 1870, with the support of two weekly and five daily papers, and a "National Roll" was opened, in which it was expected "the names of hundreds of thousands of Irishmen" would soon be inscribed. After seven years' work only two of the seven papers give it any countenance; the treasury is empty, and Mr. Webb speaks of the "National Roll" in a way which shows it is a painful subject. At the meetings for years past, he says, it has been impossible for Home-Rulers to confine the discussion to their own subject. Outsiders of all sorts have attended and insisted on "dividing the time," as they say in South Carolina, and making the speeches cover a wide area of thought and feeling, and he intimates that the reflections of the Home-Rulers proper at the close of the proceedings, when the lights were put out and "the drums had ceased beating," were usually of a very melancholy nature. In fact, to make a long story short, he confesses that the Irish people have never shown any interest in the movement, and he scorns the idea of having it revived, as has been recently attempted by an influx of Irish patriots from England to hold a convention in Dublin. "The Home-Rule elections, I now see," he says, "afforded no sure test of the real sentiments of the country, for the candidates professed to hold every other opinion agreeable to the constituencies in addition to Home Rule," which shows that

they were shrewder fellows at the hustings than they proved to be in the House. On the other hand, he sees a great many proofs that the people are, on the whole, contented and not without attachment to the British Empire, in illustration of which he cites the fact that they contribute 12,000 armed constabulary, 44,000 soldiers, 25,000 militia, and 27,000 sailors, or over 100,000 men out of a small population, to the support of its greatness and renown. In view of these circumstances he advises all Home-Rulers like himself to abandon an agitation that is "demoralizing to the spirit and conscience of the country," and give up the idle dream of an impossible independence.

If the collapse of the Home-Rule delusion should end, as Mr. Webb hopes it may, in bringing Ireland into the stream of rational and progressive politics, the gain to the world would be far greater than the size of the island, or its apparent moral or intellectual importance, would lead us to suppose. Its government has for two centuries been the scandal and disgrace of Anglo-Saxon religion and politics. It has discredited English liberty and English progress all over the earth, and has been a fertile source of corruption to English politicians. On the other hand, the story of the sufferings and constancy of oppressed Irishmen has done nothing for the cause of freedom anywhere, because all the influence of Irish patriots and agitators has, ever since they succeeded in making their voices heard outside their own island, been used on the side of tyranny and retrogression. The English flag may, indeed, be said to be the only flag under which Irishmen have served "the good old cause" for which Hampden and Sidney died. The reason of this is, of course, familiar to every student of history, and most students of history will be disposed to excuse it. But the world has had enough of it. The inconsistencies and absurdities of Irish Liberalism are something which Liberals can put up with no longer. Irish Nationalism has lost all respectability, even in the countries in which the romance of Irish sufferings had fifty years ago most powerfully touched the popular imagination. The age is one in which individuals or peoples who spend much time in pitying themselves excite the contempt of everybody else, and in which neither great memories nor high hopes suffice to exempt anybody from the stern obligation of making tangible contributions to the civilization of his time.

THE HÔTEL CARNAVALET.

PARIS, November 1, 1878.

THE Exhibition has driven me to a hundred places which I dare say I should not have visited if it had not been for a desire to avoid the terrible Champ-de-Mars, with its hundreds and thousands of men and women—this terrible Babel of the Trocadéro, where all the languages of the world are heard at the same time. When I read in my paper, "To-day 200,700 tickets have been received at the doors of the Exhibition," I ask myself, Where is there a place in Paris unknown to these 200,000 travellers? where can I hide myself? where can I lead for a few hours a quiet, provincial, silent life?

The most provincial quarter of Paris is the Marais. The very name speaks of dormant solitude. The tide of what we call civilization follows the wind—it goes, in all our European cities, from east to west. The Marais, the Place Royale, the quarter of the Arsenal, the Island of St. Louis, were once the elegant quarter of Paris; the palace of the kings was, as the name Tuileries (a brick manufactory) shows, on the outskirts of the city. When Henry the Fourth made his escape from the Louvre, he was in a moment in the country; now he would have to make his way across the rich quarter of the Champs Elysées, then completely deserted.

I visited a few days ago the hôtel of Madame de Sévigné in the Marais; I had never seen it. Most of these old hôtels of the Marais have been turned into schools. In the hôtel of Madame de Maintenon, decorated in some parts by Mignard, there is even now a preparatory school where pupils are taken for the École Centrale. Madame de Maintenon's hôtel is in the Rue du Regard, and is now completely dishonored. Till a few years ago, there was also a school in the charming Hôtel Carnavalet, where Madame de Sévigné lived during the last twenty years of her life. This hôtel is an admirable specimen of the French architecture of the Renaissance, and has beautiful sculptures, made by our famous Jean Goujon, so well known by his "Fontaine des Innocents." It was constructed in 1550 by the architect Pierre Lescot for a president of the Parliament, Jacques des Ligneris. All the great parliamentary families lived in the Marais, which is not very distant from the Sainte-Chapelle and the Palais de Justice.

How did the hôtel come to be named Carnavalet, a name which it has preserved to this time? After the death of the Président des Ligneris it became the property of the Kernenevoys, a Breton family known at the French court under the name of Carnavalet (the French have always altered names difficult of pronunciation, whether foreign or not). In the seventeenth century the Hôtel Carnavalet was inhabited by two parliamentary families, the last of whom let it to Madame de Sévigné, to her son-in-law, M. de Grignan, and to the good Abbé de Coulanges. (The lease was made in their three names, and each of them paid a third of the rent.) "I believe," writes Madame de Sévigné to her daughter on the 16th of September, 1677, "that d'Hocqueville has taken for us the *Carnavalet;* we shall be very well there; we must arrange ourselves in it, as nothing is more honorable or economical than to live together." On the 4th of October she writes, with an accent of triumph: "We have it, and how glad I am! What good air we shall have in it, instead of our Courtaude! [the Courtaude is the house of the Courtauvilain Street, where Madame de Sévigné lived before]. We shall have the *bel air!* As one cannot have everything, we shall have to dispense with wooden floors, and with the little fireplaces which are now the fashion; but we shall have a fine court, a fine garden, a good quarter, and the good little *Filles-Bleues*, who are very handy, and we shall be all together." The Filles-Bleues were a Congregation of Sisters called the Celestial Annonciades, who lived in the next house; and in the seventeenth century such congregations were in daily communication with most families, especially in times of sickness, and for the education of young children, etc.

Madame de Sévigné would see to this day the huge fireplaces which had ceased to be the fashion; they are still ready to receive large logs of wood on their immense andirons; the portraits which probably hung over them where we now have mirrors are no longer there, with the exception of a portrait of Cardinal Mazarin, which is perhaps not of Madame de Sévigné's time. There is a long and charming letter from Madame de Sévigné to her daughter about the distribution of the rooms. M. de Grignan took for himself the ground-floor, yielding only a part of it to the Marquis de Sévigné, his brother-in-law. Madame de Sévigné established herself on the first floor. The stables could receive eighteen horses, and there was room for four carriages. When Madame de Sévigné entered the house it had been enlarged by the famous Mansard (who gave his name to the French attics called to this day *mansardes*). The old Renaissance part is only represented now on the street by the central portico, which was carefully preserved by Mansard. In the court it is represented by the fine building which makes the end of the court, and by the ground-floor on the other three sides. All the rest is the work of Mansard. A second restoration was made in our time, but it only affected the interior of the hôtel; yet every trace of the habitation of Madame de Sévigné was unhappily destroyed. Nothing remains of the disposition and of the decoration of the apartment of the marquise; the little room where she lived, the large room which was left to Madame de Grignan, the staircase which she describes, are all gone.

"Le haut est bien plus clair et plus propre que le bas. Il y a une grande salle commune, que je meublerai, puis un passage, puis une grande chambre: c'est la vôtre. De cette chambre on passe dans celle de Madame de Lillebonne [the Lillebonnes were ladies of the house of Lorraine, who were living in the house at the time when Madame de Sévigné took it]: c'est la mienne; et de cette grande chambre on va dans une petite que vous ne connaissez pas, qui est votre panier, votre *grippe-minaud*, que je vous meublerai, et où vous coucherez si vous voulez. La grande sera meublée aussi de votre lit; j'aurai assez de tapisserie. Cette petite chambre est jolie. . . . Celles que je voudrai vous ôter pour écumer votre pot viendront par un degré dégagé assez raisonnable tout droit dans une petite chambre. Ce séra aussi le degré du matin pour mes gens, pour mes ouvriers, pour mes créanciers."

This letter of the 12th of October, 1677, to Madame de Grignan is full of such details; but you must look no more for that "reasonable" staircase, for that little *grippe-minaud* room, nor for the room where the mother could "skim the pot" of her daughter's visitors. This skimming of the pot can only be understood in the classical country of the *bouillon* and the *pot au feu*.

The sculptures of Jean Goujon are in his best manner. Over the door there are, from his hand, small children with palms in their hands, supporting the escutcheon of the Carnavalets. Goujon made also an admirable figure called Abundance, a winged figure standing on a carnival mask (an allusion to the name of Carnavalet). To him also have always

been attributed the four colossal figures of the Seasons which adorn the first floor of the building, and are all in that elegant, finely-draped style of the statues of the Fontaine des Innocents. They are not quite as finished as the nymphs of this famous fountain, but they were evidently made at least after the designs and drawings of the master. These four great figures are the chief feature of the court, as they are in the principal building; other figures have since been made on the two wings, the four Elements, Earth, Water, Air, Fire, by Van Obstal. The hand of Jean Goujon can be discovered in some fine bas-reliefs over the doors, on the vaults, in the staircase, over the windows.

The rooms which Madame de Sévigné describes in the letter which I have cited have all been altered, but the reception rooms are the same now as they were in the time of the marquise. You can still see the great staircase (not the *degré raisonnable*), constructed by Mansard, which conducted the visitor to the *grand appartement;* the common drawing-room, with its two windows on the court, and two on the garden; the great room of the Countess de Grignan; the rooms of M. de Grignan on the ground floor and of the *bon abbé* (the *bien bon*, as the marquise always calls him). But the character of all the apartments has been completely altered by the destination which has been given to the Hôtel Carnavalet.

The city of Paris bought it in 1866 for the sum of 900,000 francs, and turned it into a museum. This museum is to be specially devoted to the history of Paris. The Public Library of Paris was burned in the fire of the Hôtel de Ville, on May 24, 1871. It has since been partially reconstructed and established in the Hôtel Carnavalet. I cannot well imagine why the marquise's hôtel has been chosen to receive all the documents concerning the history and the transformation of Lutetia. Madame de Sévigné spent a few months in Paris every year, but she was, after all, a *provinciale;* she was not a *Parisienne*. She would probably care little for all these old maps of Paris, all these documents concerning its edifices, its churches, its monuments. Her library was very different from what is now called the Bibliothèque Carnavalet; it is not difficult to reconstruct it. Her letters form a natural catalogue where all her favorite authors can be found. "I am going on with Nicole's 'Morale,' which I find delicious; it has as yet given me no remedy against the rain, but I expect to find one, for I find everything in it. I find this book admirable." Nicole, Pascal, the Jansenists had certainly a place of honor in this most serious library of the most charming and good-humored marquise, along with Voiture and Sarrasin and Segrais—authors who are now out of fashion—and a few novels of chivalry (for the chivalric spirit was not yet gone), and some old authors. "We are reading also the 'History of France,' from the time of King John. I wish to get it clear in my head, as much so, at least, as Roman history, where I have no friends or relations. Here, at least, I find some acquaintances. Well, as long as we have books we will not hang ourselves!" Of course Madame de Sévigné read 'L'Astrée,' and 'Cyrus,' and 'Cleopatra,' which we now find unreadable. "My son has thrown me into the midst of 'Cleopatra,' and I am finishing it; it is a folly which I beg you to keep secret." Her common sense is here in revolt, but she is half-ashamed of it. She was fond of ancient history: "I am delighted that you should like the history of Josephus, and Herodias, and Aristobulus. Go on, I beg you; read the siege of Jerusalem and of Jotapata. Take courage; all is fine, all is great. . . . As for myself, I am in the history of France; the Crusades have led me on, but they are not to be compared to Josephus. Ah! how I wept over Aristobulus and Mariamne."

I have for more than twenty years looked in vain for a book of Madame de Sévigné's bearing the well-known arms of Rabutin-Sévigné. I have never seen one in any library, either public or private. I dare say she did not take the trouble to have her books well bound, and to have her arms engraved on them. They must have been good old, serviceable books, bound modestly in calf; but she read them.

The library which is now in the Hôtel Carnavalet might as well have been placed anywhere else, and all the fragments of old Gallo-Roman Parisian art, which fill room after room, would have been much better in their place in the Musée de Cluny. I should have liked to find the hôtel of Madame de Sévigné emptied of all this *bric-à-brac*. It looks now like a gigantic curiosity-shop, with its old clocks, and *chaises-à-porteur*, and chairs, and draperies. Since the old furniture of Madame de Sévigné no longer exists, the hôtel could have been furnished and decorated exactly in the sober and severe style of the end of the seventeenth century. I would have placed in Madame de Sévigné's apartment authentic pictures of all her friends. I would have tried to seduce M. de l'Aubespin, the possessor of the admirable portrait of the marquise by Mignard. I would have had in the passages busts of the Grand Condé, of La Rochefoucauld, of the Cardinal de Retz. I would have placed in the library all the Jansenists, Nicole, Arnaud, Malebranche, with all the works of Molière and Corneille and Bossuet. In short, I would have tried to give to the visitor the impression of the seventeenth century. Still, in its disorderly state, half-museum, half-library, the Hôtel Carnavalet deserves a visit; there is still something in it of the lovable marquise.

Notes.

AMONG the holiday books announced by J. B. Lippincott & Co. are 'Geneviève de Brabant,' a legend in verse, by Mrs. Charles Willing, illustrated; 'Iris,' a poem by Mrs. M. B. M. Toland, also illustrated; and a small quarto consisting of extracts from Miss Mitford's 'Our Village.'——The new Catalogue of their publications just issued by Houghton, Osgood & Co. would be remarkable if only for its excellent arrangement, full index, and handsome typography; but the list of works which it enumerates is of course the most noticeable feature, as it should be, and draws both upon the best American and the best English literature of the present century.——A 'Treatise on Coal: its History and Uses,' by several professors of the Yorkshire College, Leeds, will be shortly published by Macmillan & Co. The same house have just reissued the first volume of Sir Francis Palgrave's 'History of Normandy and England,' which has been long out of print.——Bulletin No. 47 of the Boston Public Library completes the third volume. Mr. Perkins's Check-list for American Local History reaches Troy, N. Y. A list of works in the Library on Coins and Medals, and another of Bibles from the Medlicott collection, also make this number valuable to specialists.——Mr. Lawrence Buckley Thomas, of Baltimore, sends us Part II. of his 'Genealogical Notes,' printed in the same handsome manner as Part I. It consists of additions and corrections to the preceding, and is in lieu of a revised edition of it. A large number of facsimiles of family autographs and documents, from tracings, are appended in papyrograph print.——Mr. George Dimmock has issued from the *Psyche* Office, at Cambridge, a list of the entomological works of John Lawrence Le Conte, on one hundred and fifty-seven "title slips"—that is, on slips of thin cardboard, of uniform size, one title printed on each. The works are all articles in periodicals or in the memoirs of societies, or in other persons' books—just the sort of writings that one gets no other clue to than such a painstaking list as this. Mr. Dimmock intends to continue with other authors, and so to make in time a bibliography of entomology which will differ from other bibliographies in this, that it can be arranged, as the owner pleases, by authors, as Harris, Le Conte, etc., or by subjects, as coleoptera, rhyncophora, etc., and that either alphabetically, or systematically, or chronologically, or, finally, in all these ways, if one will only buy several copies of each of the slips.——The *Librarian*, in its last number, informs us that "fifteen years ago no copy of Lowndes, Watt, Bruno, Peignot, Panzer, or *Dobbin* was to be found" in the Mercantile Library of Philadelphia. The absence of the last-named bibliographer was indeed serious.——A rather unusual sale exhibition of representative pottery, bronzes and antiquities, including many reproductions from classic works and some original relics from Tuscan cemeteries, is now open at Kurtz's Gallery on 23d Street, in aid of Protestant education in Italy.——The following English announcements are of interest: An extensive work by Mr. Justin McCarthy, 'The History of Our Own Times, from the Accession of Queen Victoria to the Berlin Congress,' of which two volumes will be published immediately (Chatto & Windus); a new edition of the late Mr. Bagehot's literary essays, with an introduction by R. H. Hutton; "Mixed Essays," by Matthew Arnold (Smith & Elder).——Part V. of Koolman's learned and infinitely laborious 'Wörterbuch der Ostfriesischen Sprache' ends with *filt* (Eng. felt). Like the foregoing it possesses no little interest for English students. We may instance the etymologies of *Emma* (the active, diligent one), *ërde* (earth), *es* (genitive ending), *êsken* (ask), *fader* (father), *falge* (fallow), *farken* (porcus, farrow, perhaps the animal that furrows the ground), *feide* (feud), *feld* (field), *felisen* (valise), *fenne* (fen), *fet* (fat), *fidel* (fiddle), etc. Curious idioms and proverbs as usual abound, *e.g.*, "hê kwam to enn'," he stood up (literally "on end"); "dat is so fast as botter in de sünn';" "bäter 'n goden naber as 'n ferren fründ."

—Col. J. W. Forney, the late genial editor of the Philadelphia *Press*, who changed his skies by going abroad, could not change his editorial habit, and almost as he lands puts out vol. i., No. 1, of *Progress: A Mirror for Men and Women*. Mr. Forney, it seems from the pictorial heading of his new weekly, has a bay-window from which he sends "glances" into the outer world, and even into the world of spirits, for his vista on the

left hand fades away from the philanthropic Geo. W. Childs, of the Philadelphia *Ledger*, through Henry C. Carey—"Carey, the philosopher"—to William Penn; and on the right hand from Morton McMichael, "the journalist," through Ben Franklin to Lincoln. Mr. Edison can be best seen from the front window, and by putting his head and his editorial I out Mr. Forney can at any time overlook an animated conversation by telephone between General Grant and his dear friend the late Senator Sumner. It will be seen that Mr. Forney's glances are partial to the male sex, and in fact were it not for "Em'ly's" "Leaves from My Diary," "Bella's Letters, No. I., from Castle 'Beau Monde,' on the Heights, near Philadelphia," and Mr. Justin McCarthy's novel of "Donna Quixote," the Mirror for Women would be a pure misnomer. As is natural in a first number, Mr. Forney is his own chief contributor; his are the Bunsbyisms on the first page called "Editorial Paragraphs," and the editorial paragraphs on p. 2 called "Topics of the Week," and the topics of the week on pp. 4 and 5 called "Editorial Paragraphs," and the editorial paragraphs on p. 9, used as filling without a name; his the biographical section, "Our Living Old Men" (not Our Live Young Men, as might have been expected in a journal of Progress), and his, finally, the threnody on the late Henry Armitt Brown. Mr. Forney's reputation as a poet has yet to be established, but that continuance on his part in verse-making will be progress, the following stanzas bear witness:

> "He scorned the persecuting arts of those
> Who make of independent men their foes,
> But always—and he often spoke of them—
> It was their *public* conduct to condemn,
> And point the way of ultimate Reform,
> That was his shining beacon in the storm."

After this, Mr. Forney's promised appearance as a novelist need not surprise us: 'American Money and Foreign Titles' will show what can be done by way of rivalling Mr. James's 'American.'

—The pictorial magazines for December agree in a comparative mediocrity of contents, symptomatic, perhaps, of reserved surprises for the January number. As is not uncommon, too, they show some correspondence in topics. Mr. M. D. Conway's "England's Great University," in *Harper's*, is supplemented by Mr. Ansley Wilcox's "Undergraduate Life at Oxford" in *Scribner's*. Mr. E. H. Knight discourses in the former magazine of "The Mariner's Cautionary Signal," and in *Lippincott's* continues his series of articles on the Paris Exposition with a discriminating paper on the machinery exhibit. "Some Aspects of Contemporary Art" in *Lippincott's* may be read with "Art at the Paris Exposition" in *Scribner's*. Mr. Conway tells, in the course of his article, of Broad-Church and High-Church competition at Oxford, and cites a curious instance of it. A wealthy lady lately gave $5,000 towards founding at the University "a college for young women similar to that (Girton) which is doing such good work at Cambridge." Naturally, the Broad-Church professors and teachers were called in as advisers, but, dreading the strength of the monastic traditions, would fain have settled down upon a young ladies' boarding-school as the safest entering-wedge. Thereupon the High-Church people held a meeting and appointed a committee to take the lead in carrying out the original conception, and sent word to the Broad-Church party that they were prepared to join forces with them on this basis, and they are now at work harmoniously together, preparing a purely secular scheme of instruction. Mr. Conway's paper is pleasingly illustrated from photographs, including portraits of Jowett, Pusey, Liddon, and Max Müller. This number of *Harper's*, indeed, is rich in portraits, for the article on "Mendelssohn and Moscheles" has no less than ten of composers and virtuosi, and in "The Red River Colony" there are three capital character-portraits of leaders in a Swiss migration to Manitoba in the year 1821, which, in the end, profited the United States and not Canada. The narrative of the little colony's voyage by way of Hudson's Bay, their expectations and hard disappointment, is unpretentious but quite worth recording. Miss Elizabeth Stuart Phelps, in "Two Hundred and Two," conveys by fiction the moral that a woman cannot or ought not to love more than one man; but this harsh doctrine is mitigated by the ultimate union of Miss Vesta Rollinstall to her long-lost lover.

—Mr. Edward King contributes to *Lippincott's* another chapter of his "Danubian Days," chiefly devoted to vindication of the Servian character for bravery and to description of Buda-Pesth. Prof. T. F. Crane relates agreeably the history of Antonio de Trueba, the popular Spanish poet and novelist, with here and there a bit of his autobiography or an abstract of one of his stories. Mr. Knight finds evidence of the influence of American example in the construction of English and French locomotives; what he has to say of the double Macarthy roller-gin apparently deserves the serious consideration of our Southern cultivators. Perhaps nothing is so deeply interesting in this number as the plain tale by a lady of "The Great Earthquake of 1878 in Venezuela." The writer was an eye-witness of it in Caracas, which was nearly overwhelmed by it, but the force of the earthquake was greatest in the valley of the Tuy, to the south of the capital, and fell with utter destructiveness upon the city of Cua. The details of the catastrophe here are what might be expected. A wife is preserved while sitting between her brother-in-law, who is instantly killed, and her husband, who dies in fifteen minutes, but in full consciousness. "A bride of twenty-four hours was killed with three of her children by a previous marriage. A fourth child was supposed also to have been killed, but on the third day a soldier who was passing the house pierced a basket which was among the ruins with his bayonet out of curiosity, when to his amazement a childish voice cried out, '*Tengo hambre*' ('I am hungry'). . . ." In typographical accuracy *Lippincott's* is ordinarily a model, but on p. 650 Serapevo has slipt in for Serayevo, and on p. 713 Mr. Whistler's "Nocturnes in Black and Gold" appear as *Natures*. In *Scribner's* one should read Prof. Sumner on "The National Bank Circulation," and may read with more or less of interest and instruction Mr. John Muir's "The Douglass Squirrel of California"; Emma C. Hardacre's "Cliff-Dwellers," a fascinating theme; Charles C. Ward's "Caribou-Hunting"; and Grace A. Ellis's "Dora D'Istria," all of these being illustrated in *Scribner's* excellent manner.

—The illustrated article entitled "The Golden Age of Engraving," which was published in *Harper's Magazine* for August last, and which we commented on at the time, has been issued now in pamphlet form, and comes to us with the imprint of Mr. Frederick Keppel, the print-seller, on the cover, although the pages within are printed direct from the Messrs. Harpers' double-columned plates and with their running title. The paper contains a good deal of information about different kinds of engraving, and gives dates of birth and death of many favorite engravers, with accuracy, so far as we have observed. It gives, also, names of books of reference, but it is not very thorough in any direction; for example, it mentions Bartsch's 'Peintre-Graveur' as an indispensable book to the student, without naming the Passavant book forming appendix, which corrects and completes Bartsch so neatly; and regrets that Bartsch does not deal with the "great line-engravers who have reproduced the masterpieces of painting," without recalling the marked exceptions, such as the whole fourteenth volume given to Marc Antonio and his two doubles. So Bryan's 'Dictionary' is named as giving those line-engravers, but without mention of either Nagler or Robert-Dumesnil. And then it ought to be observed that the engravers of the "Golden Age" were far from faithful reproducers of their originals, in most cases, and that the most accurate engraved copies of paintings have been made in much more modern times, either by line-engravers whom the author does not name in the few lines he devotes to the modern school of that art, or by the painter-etchers like Unger and Flameng, whose existence is noticed very briefly. Charles Sumner's light and amateurish little pamphlet is twice mentioned as an authority. Such things pass in a magazine article, but should not appear in reprints of any form.

—The *New Quarterly Magazine* (London) is now published by Messrs. Chatto & Windus, and is at present edited by Dr. Franz Hueffer, who has revived the department of "Current Literature and Current Criticism," to which reference has been made by us before now. A discussion of the varying English opinions of two American novels, Dr. Eggleston's "Roxy" and Mr. James's "Europeans," is promised for the January number. In the October issue there is an article by an American—"The New Bulgaria," by Mr. F. D. Millet, the war correspondent of the *Daily News;* and an essay on an American—"The Gospel according to Walt. Whitman," by Mr. Robert Louis Stevenson. Readers of the *Portfolio* know Mr. Stevenson as the writer of an agreeable series of articles on Edinburgh. He is, in fact, a young Scotch lawyer, whose canoe trip in France has been delightfully described in his "Inland Voyage"; and to *London*, one of the crop of English "society weeklies," Mr. Stevenson is contributing "Latter-day Arabian Nights," a fanciful and fantastic reworking of Eastern legend amid Western surroundings. He does not indulge in the bespattering of praise from which he says Mr. Whitman has greatly suffered; he tries to show what there really is good in the man and in his work, which is neither that of a Milton nor of a Shakspere. "Leaves of Grass," in his view, is "simply comical, where it falls short of nobility," and to show the nobility while stepping over the comicality is Mr. Stevenson's aim. "To give a certain unity of ideal to the average population of America—to gather their activities about some conception of humanity that shall be central and normal, if only for the

moment"—this really is Whitman's aim, and he sees that "if the poet is to be of any help he must testify to the liveableness of life." Mr. Stevenson had previously declared his belief that Whitman, "not as a poet, but as what we must call (for lack of a more exact expression) a prophet, occupies a curious and prominent position." And in another place, "He has sayings that come home to one like the Bible. We fall upon Whitman, after the works of so many men who write better, with a sense of relief from strain, with a sense of touching nature, as when one passes out of the flaring, noisy thoroughfares of a great city into what he himself has called, with unexcelled imaginative justice of language, 'the huge and thoughtful night.'" Having taken Whitman rather as a prophet than a poet, Mr. Stevenson remarks that his lyrical unrhymed verse "can only be described by saying that he has not taken the trouble to write prose. I believe myself that it was selected principally because it was easy to write, although not without some recollections of the marching measures of some of the prose in our English Old Testament." "A great part of his work considered as verses is poor, bald stuff. Considered, not as verse, but as speech, a great part of it is full of strange and admirable merits."

—In the *Nation*, No. 344, in a notice of the *North American Review* for January, 1872, we called attention to a criticism by Dr. Ezra Abbot, of Cambridge, of Archbishop Trench's distinction in his 'New Testament Synonyms' between the words ἐρωτάω and αἰτέω, and expressed the opinion, in agreement with Dr. Abbot, that the difference of meaning between the words which the Archbishop predicated was altogether untenable. The edition of the 'Synonyms' upon which the remarks were based was the seventh, of 1871, but, notwithstanding the circulation and character of the *North American Review*, we find in the eighth edition of the 'Synonyms,' published in 1876, the very same remarks upon the words repeated, without a hint of any opposite view, and without an apparent suspicion on the part of the author that his opinion of the New Testament use of the words had ever been questioned. But it had been already said in England, before the publication of Dr. Abbot's article, that a fair study of New Testament texts would not justify the Archbishop in the shade of meaning which he assigned to ἐρωτάω, so that the inattention of the learned Dean to the criticism upon his work is the more inexcusable. We may recall here that while, according to the doctrine laid down in the 'Synonyms,' αἰτέω is the request of the inferior to the superior, and ἐρωτάω implies that the two persons stand on an equality, and while the first should be used in petitions of the apostles and others to Christ, the latter is the proper word in petitions from Jesus to the Deity, the facts are that in three important passages, very nearly decisive against this theory, the two words are clearly interchangeable (John xvi. 23; Acts iii. 2, 3; 1 John v. 16).

—The *odium theologicum* has made many entertaining contributions to polemical literature, and of late the *odium philologicum* has been also very prolific in coarse abuse. But the following extract from a controversy now raging between two high dignitaries of the medical profession in this city and in Philadelphia shows that the *odium medicum* has resources in the matter of scurrilous rhetoric which neither of the others can look down upon. It affords, too, strong support to the opinion we have long held, that "newspaper men," far from being unusually addicted to personal abuse, are really the victims of a temptation which acts powerfully on men of all callings. We have little doubt that if doctors and lawyers had the means of addressing a large multitude every day upon any topic they pleased, opposition of any kind would betray them into the very excesses which are now considered the peculiar scandal of the editorial profession. The subjoined passage, in fact, serves to illustrate the noble and successful struggle with the weaknesses of human nature which the mealy-mouthed editors carry on every day:

"A distempered and snarling cur has nobler mental and moral qualities than you; the vibrio that wriggles in decomposing filth is higher in the scale of existence; the foul bird that defecates in its own nest is less odious; the wretch who, actuated by perverted instincts, revels in nastiness and abominations, is not so execrable; the monster who insults the mother who bore him is more entitled to human sympathy. Whether you receive your dues in this world or in the next is, as I have said, a matter of no consequence to me; but if a being as grovelling, hypocritical, fraudulent, and polluted as you could, through any means, escape the punishment to which his crimes entitle him, then I should lose faith in the justice of an omniscient God, and wonder for what purpose hell was instituted. Go, graceless and irreclaimable quack, hardened and infamous blackguard, sane or insane, knave or maniac, and regale your devious fancies by the contemplation of your own depravity."

—In the *Gegenwart* for September 21 is a long article by Mr. Adolf Glaser, well known by his translations from the Dutch, on "Die moderne belletristische Literatur in Holland." It appears that the Dutch attribute the absence of first-rate writers among them largely to the want of a literary treaty with Germany. Not only do their publishers pirate, by means of translations, such German books as seem likely to suit their public, but these are read so extensively in the original as to exercise a very depressing influence on the development of a native literature. One would suppose that, however disagreeable this might be to the literary class in Holland, it would be a source of unmixed pleasure to patriotic Germans. But this is far from being the case; for though all educated Dutchmen read German, a very large proportion of them, Mr. Glaser tells us, are never able to accustom themselves to the German character. In consequence of which novels, etc., are reprinted in Holland by wholesale, the author, of course, being rewarded with fame only. It is to be hoped that the Dutch will persist in their opposition to a literary treaty until their repugnance to Gothic letters is universally shared by German authors and publishers.

—The Arctic explorer, Edw. H. Johannesen, who, it will be remembered, was the first one to circumnavigate Nova Zembla, for which he received a gold medal, now has the honor of having discovered a new land in the Arctic Ocean. He returned to Norway from Nova Zembla on the 27th of September, and reported that the Kara Sea was nearly free from ice on account of the constant south winds. So far as he could judge, the ice must have drifted very far out, and had he had a steamer he thinks it would not have been difficult to reach Franz-Joseph Land. With a schooner he dared not venture, having, besides, to attend to the main object of his expedition—that of catching walruses. Hunting this aquatic mammal brought him so far to the east that he touched the ninetieth degree east longitude—that is, as far as Cape Taimyr. On this voyage, which was made in open sea, he discovered, at long. 86° E., lat. 77° 35′ N.—that is, north of the most northern point of Nova Zembla, which is situated a little south of the seventy-seventh degree—an island about seventeen miles long, which he circumnavigated. It was considerably elevated at the west end and sloped gradually towards the east. Along the shore lay a large amount of driftwood. On the island and in the sea around it were seen the birds common to the Arctic regions, such as gulls, guillemots, etc., while these are known not to be found in the Kara Sea. Three bears were also seen, but ground-swells and fog prevented Mr. Johannesen from landing. On the southeast shore was found a considerable amount of ice, and here forty walruses were killed. The sea was very deep on the west and north sides, but quite shallow on the south and east sides, which made him think that the continent could not be far off. Leaving the island he sailed in a southeasterly direction to the ninetieth degree east longitude, and, the fog clearing away, he discovered land about twenty miles to the south, and this he is of the opinion must have been Cape Taimyr, the most northern point of Western Asia. There was no ice. This was on the 20th of August, and, finding no walruses, he returned.

—The two recently established German periodicals for English philology, *Englische Studien* and *Anglia*, show no signs of falling off. The first *Heft* of vol. ii. of the *Englische Studien* contains two articles—one grammatical, one literary, to which we desire to call especial attention. Dr. Witte discusses at length the pronoun in "Semi-Saxon," 1100–1250 A.D. His investigations are very thorough, and his statements clear and precise. They are based upon an almost exhaustive study of the literature of that period, and will be of decided service to all students of the history of our language. The literary article is of more general interest. Professor Caro, of Breslau, a well-known authority on matters pertaining to East-European history, occupies forty-four pages in treating of the "Historical Elements in Shakspere's Tempest and Winter's Tale." It would be impossible for us to give even a résumé of this long and interesting piece. Suffice it to say that the author endeavors to trace a likeness between these two dramas and certain events and personages in Lithuanian history of the fourteenth century, contending for the probability of the belief that the extensive intercourse between England and the Baltic countries during the fourteenth century, notably under Richard II. and Henry IV., gave rise to a semi-heroic or ballad literature in England, which was known to Shakspere, and to which he was indebted, in the author's words, for the *Anregung* to these two dramas. This theory, so far as it affects "A Winter's Tale," should be compared with the ingenious surmises of a late writer in the *Athenæum* (see the *Nation*, No. 631), who identifies "Sicilia" with Hungary. The *Anglia* offers an equally

long essay by J. Phelan, of Memphis, on the "Life and Plays of Philip Massinger," whose play of "The Picture," by the way, the *Athenæum* writer considers to have been drawn from the same source as the "Winter's Tale." Trautmann's article upon the metre of Layamon will be a welcome addition to our scanty and confused knowledge of a difficult point in the history of English verse The views held by Guest, Morley, Marsh, and Ellis are rejected, and an attempt made to point out a strong resemblance between Layamon's verse and the four-beat measure of Otfrid's "Krist." The article is extremely significant, as indicating the rapid progress made of late years in the comparative study of the history of metre. Wackernagel's theory, which is followed by Trautmann, and which bids fair to supplant the others, is that the four-beat measure both in Germany and in England was not derived from the pre-Christian alliterative verse, but from the rhythmical so-called Ambrosian hymns of the Latin Church.

THE WORSHIP OF JOHNSON.*

THERE are few more curious facts than the modern admiration for the great lexicographer. Authors who agree in nothing else agree in admiring him. To Macaulay he is the great man of letters and admirable for his love of literature. To Carlyle, he is the prophet who preached the gospel that a man should clear his mind of cant. To the mass of the public who follow the lead of fashion Johnson is a man to be admired, they hardly know why, but principally because he has left on record a greater number of good sayings which are at once intelligible and easy to be remembered than any writer of equal celebrity. Indeed, it may be doubted whether veneration for an author whose works every one praises and next to nobody reads has not a little exceeded the limits of good sense, and it may be suspected that if Johnson were restored to life there are few things which he would be more likely to attack than the cant of Johnsonism. If, for example, the excellent Dr. Hill, who publishes three hundred and odd pages to show that Johnson was free from every prejudice and never said a rude thing in his life, could meet the object of his idolatry, he would, we venture to say, provoke one of those rebuffs which offended the hearers by their rudeness and have charmed posterity by their humor. Still, if the Boswellism, which seems to be a disease to which adorers of Johnson are doomed to be victims, makes a good deal of what is written about him poor stuff, a work such as Mr. Leslie Stephen's, which concentrates into a couple of hundred pages the essence of Boswell's biography, is proof enough, were any proof needed, that Johnson still excites an affectionate admiration in the minds of the best critics of the day, and that, for once, the feeling of the ablest judges in the main agrees with the tone of popular sentiment.

But when it is admitted that the enthusiasm for Johnson is both genuine and widespread, the enquiry still remains, Why is it that Johnson receives the adoration of a generation which seems at first sight very unlike the generation which he ruled as a literary despot? There are many circumstances which appear likely to militate against his fame. He was not, his most ardent admirers must admit, a thinker of first-rate eminence. In no single field of thought did he display anything like the power which, for example, Burke, Hume, Butler, or Adam Smith has exhibited in the provinces of speculation to which they devoted their minds. It may be said without fear of contradiction that no speculative question of politics, of morals, or of metaphysics was either solved, or even dealt with in a masterly manner, by Johnson. If you compare his "Taxation no Tyranny" with Burke's speech on "Conciliation with America" you measure the whole difference between the talent of a party pamphleteer and the genius of a political philosopher. If, again, you compare Johnson's crude utilitarianism with the theory by which Bentham revolutionized English legislation, you perceive at a glance that the one was a man who could think out and express vigorously a passing thought, whilst the other was a thinker who could draw from the same thought conclusions which have influenced the whole tone of succeeding generations. If Johnson cannot claim the place of a leader of speculation, still less does he seem entitled to command the sympathy of the present age through holding views which have now received recognition. His form of Toryism is extinct. It is far more unlike the Conservatism of Lord Beaconsfield than the Whig doctrines current when George III. came to the throne. His religious views, again, though they may be described as those of a High-Churchman, are singularly unlike the doctrines held by persons who represent modern High-Churchmanship. It is difficult to conceive any friendly relation between Dr. Johnson and a Ritualist curate, and probably St Alban's would be about the last church in London in which the Doctor would care to worship. On the other hand, it is not easy at a first glance to see why a man who never omitted an opportunity of denouncing toleration should be the favorite hero of writers who, like Mr. Stephen, are devoted to free thinking and free speaking; nor why a teacher who held every sceptic a fool or a knave should meet not only with toleration but with keen sympathy from thinkers who are intellectually the descendants of Hume.

Yet the prevalent admiration for Johnson is, when the matter is carefully looked into, capable of satisfactory explanation. Half the people, it must be admitted, who think they admire Johnson, are in reality worshippers, if not of Boswell, yet at least of Boswell's work. The Dr. Johnson whom they admire is not the author of 'Rasselas' or the moralist of the *Rambler*, for it is probable that they have not read ten pages of 'Rasselas' and all but certain that they have not read a line of the *Rambler*. What Englishmen really admire is the great talker, who, according to Burke, was greater in conversation than in his writings, and greater in Boswell's reports than in his real conversations. The accident, in fact, that fortune made Johnson the subject of the best biography in the language is the secret of at least half his fame. The other half is accounted for, without in any way detracting from Johnson's infinite claims to respect, by circumstances which are, to a certain extent, independent of his intrinsic merits. The opinions or prejudices which he defended are not the opinions which are now entertained by any large class of Englishmen; but the tone of sentiment which Johnson inculcated is in many respects curiously suited to the taste of to-day. For an enthusiastic or revolutionary age Johnson and Johnson's sentiments have little or no attraction. The religious enthusiasm which, towards the close of the last century, stirred the spiritual life of Englishmen, had hardly less real affinity with the religious stoicism of Johnson than had the revolutionary fervor which convulsed the Continent. As long as men were influenced by sentiments of vehement religious or political zeal or hopefulness, so long the influence of moralists such as Johnson was held in abeyance; but though it is the custom to talk of the present age as one marked by sentiment or enthusiasm unknown to the coldness of the eighteenth century, such language is, as regards modern England at least, peculiarly unmeaning. The age appears to be one of movement, because, for different reasons which this is not the opportunity to examine, the power of resistance on the part of existing institutions or creeds is diminished, but there never was a time when there was less of revolutionary fervor. In truth, modern Englishmen are far nearer in sentiment to the men among whom Johnson reigned supreme than to either the religious or the irreligious enthusiasts who broke into the moral and intellectual repose in the midst of which Johnson's moral teaching flourished.

Add to this that, paradoxical as the statement appears, Johnson's moral tone has in some respects a close affinity to some forms of scepticism. He held that ours was a world where little was to be known and much was to be done, and assuming, as most Englishmen of his generation did, that there was a strong *primâ-facie* case in favor of received political and religious dogmas, this conviction that there was little to be known naturally led to the adoption of what may be called practical conservatism. Combine the same scepticism as to the possibility of certain knowledge with a different estimate of the weight to be given to the fact that a political or religious dogma is generally received as true, and you make a near approach to a form of scepticism which, though inconsistent with strong belief in political or theological theories, has yet considerable likeness to Johnson's speculative attitude, and may with great ease ally itself with that kind of conservatism which considers that you must take life as you find it, not whine over the inevitable, and generally make the best of a not very hopeful existence. Whenever such a condition of feeling predominates, at any rate among Englishmen, the practical moralist is sure to make his appearance and to receive even more than due attention. For the last twenty years English weekly papers and magazines have teemed with articles which, in one shape or another, deal with the conduct of life and the minor questions which social existence suggests. Every one of the writers who have filled the *Saturday Review* with their little moral saws, or have crammed the *Cornhill Magazine* with ethical padding, has been trying to do with more or less success the very thing in which Johnson—in conversation, at least—excelled the teachers both of his own time and of ours. There is hardly a page of Boswell's reports of the talk in which Johnson delighted that is not crammed with remarks which would make the fortune of any essayist who

* 'Samuel Johnson. By Leslie Stephen.' London: Macmillan & Co.; New York: Harper & Bros. 1878.
'Doctor Johnson, his Friends and his Critics. By S. B Hill, D. C.L.' London: Smith, Elder & Co. 1878.

could now produce them as his own. From the 'Lives of the Poets' may be cut out whole pages from which you might make "padding" for which the editor of any English magazine would now pay more guineas than Johnson received shillings. The age, in short, is a time in which men once more turn their thoughts away from abstract speculation towards the moral questions of every-day life, and in which, therefore, the greatest practical moralist who has ever written or talked in English receives his full and more than his full meed of sympathetic admiration.

RECENT NOVELS.*

APPLETON'S "Handy-Volume Series" goes on prosperously as to material. 'Mrs. Gainsborough's Diamonds' is a lively little story, with a good plot and an unexpected turn at the end, which does credit to Mr. Hawthorne's ingenuity. 'Antoinette' is the story of a girl's passionate freaks, which come near to ruin her life, and in this story also the interest is maintained to the end. 'Liquidated,' by Rudolph Lindau, has a certain hard actuality about it which makes one sure that it is founded on fact. Though not directly expressed, there is a shadow of Nemesis over the story of the prosperous men who, having already attained much, planned so confidently for the future, and, though hardly to be called presumptuous, seem to pay the penalty of what the ancients deemed presumption. 'The Seer' is the story of a young Russian whose life is poisoned by his possession of a form of second sight.' The not uncommon habit of evolving from a young face the same face when old, and the foreboding of early death for those whose faces cannot be put through this process, is carried much farther by Stacovitch, and becomes a fatal gift. These little books have one marked advantage—there is no room for padding. This is an enormous relief. Writers who could accomplish a clever trifle are ruined by the Procrustean necessity of filling a certain space, and we think the "genus irritabile" owe something to Mr. Appleton for his suggestion of variety in form.

'Sibyl Spencer' has a wholesome, old-fashioned atmosphere about it. It is well in these days to be reminded of the material and the influences that built up the country, and this book gives a sense of the steady resolves and the severe sacrifices that were needed to win freedom. An attractive sketch of General Brown and an imaginative outline of the high-toned, Federalist gentleman, a very well drawn Yankee private, and a deacon who is quite unlike Mrs. Stowe's deacons, furnish some of the material for the story, which is free from anachronisms (so far as we have observed), and of its kind good.

In 'A Story or Two from an Old Dutch Town' Mr. Robert Lowell has published three graceful and excellent tales, in which he has chosen his material from the rich but in our days little-used store of old Dutch life in New York. The first of them, Abram Van Zandt, reminds one of Hawthorne by its subject, and is the account of the hallucination of an old baker who had received in part payment of a debt a picture by Van der Velde, of the value of which he was ignorant, but in one corner of it was a figure which was an exact portrait of the old baker, who became possessed by the idea that the man in the picture was really himself; that, like Pythagoras, he had come into the world again, and that he was destined to live the same life he had led before, and die by hanging himself. The description of the gradually increasing hold of this fancy over his mind, until he became practically insane, and was in danger of executing what he conceived to be his fate, is very graphically told, and by the way we get charming glimpses of homely, human life, and many characteristic sketches. The second tale is of the marriage and widowhood of Mr. Schermerhorn, and is the longest and most powerful, as it is also the most pathetic, giving, indeed, too much unrelieved pain of sympathy. The last tale is a sketch of social life in the earlier days of the colony, and many readers, we fear, will find the old Dutch much more exasperating than any of the Scotch dialect ever was, although the author frequently translates it for the benefit of those who do not know enough German to guess at the meaning. All are excellent in workmanship, simple and direct pictures of humble life, represented with strength and tenderness, and the author by his "Foreword" and "Farewell" speaks to his readers like a friend.

To enjoy 'The White Horse of Wooton' one must feel a considerable interest in the turf, for it is full of horses' genealogies, races of all sorts, praises of good riding, and like matters. Gypsies, Indians, Western frontiersmen, and various scoundrels give it the sort of adventure which harmonizes with its main subject, but the truthfulness of the delineation of jockey squires and noblemen, as well as that of the noble Cheyennes, appears to us doubtful, although we have no great acquaintance with either class. Its descriptions of prairie scenery are powerful, but it is to be classed rather as a boy's book than as a novel.

'In Paradise' is a somewhat misleading title to English ears, and even a hardened novel-reader feels a slight disappointment in finding that it means no past or future "golden year," but a sort of tavern with adjuncts of beer-garden, dancing-hall, etc., in the suburbs of Munich. The story is a recital of the fortunes and misfortunes, hopes, failures, and successes, of a knot of German artists; and woven in with their personal adventures is much theorizing as to love and marriage, and the greater freedom which should be conceded to sincere sentiments. We will try to follow one thread of this web. Herr Jansen, a sculptor who conceives and executes ideal figures, but who makes his living by the perpetual manufacture of little painted and gilded figures of saints, opens the book with a sitting in his studio from a little red-haired girl known as "Red Zenz," when he receives a visit from a most intimate friend, Felix von Weiblingen. They have not met for ten years or so, and Felix recounts "the history of his heart" while the model is waiting. An engagement broken by the lady on account of wrongdoing on his part is the amount of the history, and then the two gentlemen go together to the Pinakothek, where they meet their friends, also artists, and see a beautiful stranger. One of the company, an eccentric old maid, called Angelica, follows the lady home, and implores her to sit to her for her portrait. The lady consents, and as Angelica's studio is in the same building with Jansen's, the necessary proximity is established. Jansen meets the beauty, Julie S., at Angelica's studio, falls in love with her, and, in the midst of its fervent expression, suddenly tears himself from her, hoarsely calls himself an unhappy wretch, and rushes away. Presently Julie receives an anonymous letter, telling her that Jansen has a wife and child living. She sends for Jansen to come to her. He tells the story of his having married an actress, who proved a most profligate woman, with whom, after much torture, he refuses to live, and he takes their child to live under his care. Julie listens to all this, and then tells him that it shall make no difference, that there must be a year's engagement under conditions which she fixes, that she should like to make his child's acquaintance, and that she will marry him without reference to his other wife. In the course of the appointed year Jansen's wife makes an attempt to steal the child. There is a most intricate scene at a masquerade, which is hopeless to disentangle. Jansen's dog is stabbed, as is implied, by his wife's contrivance; Julie rescues the child; and after the revelation by Felix of a disgusting adventure (which has been the cause of breaking his engagement), Julie invites Jansen to pass the evening with her. When he arrives he finds his friends among the guests and sundry festal preparations. Julie, in a white dress, leads him into the middle of the room, and with a short speech, partly addressed to the company and partly to Jansen, marries him to herself, and after supper they set off for Italy. We have here traced out this story because it is rather the central affair of the book; but other affairs are manifold. In fact, we believe all the gentlemen have either intricate love-affairs which are carried to completion, or they discover among the personages of the book their illegitimate children, whom they publicly adopt and make much of. There is a good deal of criticism on acting and on painting. In fact, we suspect the book is partly intended as a sort of modern 'Wilhelm Meister,' to which it has one striking likeness—the complete discharge of the moral element from the atmosphere.

We are not sure but that almost enough has been said about Henry Gréville's books. There seem no dissentient voices in the chorus of praise and we have only to be thankful for the rapid succession of stories, each good in its own way. If any of Madame Durand's readers have found her stories too uniformly cheerful we recommend to them 'Savéli's Expiation.' It is a true tragedy. Not an element is wanting. There is the insolent tyrant, provoker to wrath—the incarnation of irresponsible power; then the growing intolerance of wrong that rouses the oppressed to meet crime with crime; then the slow, inevitable process whereby the consequences of crime reach the criminal, and the innocent

* Appleton's New Handy-Volume Series: 1. 'Mrs. Gainsborough's Diamonds. By Julian Hawthorne.' 2. 'Antoinette. By André Theuriet.' 3. 'Liquidated; The Seer. By Rudolph Lindau.' New York: D. Appleton & Co.

'Sibyl Spencer. By James Kent.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

'A Story or Two from an Old Dutch Town. By Robert Lowell' Boston: Roberts Bros. 1878.

'The White Horse of Wooton: A Story of Love, Sport, and Adventure in the Midland Counties of England and on the Frontier of America. By Chas. J. Foster.' Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. 1878.

'In Paradise. From the German of Paul Heyse.' 2 vols. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

'Savéli's Expiation.' 'Sonia.' Translated from the French of Henry Gréville by Mary Neal Sherwood. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers.

suffer for the guilty. It is complete, and rouses in us a lively curiosity to know whether the story is a record of facts or a construction by the author. 'Sonia' is not as interesting as 'Savéli's Expiation,' but is a pleasanter book, with due variety in the characters, and a plot whose slight improbabilities do not interfere with its interest. 'Les Koumiassines' is the story of a high Russian family, with a light-headed and light-hearted master; a domineering, prejudiced, well-intending mistress; a charming daughter, and an adopted niece, whose poverty and friendlessness leave her to be a victim to her aunt's tyrannies, until, when they are pushed too far, the girl's spirit rises, she frees herself, and the dénoûment is all it should be. The young Countess Koumiassine is a charming creature, gay, loving, brave at need, and altogether fascinating. The only book of this series which we find objectionable is 'La Maison de Maurèze.' There is a good deal that is clever in the book, and the false conditions of the society described are certainly to be counted in extenuation; but what conjunction of morality and immorality can be more offensive than where the intrigue of the neglected wife is, when on the brink of discovery, concealed by the devotion and self-sacrifice first of her grown-up son and then of their eighteen-year-old daughter, whose girlish fancy had led her toward her mother's lover! One has a moral revolt from such virtues which amounts to disgust. The scene of this story is laid in France and makes the reader desire rather a continuance of Russian stories.

Octave Feuillet, perhaps best known on this side of the Atlantic by the adaptation of his "Romance of a Poor Young Man," is known in France as the author of a dozen novels and a host of plays, including specimens of that peculiarly French branch of literature, "Scènes" and "Proverbes." It has been noticed as one feature of his stories that the reader has, in them, the advantage of moving in "circles" that are, if not from a moral, certainly from a social point of view, of the most select. This marks him as belonging to a past generation. There is not only nothing in common, but much that is mutually repugnant between such a writer as Feuillet and the present realistic school of French novelists, who not only insist on painting life exactly as it is, but on looking at it from its most material side. In such a book as 'Le Journal d'une Femme,' though it touches on delicate ground, there is in the style a refinement and in the story an appreciation of the finer things in life that speaks of an older literary world; it is pervaded by an atmosphere of chivalry and honor that is becoming less and less common in French literature, because perhaps, a hostile critic might say, it is becoming less and less common in France. The characters in the story are few in number; the interest turns upon the fate and character of the woman who tells it. Charlotte d'Erra, a young girl, some three years after she leaves the convent at which she has been educated, is invited by her friend Cécile de Stèle to pay her a visit at the country-place of her relatives, the Louvercys, where are staying two young men, between whose conflicting pretensions to her hand she finds it impossible to decide. She insists on having her friend's advice as to which of the two MM. de Valnesse she shall marry. At the château are, however, two other gentlemen—Roger de Louvercy, Cécile's cousin, who has been in the army and is terribly disfigured by his wounds, and his friend, M. d'Eblis, who has for him a romantic attachment of no ordinary character. Roger has been rendered morbid, almost insane, by his disfigurement, and cares for nothing in life. M. d'Eblis is a grave, fatherly sort of man, but attractive. Charlotte is romantic and serious by nature, Cécile light and gay, though not exactly frivolous. Roger falls in love with Charlotte, while Charlotte and M. d'Eblis fall in love with each other, and Cécile falls in love with M. d'Eblis. The latter finds that he must choose between his friendship and his love, and, sacrificing his love, tries to persuade himself that he cares for Cécile, while he leaves Charlotte to marry Roger. Charlotte, who knows nothing of the reason for the apparent change in his feelings for her, is thunderstruck at the news of the engagement of M. d'Eblis and Cécile, and at length, feeling that her happiness is blighted, marries Roger, to whom she is a devoted and faithful wife to the end. It is needless to say that the other marriage turns out unhappily. M. d'Eblis does not love his wife, and she soon learns the fact, and plunges into the vortex of fashion for a relief which she does not find. The four friends meet again, when there is an *éclaircissement* between Charlotte and M. d'Eblis, and she learns for the first time the cause of the apparent transfer of his affections from herself to Cécile. She now endeavors to do what she can for her friends' happiness by trying to induce both her and her husband to live for each other. But the task is hopeless. The unfortunate Cécile is doomed. Roger dies, and his widow receives from Cécile a letter which shows that the end has come, and is followed by the appearance of the writer in person, who has fled from her home. She commits suicide, and this event is immediately succeeded by the arrival of the husband. An ordinary novelist would now only end the tale in one way. Both obstacles are out of the way, and there is no reason why Charlotte and M. d'Eblis should not be married. But M. Feuillet is not an ordinary novelist. M. d'Eblis is a romantic man, and not knowing the cause of Cécile's flight and suicide feels that he has been wrong in his treatment of her, and that the best way of proving his profound regard for, and devotion to, Charlotte, and respect for the memory of her dead friend, is to refuse even to suggest a revival of their early attachment. The widow of Roger has it in her power to destroy his remorse for his treatment of Cécile by telling him of what really led to her death; but she also has too much nobility of soul to betray her friend's memory. Accordingly, the story ends by a parting which is final. It will be seen that there is very little incident in it. It is almost altogether a novel of sentiment; but, told with that amazing cleverness of which M. Feuillet is a master, the play of passion and feeling furnishes as much or more interest than the most exciting plot. We take it for granted that it will be translated, but it needs no ordinary hand to do it as it should be done.

'Le Journal d'une Femme. Par Octave Feuillet, de l'Académie française.' Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.

Fac-similes of Thirty-three Etchings by Turner for the Plates of the Liber Studiorum, reproduced from copies in the possession of Mr. Ruskin and the Editor. (Cambridge: Edited and published by Charles Eliot Norton. 1878.)—There are some of our readers who themselves have made drawings of buildings, of boats and shipping, of vases and works of art, and even of landscape details, in a simple way, by means of pencil or pen lines covered with slight washes of color. It is a quick and easy process, by which the student preserves memoranda of facts, and the more accomplished artist his fleeting impressions. The line-work is not limited to mere "outline"; indeed, no person who is at work with any serious purpose knows what you mean by "outline," for the bounding line of the object, that which separates the surface it occupies on the paper or canvas from other surfaces, is of no greater importance or prominence than other lines within. Those which are the chief lines, the lines of essential form or character, are drawn with pencil or pen; a scratch or two here and there marks intense or abrupt shade or shadow; then the tint of sepia or india-ink or color is put on, and its gradation is more or less subtile and refined as the workman is more or less skilful and more or less careful—but, in general, the white paper is left untouched for the highest light. This way of work is simple and within reach of moderate skill, but also it is capable of considerable development, and some excellent water-color work has come of carrying it out to a legitimate result.

The landscape and architectural designs of Turner's 'Liber Studiorum' are conceived on a similar plan. Most of the more prominent parts of the composition are drawn in firm and decided lines, and then the whole picture is drawn over and about them in very delicate and elaborate gradations of warm brown; the strong lines showing through the tint-work, and the deepest shades being expressed by means of them, while the highest lights are simply untouched white paper. The processes used are two. First the line-work, which would be done with pencil or pen on paper, is done on the copper by the etching-needle and the acid bath. That is to say, the artist has made an etching of the strong lines of his composition, not seeking to make this etching a complete design in itself, but frankly leaving out all that part of the future picture for which strong lines were not needed. A few prints were taken from the copper-plates while they still remained in this condition, with only the etched lines upon them. The second process is the familiar and especially English art of mezzotint: the whole surface of the copper is roughened with a roller made for the purpose, so that it would print off a solid dark tint if inked and applied to paper, and then this roughened surface is lowered and scraped and smoothed more or less, the lightest parts being so much lowered that they make no impression whatever upon the paper, which accordingly remains white where they come. When a print is taken from such a finished plate, in some brown tint, as is always the case in the series we are considering, the picture generally is seen in delicate gradations without any lines whatever; clouds, for instance, and distant white sails being expressed wholly by the gradations of the mezzotint (or by *aquatint*, which it is not necessary to dwell upon at present), while the serrated edges or gullied flanks of mountains, and the firm lines needed to express architectural forms, are seen amid the gradations of

shade, and reinforce and explain them. The result is so excellent that it is rather surprising (as Mr. Hamerton has said) that so little has been done in the same way. One of the first of living etchers, Mr. Francis Seymour Haden, has undertaken a similar task, and on a very large scale. Some of our readers have seen and enjoyed his huge etching of Calais Pier, of which only one hundred copies have been published; the plate is now in the hands of the engraver, and will come out an elaborate mezzotint, the etching being only the preliminary state.

Now, it is just this preliminary state of some of the 'Liber Studiorum' prints which is reproduced in the work whose title is given above. A few copies, as has been said, were printed from each plate before the mezzotint was applied to it; of these few copies some are very feeble and poor, probably because no great care was taken in printing them. But Mr. Norton and Mr. Ruskin have brought together fine and clear impressions of thirty-three out of the ninety, published and unpublished, and very good heliotype reproductions of them have been made by a Boston house, which, together with a brief descriptive and critical comment by Mr. Norton, constitute the publication. These prints are not finished pictures, nor even finished line-drawings; their chief value is in containing so much of the essential lines of mountain-form and of tree-growth and of ships and boats. It would be difficult to find elsewhere such consummate knowledge and insight set down so skilfully. As lessons in landscape-drawing and in judging of landscape art, their value is hard to overestimate. Every person who seriously inclines to the study of landscape, practically or critically, should become familiar with them, so much is given in so little. It is, we think, to be regretted that Mr. Norton has not given a fuller description and analysis of the prints. The reader is referred, however, to the catalogue of the whole work, prepared by the same editor some three years ago; and that catalogue again refers to Mr. Ruskin's works for fuller discussion. But what one would like to have is Mr. Norton's critical analysis of the whole set of seventy-one published and some twenty unpublished plates, with especial reference to the etchings, and to the thirty-three plates of which the etchings are given in this publication.

The Ceramic Art. A Compendium of the History and Manufacture of Pottery and Porcelain. By Jennie J. Young. With 464 illustrations. (New York: Harper & Bros. 1878.)—Nearly a year ago (*Nation*, No. 651) we had occasion to notice in one article a whole shelf-full of books on pottery and porcelain. If the book named above had been among them it would have been easy to compare it with others, and, in little space, to convey to our readers an idea of its character and of the place it fills in the technical library of the collector or student. For it is hard to keep the run of the numerous books on ceramics that come into the market, French, English, and Yankee, now that the passion for collecting ceramics has spread beyond a small circle of wealthy people or professed lovers of decorative art, and has become common to half the community. But there is one thing in which our authoress can claim decided originality: everybody will be able to recognize her book as the one work on the subject which has nothing whatever to do with "marks." In the preface a few sensible words give the reasons for this startling novelty. Our need of a really complete, or approximately complete, manual of marks on pottery, a work which shall contain the explorations and conclusions of a lifetime, and which shall be about equally good in all departments, remains as decided as we thought it a year ago; but until that thorough book shall be got ready we can well dispense with any more slight partial treatises, and it is to be hoped that Miss Young's commendable boldness will not interfere with the sale of her book. Of the many wood-cuts some are evidently not original, but belonging to other books on kindred subjects issued by the same publishers; the majority are, we think, expressly made for this book, and many of them are very good. It is decidedly novel and interesting that so many of them are made from vases and bowls and dishes in the possession of American collectors. To a certain extent Mr. Elliott's book, reviewed in the *Nation* last year, was illustrated in the same way, and Mr. Prime's well-known treatise, which also came under our notice at that time, gives a few pictures from the Trumbull-Prime and other American cabinets; but in Miss Young's book the greater number seem to be taken direct from the museums of Boston and New York and from the collections of well-known citizens of those cities. The owner's name is given in full in all these cases, which makes it the more noticeable that the pictures drawn from European books on the subject are not generally credited to their sources.

The book itself is a very readable and interesting essay rather than a hand-book for ready reference; or, with greater accuracy, it is a collection of essays, of which those on Chinese wares, on Japanese pottery and porcelain, and on the factories and fabrications of the United States, contain a great deal that is original, and are fresh and entertaining and instructive. American collectors have always taken to the art-manufactures of the extreme Orient, and have done well in this, both because of the surpassing interest and value of these wares in the most important respect (for no European work except that of Italy at the time of the Renaissance can compare with them for artistic value), and because we have here a so much better opportunity to see them in quantity and to purchase with discrimination. And as for the American potters and potteries, we know of no such paper on that interesting subject anywhere else, so that, unless serious errors should be found in it, it will stand as a very important feature of the book. In short, while this prettily printed and prettily illustrated octavo is neither a complete history nor a thorough treatise, and does not appear to be the work of a trained student of the subject, it is worthy of a place on the shelves even of a connoisseur.

The Parks and Gardens of Paris. Considered in relation to the Wants of other Cities and of Public and Private Gardens. Being Notes on a Study of Paris Gardens, by W. Robinson, F.L.S. Second edition revised, seventh thousand. Illustrated. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1878.)—The original work of Mr. Robinson on the Parks of Paris was the first and most important of a series which have contributed a great deal to popularize art in gardening. In his eagerness to attack certain entrenchments of vulgarity and bad taste, the author sometimes advances notions which represent incomplete study and have even a viciousness of their own. But if in this respect he manifests the characteristic precipitancy and presumption, in others he shows the sincerity, ardor, and eloquence, of a true reformer, and it must be conceded that no man's work in our time has done more to advance the standard of criticism in his chosen field. The second edition presents valuable revisions of the original text, and so large an amount of wholly new matter that it may be questioned whether it might not more justly have been published in a small volume as a supplement to the first. Half of it is given to fruit-culture and market-gardening, and in these departments the latest advances of French horticulture are admirably described. There is a large addition to the engravings of the first edition and a marked improvement in their quality.

Concerning the recent progress of the gardening works of Paris, Mr. Robinson observes:

"Many people are apt to connect city improvements with autocratic government. One has only to speak of our backwardness to be reminded that it is all owing to our not being blessed with a Napoleon. The best comment upon such a suggestion is that since the establishment of the Republic in France improvements calculated to produce the best effects on the beauty and salubrity of Paris have been carried out more vigorously than before, with this difference—that they are done more economically."

For us this statement will be more complete if the fact is added that through all the vicissitudes of the war, the Commune, and the Republic, the organization of the force by which the works referred to have been carried on has remained essentially unbroken, the only important changes occurring in the large corps employed being the results of death, resignation, or promotion. M. Alphand, the chief executive officer in charge under M. Haussmann, was, because of the merit of certain provincial works which he had controlled, first brought to Paris by Napoleon III. Instead of being driven out of office with his patron, he has only been advanced by the several succeeding administrations to higher, more secure, and better paid positions. The gain in economy to which Mr. Robinson refers is the result, however, not only of the larger experience and closer study of the chief and his immediate staff, but of the steady, continued enforcement of good discipline and thorough drill in the entire force. Of the first year's work in the transplanting of large trees scarcely one-half flourished. Since then there has been a constant improvement, partly because of the gain in skill of the officers, but mainly because their instructions are carried out with more painstaking exactness. Of recent large plantings scarcely one tree in a hundred fails. So firmly is the reverse of our American policy established in the minds of French republicans that a considerable part of the work at the municipal propagating establishment of La Muette, which ordinarily sends out a million plants a year, is done by young men who at first receive no pay, and whose wages afterward are regulated by the character for skill and

industry which they attain. They are not only assiduously instructed and practised in manual operations, but lectures are given to them by the officers of the corps, and a library of horticultural works is maintained for their benefit.

Mr. Robinson's impatience with the occasional rude work of the engineer and the impertinent work of the architect and florist, which is so often presented in bold discord with the general landscape design of the French parks, and his explanation of the manner in which it has occurred, is natural and just, and by itself would not need the slight apology offered in his introduction. It would, however, have greater weight with the ordinary reader if the policy of holding some one capable director responsible for the strict subordination of all the details of every park to a comprehensive, leading purpose, and protecting this responsibility from intruders of other professions, had his consistent advocacy. Unfortunately, in dealing with gardens, the leading purpose of which should be the advancement of science, he takes quite other grounds.

It is perhaps to be regretted that both at Kew and at Paris it has been undertaken, not simply to open the national botanic gardens as museums, libraries, and laboratories of science may properly be opened to the public, under regulations guarding their main purpose, but to combine with that purpose another wholly distinct—namely, that simply of recreation. But this policy was established long ago, and much now found in the gardens is either inherited or adapted to inheritances from the last century. To complain that the present grounds are not as pleasant as possible; that they do not render the scientific service that they otherwise might; that they are not laid out and planted in accordance with the principles of landscape gardening; that the public is not allowed to use them as freely as it is allowed to use the parks, and to heap all the blame which can thus be accumulated upon their present management, is plainly absurd. There could not be a worse way out of the muddle into which, through ambiguity of purpose, they have drifted, than that of balancing the advice of landscape-gardeners, florists, editors, and owners of lands and buildings adjoining the gardens against that of their world-revered, responsible scientific directors. The legislative mind being everywhere prone to such a course in dealing with questions of art and science, it must be said that if Mr. Robinson is, as we believe, a man of too liberal mind to advocate it intentionally, his observations on the subject are unguarded and likely sadly to mislead many readers.

Nevertheless the book must be heartily praised, and as this second edition will, from its price, otherwise fail to be seen by many of those who most need to be instructed by it, we particularly recommend it to public libraries.

Die Vereinigten Staaten von Nord-Amerika. Von Dr. Friedrich Ratzel, Professor der Erdkunde an der technischen Hochschule zu München. Erster Band. Physikalische Geographie und Naturcharakter. Mit 12 Holzschnitten und 5 Karten in Farbendruck. (München: R. Oldenbourg; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1878. Royal 8vo, pp. xv. 667.)—This is a beautiful volume, well printed, with large, clear type, on fine paper, and with neatly-executed maps. Altogether it is a good piece of work, and one which will be useful to Americans as well as to Germans and others who are in the habit of adding to their stock of knowledge through the medium of the German language. There is no such book in English, nor is there likely to be, for—and it is not agreeable to have to say it—no publisher in this country would be willing to take the responsibility of issuing a work like this, which is not a school-book, and not one that is likely to be read by the general public. There have been published in this country memoirs on some of the special subjects embraced in Dr. Ratzel's book, mostly issued by the Smithsonian Institution, or in the form of official State and United States documents; but there is no one work in English in which the most important facts appertaining to our general and physical geography are brought together. This is a kind of labor in which the Germans excel, and the work before us is certainly a fine specimen of the kind. It is not entirely free from errors, and this is hardly to be expected; but it is surprising with what skill Dr. Ratzel has worked out the main facts from the enormous mass of material he has been obliged to overhaul in the preparation of a volume which professes to give the reader a pretty complete synopsis of the physical features and climatology of an area of between three and four millions of square miles. The author appears to have prepared himself for the task by two or more years of travel in this country as a "special correspondent" of the Cologne *Gazette*, and he was aided and encouraged by Dr. Moritz Wagner, the veteran traveller, whose researches have extended to every quarter of the globe, and who is especially and most favorably known in this country by his investigations in Central America.

Dr. Ratzel's work is divided into two parts, the first of which is called general; the second, descriptive. The latter portion is of much the least importance, being a series of thirty word-pictures of American scenery, with such titles as these: "Autumnal Coloring of the American Landscape"; "The Pine Barrens"; "Niagara"; "The Yosemite Valley," etc. This part, however, occupies only a little more than 200 of the 667 pages which the volume contains. In these descriptive sketches Dr. Ratzel gives us the impressions made on his own mind by some of the prominent scenic features of the country, quoting freely at the same time from American authors, such as Fenimore Cooper, Thoreau, and Wilson Flagg.

The most valuable part of Dr. Ratzel's volume is the so-called "Allgemeine Theil," divided into seven sections, as follows: I. Boundaries and Outline; II. Geological Structure; III. Topography (*Oberflächengestaltung*); IV. Rivers and Lakes; V. Climate; VI. Flora; VII. Fauna. Of these sections the geological is decidedly the weakest, as also luckily the shortest. A reduced copy of the geological map of the United States given in Walker's Statistical Atlas accompanies this chapter. Apropos of this map, it may be said that while the breadth of the geological features of the eastern half of our territory allows some idea of the distribution of the formations to be given on even quite a small scale, the complication of the structure in the region west of the 104th meridian entirely forbids this, so that all the general geological maps of the United States yet published are entirely worthless so far as their western half is concerned. Dr. Ratzel is led into some serious errors in regard to the geology of the country; as, for instance, when he speaks (page 285) of the petroleum of Western Pennsylvania being found in synclinal basins, and of its being sought for with success especially in regions where the strata are much disturbed. For such statements as these: that the currents of the glacial epoch ran through the Mammoth Cave (page 286), and that the Dalles of the Columbia River were formed by the slipping down of the overhanging cliffs (page 297), the authors quoted are responsible. In regard to sections iii. to vii. of this division of Dr. Ratzel's book we have no words but those of praise, since they seem to have been compiled from the best authorities with the utmost care and with a clear understanding of the nature of the problems involved. The chapter on climate offers decidedly the best *résumé* of the subject which has yet been furnished. Entire freedom from errors is not, of course, to be expected, and there are points in regard to which legitimate differences of opinion exist, so that some persons might side with Dr. Ratzel's views and others not; while there are also questions not yet settled for want of the necessary data. In such cases completed statements or undisputed theoretical conclusions should not be looked for.

Dr. Ratzel proposes to supplement his volume by issuing another, to be devoted to the political and social characteristics of our country, with full statistics of all matters therewith connected. This will be a difficult task—decidedly more so than the one completed in the volume already issued. We wish the author all success in it.

Neuhebräisches und chaldäisches Wörterbuch über die Talmudim und Midraschim. Von Rabbiner Dr. J. Levy. Nebst Beiträgen von Professor Dr. H. L. Fleischer. Instalments I.–IX. (Vol. I. and part of Vol. II.) (Leipsic. 1875–8.)—Let the reader imagine the English language to embrace, in proportion to its stock of common words derived from the Anglo-Saxon or Norman-French, three times as many words as it really contains, of the following character: *abatis, abbé, abele, abracadabra, abscissa, acatalectic, acclivous, adagio, adiaphora, adobe, adscititious, ædile, æon, alexipharmic, alibi, allegro, amphibology, andante, à propos*, etc.; let him imagine it to swarm with such legal terms as *cestuy que trust, cestuy que use, chose in action, quo warranto, replevin*, or *seizin*, and to include a vast number of words and names the reading and value of which are still matters of conjecture; let him imagine that an etymological dictionary of such a language is to be compiled, after a few very incomplete and imperfect models, from a large number of exceedingly obscure books, without order or index, and teeming with inaccuracies; let him imagine all this, and he may have an approximate idea of what it means to compose an etymological lexicon of that compound of Hebrew, Chaldee, Syriac, and strange derivatives from the Arabic, Persian, Greek, Latin, and other tongues, which forms the idiom of the Talmud and Midrash.

We cannot but admit the energy and diligence with which Dr. J.

Levy is proceeding in the execution of this extraordinary task, and we cannot but acknowledge that every student and friend of the post-Biblical literature of the Jews will owe him a debt of gratitude. What renders his task easier is, in the first place, his own former lexicographical achievement, the "Dictionary of the Targumim" (2 vols., 1867–8), and, in the second, the co-operation, by way of supplementary correction, of one of the greatest orientalists of this century, Dr. Fleischer. The *Nachträge* of the latter appear at the end of each two or three letters, and, although very often plainly overthrowing the statements of the main text, are given without any further remark on the points in question, as embodying philological decisions from which there is no appeal. This supplementary work of Dr. Fleischer is of a very high order, and it renders a critique of the lexicon almost superfluous. The acknowledgment he bestows on it by his revision is sufficient to mark it as an attempt worthy of the subject, and the many hundreds of corrections which he introduces show how far the execution is from being entirely satisfactory. That Dr. Fleischer has not minutely examined every doubtful point, and not exhausted the work of emendation which the book required, need hardly be stated.

Dr. Levy's dictionary is rendered doubly instructive by its copious and often extensive quotations from the books which it is to explain as a vocabulary. He dives into "the sea of the Talmud" and gathers flowers from the "blooming fields" of the Midrash, to use the words of the preface, with the fondness of a devotee. And though he cannot avoid bringing up pebbles with pearls, and picking straw with violets, the collections obtained are valuable. The proper names chiefly contain much that is curious or interesting, both in quotations and statements by the author. Thus, under "Iyyob" ("Job"), we find such varied Talmudical statements as "Job lived in the time of Moses"; "Job lived in the time of Abraham"; "Job lived in the time of Jacob, whose daughter Dinah was his wife"; "Job never existed, he is a fiction"; "Job said to the Lord, Perhaps, a tempest passing before thee, thou mistookest Iyyob for Oyeb (enemy)," and the Lord answered, "I never mistake one hair-pit for another, and should I mistake Iyyob for Oyeb?" Under "Hillel," among many statements of interest, we read that bold enunciation of one of the younger rabbis of that name: "There is no Messiah (to be expected) for Israel; the Messiah was eaten up (the prophecies concerning him were fulfilled) in the time of Hezekiah." Too much space is often occupied by such extracts, which are given both in the original and in translation, with explanatory insertions; and to this waste of space is probably owing a part of the hundreds of abbreviations of titles and single words, which, together with the author's rather slovenly way of constructing and punctuating his sentences, renders the reading of almost every paragraph in the book a difficult task to all but those fully familiar with the literature and the idioms to which it is devoted. Dilettanti in Semitic studies will do well to leave it alone. Hebraists and libraries for the learned cannot afford to be without it.

Lectures on Mediæval Church History. Being the substance of lectures delivered at Queen's College, London. By Richard Chenevix Trench, D.D., Archbishop of Dublin. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1878. 8vo, pp. 444.)—These lectures were delivered several years ago to a class of girls in London, but are published now with considerable alterations, such as the advance of knowledge and the changes in the estimate of persons and things seemed to require. The treatment is therefore popular, but the author protests in his preface against any notion that it is necessary "to break the bread of knowledge smaller for young women than for young men." It is popular in the sense that it is intended not for special students in what is in reality almost a professional branch of study, but for general readers—those who desire to know something of the history of the Church in order better to understand the contemporary events of secular history.

For this class we do not know of any other book that does this work so well. Not that it might not be done better. The author is not remarkable either for power of statement or the historical sense; he is sometimes prosy, sometimes lacks point; but, without being a distinguished authority in this field, he still possesses sufficient scholarship, he has good sense and good judgment, and has put together in a compendious and agreeable form what it is most desirable that general readers should know upon this subject. The work is very well laid out, the twenty-nine lectures being topical rather than chronological; following, of course, chronological sequence in the main, but not so precisely but that the lecture upon Wyclif follows that upon the Councils, and that upon the German Mystics comes still later. The opening lectures are the least satisfactory. They are general in their nature, and the author's strength does not lie in broad general views, but rather in the treatment of individual topics and characters. Even here, however, there is a certain vagueness and want of particularity which often impairs the effectiveness of treatment. We are told about things rather than shown them. Thus, in Lecture II. ("The Middle Ages Beginning") much is said of Gregory the Great as being a great statesman and organizer, and the real founder of the papal power. The fact is a familiar and important one; but what the reader wants to know is, What did Gregory do that made his pontificate such an epoch in the history of the Church and the world? And to this we find no clear answer; the man and his work are not made distinct to us. With later characters—Innocent III., for example—this defect is less felt; much of the work is indeed wholly free from it, and some passages strongly marked by the opposite excellence. A good example of a narrative made effective by well-chosen detail is found in the account of the Iconoclastic controversy; when we are told (p. 93) that these images "were not sculptures or statues, for these the Greek Church has never allowed, but colored portraitures on a plane surface, or, more rarely, mosaics," we have a kind of statement which lends vividness to the story and tells us something worth knowing.

The class of topics handled best are the theological ones—the lectures upon philosophical systems and controversies; and next to these, those which treat of the great period of the papacy in the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries. The judgment passed upon the papacy in its glory is just and discriminating; the author does full justice to the genius and the lofty character of men like Gregory VII. and Innocent III., while insisting upon the falseness of their position and what was false in their aims. But he is not so ready to see any limitations in the greatness and single-mindedness of St. Boniface, attributing the recent German criticisms upon the spirit and methods of this missionary to some "other interests than those of historic truth" (p. 69).

Besides the lack of point, which we find to be his principal fault, there is here and there a lack of exactness in expression, as in the statement (p. 20) that "the Asiatic cities, such as Antioch and Ephesus, . . . had been thoroughly hellenized—this was one of the fruits of Alexander's conquests." Now, the fact in question is an important one, but the illustrations are unfortunately chosen, for Antioch and Ephesus were not "hellenized," but hellenic from the start; and Antioch did not exist until some time after Alexander. On page 17 the date of Gregory VII. is given as 1050 instead of 1073. On page 355 Eckart is put three hundred years after Erigena instead of five hundred. On the whole these lectures may be recommended as giving the general reader an accurate, compendious, and interesting sketch of their subject.

Wordsworth. A Biographic, Æsthetic Study. By George H. Calvert. (Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1878.)—We fear that Wordsworth's works are now read with thoroughness by very few among the younger generation, and that they are yearly contracting into the narrow compass of "selected poems." The reaction against him is violent enough to need all the countervailing influences his admirers can bring to bear. In this view Mr. Calvert's eulogy is a welcome book, for it shows how strongly the poet has won the admiration of some; and although the little volume does not biographically make plain the human life of Wordsworth and his friends with any vividness of portraiture, and although it does not, æsthetically, make clear the specific qualities for which Wordsworth is admirable, nor the portions of his work which they make valuable, still one who knows nothing of Wordsworth will get from the book some idea of the places he lived in, the journeys he made, and the sources of his income; and one who knows nothing of his works will find some of the finest lines and stanzas quoted by the way. The style is somewhat turgid, labored, and inexact, of which a good example is the description of Homer as "the dear, sensuous, gigantic, luminous, young pagan." On the whole, the book is not to be commended except as an attempt to restore to Wordsworth his rightful place in literature, to interest readers in him, and possibly get them to read for themselves.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Bell (J. D.), The Great Slighted Fortune	(T. Y. Crowell)	$1 50
Black (W.), Macleod of Dare: a Tale	(Harper & Bros.)	1 50
Blunt (Rev. J. H.), The Annotated Bible: Genesis to Esther	(Rivingtons)	
Boswell (J.), Life of Samuel Johnson, abridged	(Henry Holt & Co.)	2 00
Coates (H. T.), Fireside Encyclopædia of Poetry	(Porter & Coates)	5 00
Confessions of St. Augustine	(Rivingtons)	
Draper (Dr. J. W.), Scientific Memoirs	(Harper & Bros.)	
Duffield (Mrs. W.), Art of Flower-Painting	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	50

Falke (J. von), Art in the House	(L. Prang & Co.)	$15 00
Fothergill (Jessie), The First Violin	(Henry Holt & Co.)	1 00
Fra Angelico	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	50
Goodale (Elaine and Dora R.), Apple-Blossoms: Poems	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 25
Green (Anna K.), The Leavenworth Case: a Tale	" " "	1 50
Leonardo da Vinci	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	50
Miles (Dr. M.), Stock-breeding	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Mother Goose's Melodies, illustrated	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	3 00
Murphy (F.), Gospel Temperance Hymnal	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)	50
Petit (A. V.), How to Read	(S. R. Wells & Co.)	1 00
Pitou (C.), Practical Treatise on China Painting, with Album of Plates	(John Wiley & Son)	1 50
Proctor (R. A.), Pleasant Ways in Science	(R. Worthington)	3 50
Putnam (Rev. G.), Sermons	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	1 75
Rice (H.), Select Poems	(Lee & Shepard)	$1 50
Richardson (C. F.) and Clark (H. A.), The College Book	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	15 00
Shelley (P. B.), Minor Poems	(Little, Brown & Co.)	
Shillaber (B. P.), Ike Partington	(Lee & Shepard)	1 25
Sprague (H. B.), Six Selections from Irving's Sketch-book	(Ginn & Heath)	
Milton's Lycidas, swd	" "	
Theuriet (A.), Raymonde: a Tale, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.)	30
Toplady (A. M.), Rock of Ages	(Lee & Shepard)	1 50
Walford (E.), Old and New London, Vol. 6 and last	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin)	
Wheeler (H. N.), Elements of Plane Trigonometry	(Ginn & Heath)	
Whitney (Mrs. A. D. T.), Just How: a Key to the Cook-books	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)	1 00
Wilson (A.), Sketches of Animal Life and Habits	(R. Worthington)	
Young (Jennie J.), The Ceramic Art	(Harper & Bros.)	

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 28, 1878.

The Week.

THERE are fuller details about the election frauds in South Carolina, which seem to have been very brazen and to have involved two tricks, one by which the small tissue-paper ballots were dropped into the box, and the other by which, when the excess of the number of ballots over the number of voters in the district was revealed by the count, and the ballots were put back into the box to have the excess withdrawn as the law directs, the Republican tickets were dexterously placed on the top so as to come out first. These are frauds, in fact, which would not be perpetrated on any party that was not considered too helpless and stupid to protect itself, which is what the Republican party in South Carolina is, being composed in the main of ignorant negroes led by a few disreputable adventurers who cannot face their opponents with any moral courage. The contempt of the Democrats for them, too, is expressed in the recent legislation regarding the polling places and the hours of voting, which is a sort of advanced gerrymandering. The polling places were reduced in number in Charleston County, for instance, about one-third in the city and two-thirds in the county, so as to compel the voters, most of them poor men, to make journeys of from ten to forty miles in order to vote. In one parish the polling place on the mainland was abolished, and the votes had to be cast on an island with which there was no regular communication either by bridge or ferry. The time within which votes could be cast was also fixed at 720 minutes, and in some places one thousand votes would have to be cast at a single polling place, making the exclusion of a considerable number, of course, very easy.

These facts are brought out, as they should be, in a strong but temperate address to the Democrats of Charleston County by Mr. J. B. Campbell, a lawyer of Charleston, and himself one of the Democratic candidates, and the letter shows from what quarter the remedy is to come, and encourages us to hope that from that quarter it will come—that is, those whites of the State whom this performance disgusts, and who will not submit to it. Mr. Campbell is a man of high standing and an old Democrat, and was a candidate for re-election to the State Senate, but has been defeated. He now appeals to his brother Democrats in an angry and vigorous protest. He exposes and denounces the legislation regulating the voting, and the frauds by which it was followed up. He shows that the Democrats of the State are really divided into two parties—one favoring what is called "the Hampton policy," and the other "the aggressive policy," of which General Gary is the leading exponent, and which has got the upper hand in the party in Charleston County. The Hampton policy proposes the political coalition of the whites and blacks on equal terms and in good faith; the other the exclusion of the blacks either by force or fraud from all share in the government. The hope of the negroes lies in strengthening the Hampton men like Mr. Campbell, and giving them a real interest of ambition and pride in the negro vote, which after a while they will certainly protect. The way to ruin their cause is to force the two factions to unite in a common pride of race, and in common anxiety about their property, by indiscriminate Northern denunciation supported by a solid negro vote for disreputable "carpet-baggers" and "scalawags." One half-hour's indignation of a South-Carolinian of Mr. Campbell's kind is worth more to the negro than ten yards of Northern newspaper invective.

The difficulties the Federal Government will have to contend with in trying to settle election quarrels in Southern States, and the impossibility of forming a rational opinion on almost any incident of Southern political life, as reported in our papers, are well illustrated by a late article in the Charleston *News and Courier*, giving "the other side." In Barnwell County, in which it says there are two thousand negroes on the Democratic rolls, the United States Commissioner has been arresting colored Democrats, one of them, named Gantt, in his bed, pulling off "his only garment," and cursing and abusing him, accusing him—a small, timid man—of intimidating one Nix, "a powerful and desperate mulatto." Mr. Wiggin, too, the United States Commissioner who authorizes these arrests, and was elected circuit judge along with Moses and Whipper, privately assures the citizens that nothing more will be heard of the cases after election. In Darlington County the testimony showed there was "pleasantness at the election all day long," and the arrested persons were discharged. The story of trouble was got up by one Farborg, a United States marshal, who retracted on the stand, but, it is sad to hear, "will probably be sent to the penitentiary at the next term of the court for tobacco-stealing." In Richland County the false swearing of the witnesses was so plain that five were immediately lodged in jail for perjury, and the *Courier* exultantly contrasts with the calm and confident demeanor of the accused Democrats the conduct of the negro witnesses, "who seek the woods and swamps as soon as they find that false swearing can no longer be indulged in with impunity in South Carolina."

It is plain to be seen that there has been on one side a great deal of fraud and intimidation, and that the other side, in trying to punish it, is embarrassed terribly by the fact that its officers and witnesses are generally bad characters, and sometimes men for whom "at least one penitentiary is yawning," and that affidavits of intimidation can probably be had for a quart of whiskey the yard, and that the Democrats avail themselves of this fact to discredit *all* the witnesses and hunt them down. Also, that the confusion is worse confounded by the Northern press, which is working up the whole matter in preparation for the next election, with the aid of "reliable gentlemen" who forward harrowing tales "with the request that their names may not be revealed," which of course relieves the writers from some of the most inconvenient restraints on the composition of narratives.

Mr. Waddell, the Democratic candidate for Congress in the Third District of North Carolina, who was defeated by a small majority, has written a very creditable letter to his constituents, in which he refuses to contest the election on the ground of technical irregularities or because the case would be tried before a Democratic House. Inasmuch as he believes the election was practically fair and honest, he says he will not lend himself to any attempt to defeat the will of the majority expressed at the polls. This shows what has become a rare conscience in political affairs, and is also an indication that Southerners are not so destitute of political honor, or so reckless in the use of every means at hand for seizing control of national affairs, as some of our contemporaries would have us believe. It is a novel thing, and points to the beginning of a sort of republicanism which has never existed at the South, when a politician looks upon a majority, black or white, not as something to be "managed" in private or party interest, but as something which all good citizens must respect and aid as the final judge of what is for the public welfare.

Gen. Sheridan's recent strictures on the Indian Bureau, to whose irregularities he attributed the late Indian outbreaks, and the report of Gen. Gibbon, commanding the Department of Dakota, in which he stated that the check upon the frauds of Indian agents through army inspection was ineffectual, owing to defects in the system of responsibility in the Indian Bureau, have led Secretary Schurz to write a somewhat heated letter to the Secretary of War,

asking for the specific facts upon which Gen. Sheridan founded his statements, and commenting sharply on the discourtesy of such general criticism from officers of one department upon those of another. The letter was forwarded through the proper channels to Gen. Sheridan, and he will doubtless make an attempt to justify himself which it is not worth while to anticipate. Pending his reply, however, he has made public some earlier correspondence of a similar character and tone in regard to the recent removal of the Indian agency at Fort Sill. In a letter to the Secretary of War he charged that by the removal the Indian Bureau saved $100, and the War Department would lose $100,000; that the Indians were removed to a worse locality, and that in his belief (which Gen. Sherman endorsed) there had been deceit and improper motives at work in the transaction. Without prejudging the quarrel, there is force in General Sherman's observation that he and Gen. Sheridan are familiar with the country and the Indians and have better opportunities for correct judgment than the Secretary. On the other hand, they cannot be supposed to be familiar with all the reasons for the acts of the Bureau which they condemn. The common ground between the disputants is clearly this, that whatever frauds upon the Indians or deception of himself the army officers can prove, Secretary Schurz will gratefully acknowledge and promptly punish. Of this we may be sure. Meantime this passage between the two departments should arouse the public to the lamentable fate of the subjects of it, for ever left between the upper and nether millstones of a policy which is neither civil nor military, nor accountable to any one authority, nor in any proper sense regardful of the future. Mr. Morgan's letter, which we publish on another page, points, as we believe, to the only rational and hopeful solution of the problem.

The Bank of England raised its reserve during the week from 38⅝ per cent. to 40⅞ per cent. of its liabilities, and reduced its discount rate from 6 to 5 per cent. The rate outside the bank fell to 4 per cent., and British consols advanced from 95⅝ to 96⅜ per cent. Here the United States Treasury began exercising its privileges as a member of the New York Clearing-House, in pursuance of the arrangement recently made by the Secretary of the Treasury and the banks. The Baltimore banks, after having conferred with the Secretary of the Treasury, resolved to take no action, at present, of the kind taken by the New York banks respecting silver; and it is given out that the Philadelphia banks will follow Baltimore rather than New York in this matter. The German Government sold £250,000 silver bullion during the week at 50⅝*d.* per ounce; the closing price in London was 50¾*d.* Here the bullion value of the 412½-grain dollar at the close of the week was $0.8546.

The Latin Union seems to have fallen completely into the hands of "the money power." The convention concluded recently prohibits all further coinage of silver during the coming year, except in the case of Italy, which has the right to issue $4,000,000. For six years after January, 1880, coinage of silver in five-franc pieces, or pieces of any larger size, is wholly forbidden. We observe that Mr. George Walker, in a letter to the *Evening Post*, reports that one of our delegates to the late "Silver" Conference told him, as one good result of the conference, that "it had put an end to any further propagation of gold mono-metallism." The mono-metallic propagandists will hardly care much about their propagandism as long as its objects are carried out.

The Marquis of Lorne and the Princess Louise have arrived in Canada amidst the greatest excitement on the part of the population of all classes. Some of the newspaper articles on the event read like extracts from Ossian, and the addresses presented by various societies and other bodies are couched in language which ought to be Persian. The mind of the Dominion, too, appears to be much absorbed in the mysteries of court etiquette, and we are sorry to learn that in spite of frequent "parlor rehearsals" the ladies have not learned as yet to back out from the Princess's presence with either dignity or dexterity. There is also much questioning as to whether Her Royal Highness will, when better acquainted with the Canadian climate, insist on the "low-neck and short-sleeves" rule with regard to Court dress. We ought to add that the excitement is not confined to the Dominion. Some of our own papers give as much space to the Governor-General's history and progress, and discuss both with as much fervor of language, as they could possibly accord to the most striking events of modern history. It is hardly possible, in fact, in view of it all, to avoid regarding the Marquis's appointment, in spite of his virtues and talents, as a misfortune for Canada. A court in the backwoods, where neither the manners nor traditions nor social ideas have made a place for it, must of necessity be a good deal of a sham, and the loyalty which it will call forth will necessarily find expression in mere imitation of forms borrowed from another country and a wholly different society. A court to be a court, too, must have a "court circle"—or, in other words, "draw the line somewhere" as to the people it receives. It must set in motion a thousand mean jealousies and passions and competitions, which are only tolerable in England because time has given them an air of fitness and dignity, and created a climate that suits them. Transferred to a community like Canada they are likely to ravage it with vulgar pretence and coarse humbug, and destroy the simplicity which was or ought to have been its best possession.

Misfortunes seem to accumulate on the Beaconsfield Ministry in England. The correspondence with France, touching the Anglo-Turkish Convention for the occupation of Cyprus, has been published in a Blue Book, but not before it appeared in the French Yellow Book, at the opening of the Chambers, and it makes very unpleasant revelations to the British public, and once more exposes Lord Salisbury to the imputation of not having been quite straightforward in his statements. One of the arguments by which he defended his performances at Berlin after his return to London was that the acquisition of Cyprus had been accomplished without in the least degree rousing French susceptibilities. It now appears that this was not strictly accurate; that, in order to make the Convention palatable to France, he had to disavow all designs of an exclusive character on Egypt and all intention of effecting a lodgment at any point on the Asiatic coast. Moreover, Mr. Waddington did not accept this disavowal in silence. He seized on it eagerly, and insisted on having it in good set terms in writing, and pointed out its necessity to France as a great Mediterranean Power.

Now, the result of this is that England loses what all the other Powers have tacitly conceded to her, and what the English people have thought she possessed ever since Bonaparte was driven out of the country—the right to occupy Egypt whenever she pleased, and control it in the meantime, as necessary to the security of her communications with India. In fact, Egypt has been for seventy years looked upon as a sort of dependency of the British crown, and the propriety of occupying it was discussed at the outbreak of the Russo-Turkish war in the English papers as a question of domestic administration rather than of foreign policy. The Cyprus affair has, however, changed all this. The jealousy of both France and Italy has, it now appears, been really roused. France claims halves in Egypt, and when the Khedive appointed an English Minister of Finance the other day he was obliged by French importunity to give him a French colleague of Public Works. To have the exciting purchase of the Suez-Canal shares end in this way is sufficiently provoking, but is very characteristic of the Ministry. M. Waddington has also warned them that they must not make a settlement of any kind on the Asiatic coast, so in what way they are to defend their beloved Euphrates Valley from the Russian fiends does not clearly appear. It looks as if, like Mrs. Jamieson's butler, Mr. Mulliner, in 'Cranford,' they would have to wait for "the robbers" to come to Cyprus and fight them there.

The English Cabinet, after what is said to have been a stormy meeting, has yielded to public opinion sufficiently to open Parlia-

ment on December 5. Lord Beaconsfield is said to have opposed this steadily in support of the "Imperial" view, which makes foreign affairs affairs of the Crown, about which Parliament has a right to be informed but not to be consulted, but his colleagues are growing timid with the darkening of the horizon at home and abroad. The war has, however, already begun, and Parliament will simply have to support it. The Amir's resistance is likely to be very feeble, as it was in 1839 and 1842, and he will probably have to submit before long and kiss the rod. The complicated part of the business will be the settlement with him, in which the Russian press declares Russia must have a voice, following the British example about Turkey in Europe.

The operations against Afghanistan cover four degrees of latitude on the northwestern frontier of India, and have as their respective bases Peshawar on the north and Multan on the south. On Tuesday, the 19th, a simultaneous forward movement began of three forces, namely, under General Browne from Fort Jamrud by the Khybar Pass; under General Roberts from Thal by the Kurram Pass; and under General Biddulph from Quettah by the Pishin Valley along the headwaters of the Helmand, the great interior river of Afghanistan, flowing southwesterly into the Lake of Seistan. A distance of some three hundred miles, as the crow flies, separates the right and left wings of the invading troops. Following these in the order above mentioned, it appears that General Browne bombarded Fort Ali Musjid in the Khybar Pass all day Thursday, and was preparing to assault it the next morning, but found that it had been deserted overnight in consequence of having been turned from the rear. Guns and some prisoners fell into his hands, and he continued his advance on Jalalabad, the scene of Sir Robert Sale's heroic resistance in 1841-42. At the last accounts he was half-way there, and was meeting with a friendly reception from the tribes of the district, while the abandonment of Jalalabad was reported. General Roberts, in the Kurram Pass, occupied without resistance Fort Kapion, just over against Thal, the frontier post, and Fort Ahmedishams, five miles further up the pass. General Biddulph marched unopposed from Quettah to Peshin. The only losses reported are in connection with the taking of Ali Musjid, and do not inspire full credence. Various speculations are indulged as to the limits of this winter campaign, but the most sanguine place them at Jalalabad, Fort Kurram, and Candahar; Cabul and Ghazni being reserved for the spring.

The debates in the French Assembly after an election are usually very fierce, owing to the numerous contested cases which come up, and the fiercely partisan spirit which it is customary to bring to their decision. This year, of course, after the desperate struggle in which the Republicans have been engaged, this cause of quarrel is more than usually powerful. Among the candidates whose election was assailed were Paul de Cassagnac, the Imperialist bravo, and M. de Fourtou, the late Minister of the Interior. Cassagnac's speeches usually consist of a succession of "scenes," owing to the interruptions which his scurrility calls forth, but this time the Left agreed to take no notice of him, and he was only called to order by the President, who had to check him frequently for his abuse of Marshal MacMahon, whom it is the Conservative cue just now to treat as a dishonored man. Cassagnac lost his seat, owing to the assistance he received from the Government of the day; and Fourtou has lost his too. The latter, however, like Cassagnac, did not take his expulsion meekly, and, being a more considerable person than Cassagnac, his vituperation found the Left much more sensitive, and they lost all self-control when he permitted himself to say that if he had done his duty they (the Left) would not be in their seats. Further on in the speech Gambetta appears to have so far forgotten himself as to give him the lie direct, and though he retracted the observation when called to order by the President, he did it out of regard to the rules of the Assembly; he did not retract it out of regard for M. de Fourtou. The result has been a challenge and a duel with pistols at the harmless distance of thirty-five paces. Fourtou's imprudent speech about his "duty" towards the Left seems likely to get him into serious trouble. He is to be investigated and forced to tell what this means, and if it means that a *coup d'état* was in contemplation, who projected it.

M. Gambetta has refused other challenges, among them one from Paul de Cassagnac; but, strange as it seems to us, there are limits to this peaceableness beyond which it is not safe for a Frenchman to go if he wishes to retain his political influence or the respect of society, and Gambetta would probably have been seriously damaged if, after having offered such an insult, he had refused "satisfaction" for it to a man who had filled the position of a minister. Probably nothing did so much to ruin Prince Napoleon with the French public as his refusal to fight the Duc d'Aumale, and his meekness even went far to discredit the dynasty, as showing an undesirable coolness in the Imperial blood. Whether we shall ever see the duel extinct in French society begins to seem doubtful, because it is doubtful whether the French temperament would allow of that patience or indifference under insults so common in America and England, without great moral debasement. It is a long while since Frenchmen ceased to have that intense concern about their spiritual condition which is still, in spite of the growth of religious indifference, either a marked characteristic or a powerful influence of Anglo-Saxon society. What serves the Frenchman instead of it is an intense self-respect, or self-esteem if any one likes the term better, and the loss of this would very probably wreck his whole moral system, so that it would be a serious matter to have him become hardened to abuse. The political inconveniences of this sensitiveness, however, do not need setting forth.

The Radical Democratic party which has so long ruled Geneva received a crushing defeat at the late election, their revision of the Constitution having previously, on submission to the people, been rejected by a majority of 6,000 out of 11,400 votes. The changes were all in the direction of greater liberty of action for the Grand Council, which is nominally an independent legislature, but in reality has been, under the Democratic régime, a body very like our own Tammany General Committee, controlled by a small clique, which, curiously enough, is by the Genevans called the "Caucus," and is managed by a Boss, this position having been held of late by M. Carteret. He and the Caucus draughted the revised Constitution in profound secrecy, and the public knew nothing of it until it was offered for acceptance.

Carteret, like his predecessor, James Fazy, who has just died, although a Boss and a Radical, is a very different person from our Bosses, and would be considered in New York City politics a ridiculous person, or, as one of the present Park Commissioners said, "one of the high-toned fellows" who have no business meddling in city politics. He is a man of considerable culture, a poet above mediocrity, and has published a volume of fables of some merit. But he is, like his Caucus, a fanatical Jacobin—that is, he believes in the direct government by the people, with as little use of constitutional machinery or restraint as possible; a great deal of popular voting, and then the execution of the popular will thus expressed by an energetic Boss or Cæsar. The amount of authority with which he proposed to arm himself this time was, however, too much for the Genevans. For one thing, he sought to give the Government such control of education that it would have the right to see that the instruction given in private schools was not only sufficient but "moral," and the report of the Grand Council defined "moral" by declaring "immoral" whatever taught "false or dangerous notions," or tended to "denationalize the children" or make them "hostile to the democratic principle." James Fazy, who has just died at the age of 82, was Boss of Geneva for seventeen years, having literally captured the city at the head of an armed mob, which defeated the urban militia. He then went to work in the usual way at "public improvements," and, having spent too much money, was defeated at the polls, and tried armed force again; but this time, under the new Federal Constitution, Federal troops were called in and extinguished him.

THE ECONOMIC FUTURE OF ENGLAND.

NOTHING could better illustrate the depth of the anxiety under which the public mind in England is laboring than the following appeal to the Ministry, which we find in the last number of the London *Economist*, a paper which seldom indulges in pathos of any sort:

"And now we will venture to make a direct appeal to her Majesty's Government. They know how terrible and how far-reaching the present depression of English trade is. They know how largely this depression is due to the political uncertainties of the time. They know how many men in business have been holding on by the very skin of their teeth in the hope that the Congress of Berlin would bring about a radical and permanent settlement of the Eastern Question. They know that, so far from the settlement there arrived at being either radical or permanent, it has from the first been disregarded by commercial Europe, and has had absolutely no influence in improving the state of trade. If, knowing all this, they go on clinging to the letter of a Treaty from which the spirit has departed, or, rather, into which the spirit has never entered, they will be responsible for all that happens in consequence. To some extent, at all events, it is still in their power to cast aside the illusions under which the Berlin Treaty was drawn up, and to replace the useless provisions then enacted by a settlement more worthy of the name. They can themselves come forward to undo the division of Bulgaria, instead of leaving it to be undone without them. They can themselves take care that the Bulgaria thus constituted shall in some measure be withdrawn from Russian influence, and taught, however late and however imperfectly, to look elsewhere than to Russia for the help which may ensure and develop its autonomy."

The "illusion," or rather the assumption, under which the Berlin Treaty was drawn up was that the Turks are a people who eagerly desire, and are fully competent, to reform their Government; and not only this, but that their Government has been of late and is now so good that any signs of discontent shown by the Christians who live under it are and must be due to the instigation of "Russian agents," and the work of what Lord Beaconsfield calls "the secret societies." It is this assumption which has led him into the monstrous undertaking of regenerating the Mussulman world at a moment when English industry has entered on what will probably prove the most critical period in its existence—a period, too, which may not pass away without working serious modifications both in English Government and society. It would be very rash to predict, however, as some have begun to do, that the crisis will leave England greatly diminished in strength and influence. All comparisons, such as Mr. Gladstone suggested in his late article, between her and Venice or Genoa or Holland leave out of account the fact that none of these states declined until either their material resources had been exhausted or the character of the people had lost its vigor and enterprise, either through the corruption of the Government or through a general break down of morals. Nothing could well seem more hopeless than the condition of the British Empire at the close of the American war, and yet nine years of Pitt prepared it for the astonishing and successful twenty years' struggle with France. But in 1815 the prospect certainly seemed gloomier than ever. The oligarchy which had ruled the country from 1688, and which the shifting of population and growth of industry had made more oligarchical than ever, had loaded it with a prodigious debt of $4,000,000,000, to be borne by a population of only 11,000,000, whose commerce and industry was still but trifling. The administration, too, was honeycombed with jobbery in all its departments, and the working class was furious with suffering. Out of this slough, which to many of the acutest observers seemed hopeless, the nation rose, during the seventeen years between the close of the war and the passage of the Reform Bill, however, with astonishing rapidity, accomplishing reforms of various kinds, such as, perhaps, have never been effected in any other country without revolution and bloodshed. The recovery could probably not have been effected by the old ruling class; but it was not all luck that created the great middle class which took charge of the national affairs after the passage of the Bill, and which during the succeeding forty years created the prodigious commercial and manufacturing prosperity which seems to have culminated in 1873. No such class exists in any country through a happy accident. The religion, laws, traditions, manners, and history all combine to produce it and make it ready for its work, and these agencies have certainly not lost their force since 1832. On the contrary, the element of vigor and enterprise and audacity in the national character seems just as strong to-day as ever.

But it must be admitted that the English middle class when they came to the front, and laid the foundation of the huge fabric of industry which just now seems in serious peril, had resources which they seem to have exhausted. It was not simply that they began the race in possession of great coal and iron fields lying side by side. They were the first to take up the steam-engine seriously and turn it to account in railroads and navigation. Down almost to 1860 there was a widespread feeling all over Europe that a steam-engine needed an Englishman to manage it. As soon as the necessity of railroads began to be felt, too, the Continental nations had to order them of Englishmen, and England supplied the iron and machinery for them. Their great command of the means of locomotion gave them the first access to out-of-the-way markets, such as India and China, and the first chance to colonize remote regions, such as Australasia and South Africa. The result has been half a century of steady and unprecedented material growth, accompanied with corresponding improvement in the structure of the Government, which is probably unequalled to-day in the success with which scientific methods are made to work through popular forms.

This brilliant stage has, however, evidently reached its termination. A considerable proportion of the markets by which its prosperity has been maintained—the cotton and iron—is irretrievably lost. The civilized world, for instance, will never again build railroads with the rapidity it has hitherto built them, because the great trunk-lines are made and nothing will hereafter be needed but lateral feeders. Then, too, the improvement in the government on the European continent, and the growth of industrial dexterity and enterprise everywhere, have spread manufactures over a vast area previously devoted in the main to agriculture. So that it is hard to avoid the belief that we are witnessing a serious and permanent check to the material growth of the empire, which will call for a readjustment of its economic and political machinery, the nature of which it would be impossible as yet to forecast, though it would be exceedingly rash to say that the nation is not mentally and morally equal to the task, or that it will all of a sudden resign its position among the leading political and commercial states. Some of the probable features in this readjustment are already foreshadowed. Dense as the population of England now is, and large as is the proportion of it which is withdrawn from agriculture, the profits of farming have been already so seriously affected by the growing competition of Russia and the United States that there are signs of a serious fall in rents, which must generally affect the fortune and habits of the landed aristocracy. According to the latest accounts, there are in some districts signs of a panic among landlords over the difficulty of letting their farms to men with capital enough to work them, and the difficulty of getting even the present holders to keep them. The decline of manufactures and diminished purchasing power of the artisan class must, of course, increase this tendency, and perhaps force landlords, as one paper suggests, either to work their lands themselves, as the Prussian landholders do, or rent them on terms which would virtually give the farmer the fee. How little margin is left to the landlord already may be inferred from the fact that but few estates pay more than two or three per cent. on the purchase money.

The great accumulations of population in the iron and cotton districts must inevitably, if the depression proves permanent, be got rid of by organized emigration, such as gave the Australian Colonies their first start. Public opinion would not tolerate now, as it tolerated half a century ago, the lapse of large bodies of men into pauperism, and the present parliamentary constituency is a much more dangerous one on such subjects than any which has previously

existed in England. That capital would go abroad in greater masses than ever on the heels of population and manufacturers there is little question; and it would go, not to the countries with the finest natural resources, for in these Central Africa is very rich, but to those in which it would enjoy most liberty combined with most security, and in which the population regarded it neither as booty nor as an engine of oppression, and in which legislation was steadiest and justice best administered. That all this might happen without seriously affecting England's position in the world, we think is a reasonable belief. The problems raised in our time by the presence of swarms of laborers engaged in manufacturing, living in dense masses, and dependent for weekly wages on the skill of a few great employers in watching the turns of markets of increasing delicacy and uncertainty, grow more and more serious every day, and threaten to become unmanageable, in the absence of large tracts of easily accessible waste-land. To be relieved of the pressure of these problems, even in a moderate degree, is to any country which does not need a large standing army, a gain in real power both of offence and defence, if it involve no drain upon the character and intellect of the country, such as the emigration of the Huguenots brought on France.

STEPS TOWARDS TARIFF REFORM.

IT seems to be understood that no general revision of our tariff will be attempted at the coming short session of Congress. Having been re-elected to the next Congress, Mr. Wood may rest content not to press his bill a second time on the attention of a House that has once so disdainfully rejected the work of his hand, and reserve it as a vantage-ground from which he may carry the battle of tariff reform to a successful issue in the Forty-sixth Congress. In the meantime we submit that the final success of a comprehensive reform would not be jeopardized but rather facilitated if at the approaching session Mr. Wood were to offer a few special measures of relief that deserve to be passed on their own merits. Let a few outlying forts be taken now, and the general assault hereafter will be so much the surer of success.

It is given out that one of these preliminary amendments will be recommended to Congress by the Secretary of the Treasury himself, viz., an alteration in the mode of assessing the duties on sugar; and, judging from the noise that this question has of late created, we cannot doubt that such an amendment is necessary, although neither the parties most interested nor the Government itself appears as yet to have discovered any satisfactory plan for such a reform. We venture to suggest to Mr. Wood's attention another alteration, for the carrying out of which his own bill has already given the right cue, and which we consider no less pressing: we mean the reduction and simplification of the duties on raw wool.

It will be remembered that Mr. Wood's bill proposed to change the present complicated and extravagantly high duties on wool to a simple *ad-valorem* rate of 35 per cent. This proposal met the hearty approbation of a great majority of manufacturers, and did not, so far as we are aware, call forth any great opposition from the wool-growers. The principal objection was that, coupled with a reduction of the duties on woollen goods, the reduction on wool was not sufficient. This could not be urged now, when no reduction on manufactured goods is proposed. At the same time, a reduction of the wool duty to 25 per cent. *ad valorem* we believe would be preferable, since at 35 per cent. the present duty on carpet-wools, which will always form a large portion of our importations, would be increased instead of diminished.

The urgent necessity of such a change must be apparent to every one acquainted with the present condition of our woollen industry, which is second to but few of the main channels in which labor and capital now find employment in our country. But a simple statement of facts will, we think, prove it also to those who are not specially familiar with the question. In an article published a few months ago (*Nation*, No. 692) we discussed the causes of the present industrial depression, and tried to show that the primary and general cause of this lamentable state of things, extending over both hemispheres, was a great over-production of certain manufactured articles, consequent mainly upon the wonderful improvements in machinery and the application of steam that have been made within the past forty years. Nobody will dispute that this cause has operated largely on our woollen industry. At the same time we cannot ignore the minor causes which have helped on the depression of this industry in particular, and which, while they continue to operate, must retard its recovery. Among these secondary causes our present tariff can be shown to hold a prominent position.

We will not argue the question whether our woollen industry would not be better off to-day if after the war and during the period of inflation a larger portion of our wants in the way of woollen goods had been allowed to come in from abroad, and if no such sudden and extensive increase of machinery as followed the introduction of our present tariff had taken place. Let our present manufacturers and their shareholders answer the question, What portion of the capital invested in woollen-mills during that period can be called productive or even existing at this day? We may even grant that the depreciation of that capital is in a measure counterbalanced by the lesson taught by five years of depression. We have learned how to manufacture cheaply, not only by using shoddy and cotton in place of wool, but also by the honest application of economy and ingenuity. Having learned this most wholesome lesson, we ought to be on the high road to prosperity, but we are not; and why? Because here stands our wool tariff and says, You shall manufacture cheaply, but only such goods as I will permit you to make; you must abandon all goods that require a mixture of foreign wools. So all our mills must rush into the making of such goods as can be made of domestic wools; and as the consumer must be tempted to wear nothing but such goods, down must the prices go, shoddy must come in, and in the general race for cheap goods half our mills must work without profit. The tariff also says, You shall not export a yard of woollens; let South America and other countries supply the Europeans with cheap and free wool and take back their goods; you shall live on the fat of your own country; your economy and ingenuity shall profit you nothing outside of its limits, and if you have too much machinery going you must wait for a corresponding increase of your own population or for a rise in their standard of living.

And where is our wool-grower, who has also been stimulated into over-production by this tariff, whose climate, however, cannot be stimulated, and who can produce but a limited variety of wools? Although our manufacturers have been driven into the all but exclusive use of his product, he finds himself selling his wools these last two or three years at lower prices than he has known under any previous tariff for forty years past. Protection has landed him close to the point where his wool can be exported to Europe with profit, the same as our corn and other agricultural produce. There is one more lesson for him to learn, which is, that the wool-grower cannot prosper while our woollen industry suffers, and the only relief that legislation can give to both is to untie the hands of our industry and allow it to vary its products by giving it cheap wool of all kinds. Our duties have ceased to protect either the manufacturer or the grower, and free wool is what they both want. Without that, foreign markets, near and tempting though they are, will remain for ever closed to our surplus production, and our manufacturers will remain unable to vary their produce and make fine goods cheap as well as coarse goods. But if we cannot get free wool now, we should at least not delay another day the step which Mr. Wood has indicated in his bill, and by reducing our prohibitory duties relieve our manufacturers of a portion of their burden.

GOVERNMENT SUPERVISION OF BANKS.

THE failure of the City of Glasgow Bank has brought the peculiar system of banking which prevails in Scotland very sharply to the attention of the British public. The calamity is unprecedented in its severity, but it had its forerunner in the failure of the same institution in 1857, as well as in the heavier failure of the Western

Bank of Scotland in the same year. The principle of unlimited liability is, therefore, perfectly well understood in Great Britain, and the dangers of it to the public and the hardships to individuals are matters of old and familiar experience.

We say the dangers to the public, because in this disaster we see far more to deplore in the shock which has been given to credit, and especially to the confidence heretofore so largely reposed in banking institutions, than in the losses which have engulfed the unwary shareholders. In a commercial country, which depends so much on the maintenance of credit, nothing is so important as that the credit should rest on solid foundations—not merely that the bases of the several transactions should be secure, but that the methods of business should be regular, legitimate, and trustworthy. The credit of an individual and of a bank depends much more on the known fact that the business done is done in a regular way, and with the habitual observance of certain rules of safe conduct, than upon a knowledge of the particular securities which accompany it. The one fact should be certified to the public in all possible ways, the other is in its nature private.

Now, the unlimited liability of shareholders in an institution of credit perverts the condition upon which alone credit should be accorded to it. It becomes a question not of prudent management and legitimate trade, but of the strength of guaranty which is afforded by private wealth not invested in the business. Any considerable guaranty of that sort is not only unnecessary but hurtful. Each piece of paper which a bank discounts ought to rest on the solid foundations of a prudent mercantile transaction. If the private and unpledged wealth of the parties to it is relied on to justify a loan otherwise unjustifiable, it is bad banking. What is true of the bank in its relations to its customers is equally true of the public in its relations to the bank. If it is known to do, or is suspected of doing, bad business, the public has no right to trust it; and any system of laws which encourages it to trust it, is a bad system. The City of Glasgow Bank was known to be doing, and to have been doing for years past, a wholly illegitimate and very risky business, and yet the banks and discount houses and bill-brokers of London trusted it to the very last, because it had wealthy shareholders standing behind it who were able to make good any ultimate loss. Such a state of things was to the last degree demoralizing to credit, and a public wrong referable to legislation.

The liability of bank shareholders should be limited, not necessarily to the paid-up value of their shares, but to some moderate and known sums beyond. With this limitation there should be a great measure of publicity required as to the bank's condition, not merely at stated intervals but all the time; and the Government, as the guardian of the public welfare, should see to it that the requisite publications are made, and certify that the facts published are true. This is a perfectly familiar American doctrine. Corporations are here regarded as creatures of the State which gives them being. The right of public supervision runs with that portion of the sovereignty which is parted with by a grant of the franchise. The right merely to aggregate capital with limited liability draws after it the obligation to a certain publicity on the part of the corporation, and the duty of a certain oversight and control on the part of the State. These correlative obligations differ somewhat according to the nature of the business to which they are applied, but they are never absent so long as the corporate franchise is exercised.

Great Britain has recognized this principle to a degree, but in banking corporations to a far smaller degree than the public safety calls for. It has not hesitated to interfere with the employment of children in mines and factories, but it does hesitate to interfere for the protection of people equally helpless in their dealings with monetary institutions. An overweening respect for the rights of individuals as against the rights of the public, and the national love of privacy and jealousy of intrusion, have converted the banking houses of Great Britain into those castles which Englishmen are so proud of defending; and they sometimes end in converting the managers and directors into mediæval barons and freebooters. The subject of Government supervision has been lately revived in the English newspapers, but, beyond the requirement of more frequent and full statements of condition, it seems to meet with no favor at the hands of the press or the business public. A correspondent of the *Moniteur des Intérêts Matériels* of Brussels says that "this mixing up of Government in business affairs is repugnant alike to the good sense and to the peculiar temperament of the English people." The *Times*, in a réply to a correspondent, is quoted as saying that "it would be altogether wrong to embarrass the agents of the Government with any responsibility whatever in banking business. No system of Governmental supervision in the world could prevent fraud, and the best system of that sort might even serve as a protecting mantle for it." But while it rejects the imposition of any responsibility in connection with banking institutions upon the direct agents of the Government, it proposes to employ public accountants, and to punish them as criminals if the accounts they certify should prove to be incorrect.

We undertake to say that the remedy proposed by the *Times*—more full and frequent publications, certified by public auditors—will never reach the seat of the disease if, as we understand it, the duty of the auditor is to be confined to an examination into the books of account and records only, and if they do not rigidly examine the cash, business paper, securities, and investments which constitute the assets. The figures mean nothing; they may present a fair exterior and be unimpeachably true, and yet all behind them may be false and rotten. Englishmen affect to say that public officers can know nothing of the quality of the loans and securities in which the bank invests its funds. The assumption is unsound in principle and untrue in fact. Intelligent experts (and public examiners very soon become experts) are perfectly competent to judge, first, whether the business is regularly conducted, whether the paper taken is in proper form; whether its length is within the limits of a judicious credit; whether it is live paper and not overdue; whether on its face it seems to represent mercantile transactions. They may, it is true, be deceived in these matters; but their mistakes can hardly be worse than that of the London and Westminster, and other very experienced banks in London, in the Collie cases. They can also ascertain whether the custodians of the cash have given responsible bonds, and whether the officers and directors are large borrowers. They may, in the second place, acquire great familiarity with the standing of mercantile houses and individuals, and come to know far more than the officers of any one bank can know of the extent of their transactions, since they see the portfolios of many institutions, while, as a rule, bank officers know nothing of what is being done by their neighbors. We could name instances in which bank examiners distrusted the solvency of parties long before any trouble was suspected by the banks discounting their paper. A large portion of bank funds is loaned on collaterals of public and corporate stocks and bonds. Examiners are as competent to judge of the goodness of these collaterals as any merchant or bank director can be. Does the London *Times* suppose that any examiner appointed by the British Government would have failed to know the worthlessness of the American and Australian securities, and of the past-due and dishonored, or frequently renewed, individual paper which figured as property in the assets of the City of Glasgow Bank; or that he would have hesitated to expose to the proper authorities the fact that millions had been loaned to a single party whose credit did not entitle him to as many thousands?

The best evidence that public examiners are competent to fulfil all these duties is found in the fact, of which there is not the least doubt in America, that under a rigid system of examination banks seldom fail unless in seasons of general crisis, and that their failures rarely touch either bill-holders or depositors. The mere consciousness of supervision and the fear of a sudden exposure keep banks from falling into loose and irregular methods of business, and still more from the perpetration of actual frauds. If the prejudice which exists in England against Governmental interference in private business can be so far overcome as to give a system of official supervision a fair trial, the objections now made against it

will fade away, and the banks themselves will court the investigation which certifies to the world their title to public confidence.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—XV.

THE UNITED STATES FINE-ART EXHIBIT.

PARIS, September, 1878.*

AFTER several letters devoted to other parts of the Exhibition than the art galleries, and on returning to them for farther enquiry into the tendencies of modern fine art, I am inclined to speak of the American pictures first, because a much more cheerful view of them is possible than has been taken in some instances. It all depends upon the point of view. Whether one is disappointed or not depends so largely upon what one has expected! No doubt a better show could have been made had our blessed Congress been a different sort of Congress. No doubt, with more time allowed for the task, the "Advisory Committee on Art in New York" could have brought together a larger and somewhat better collection of the works of art owned in American cities. But delay in acting and half-hearted action at last, on the part of Congress, is just one of those things which everybody ought to have been prepared for, and in spite of it the exhibit is a success. It is better than people here, Frenchmen or American residents, were prepared to see it. It will have this result, that something good will be looked for at our hands at the next International Exhibition.

In the first place, the collection is not so very small. There are 165 numbers in the catalogue, and, as all but fifteen are paintings and drawings, it appears that the American show of these art-works is as large in comparison with those of other nations as we have any right to expect. Austria sends 180 paintings and drawings; Austria and Hungary together, 250. Italy sends 220 paintings and drawings; Sweden and Norway together, Spain, Russia, Switzerland, Holland, each a smaller number than the United States. And, pray, why should the United States pretend to a better art-showing than Spain or Russia? Has the Government done anything to encourage art? Has there been a decided movement that way among the people at any time? Is there any atmosphere in America, outside of a very few private houses, in which art would be likely to flourish? Is it not too well known that the Museum in your city languishes for want of the means which your citizens might so easily supply, and which they are yearly called upon to supply, in vain? Is it not notorious that money can be got in abundance for charity, for social movements of various sorts, for what is assumed to be religion, for founding small colleges which will bear the founders' names to a brief posterity, but only with great difficulty for the true higher education, literary or artistic or scientific? If Americans turn their attention at all toward the practice of fine art, it must be from a very decided leaning that way; if they succeed at all it must be from real ability. The national exhibit to which ours may best be compared is that of Germany, which also hesitated about exhibiting, and has no exhibit except that of the fine arts; and that was an eleventh-hour thought, I believe. Germany has art-schools and traditions, and professed artists in hundreds more than America has, and these advantages ought to counterbalance that natural reluctance to exhibit in a capital so lately hostile which doubtless kept many Germans from sending their works to Paris. She exhibits 159 oil-paintings and no drawings at all, as against 127 oil-paintings and 23 drawings from the United States.

When we come to consider, in the second place, the value and importance of the works exhibited, I declare I cannot admit that this American collection is inferior in average merit; comparisons are odious, but sometimes one must put up with the odium, and things are sent to Paris for the sake of comparison. There is no figure work in the American exhibition so scientific and masterly as that of the younger Kaulbach, but there is no landscape painting in the German gallery that can compare with La Farge's picture; and in the great mass of miscellaneous pictures of modern subjects the American work compares well in technical skill and in artistic qualities, as well as in originality of conception, with the German. In general, no doubt there is a greater proportion of skilled handiwork in the German gallery, but this is more than compensated by the far greater variety, the superior independence, freedom, and play of mind seen in the best forty or fifty of the American pictures. This is not saying that American art is on the whole the equal of German art. America shows no sculpture, no engraving on metal, no etching, no architectural designs, and has little to show. Probably in Germany there are very many more paintings about as good as those sent to Paris than there are pictures in America, or painted by American artists anywhere resident, equal to those in our gallery. America has no large-scale, monumental painting, while Germany has a great deal, of one kind and another. We are now concerned with the outlook only, the prospects for the future, the evidences of ability, and the tendencies, and with these as chiefly seen in this Paris Exhibition.

It is curiously characteristic of the time and the people that in the American gallery there is not one historical picture, whether in the usual sense "historical" of the remoter past or even representing a scene in recent American history. There is not one scene from the civil war, not one from American story, military or ceremonial, not one from European or other history, ancient or modern. Nor is there a single picture of tragic or solemn subject, except, perhaps, Mr. Vedder's "Sibyl." It may be urged that Mr. Bridgman's "Funeral of a Mummy on the Nile" is both historical and solemn. Well, I think not. Mr. Bridgman's picture is full of merits of its own; it has been honored with a medal, it appears, and no doubt deservedly; but it shares with the chief pictures of Mr. Bridgman's master, Gérôme, the quality of being archæological and, so to speak, studied up; full of elaborated details of dress, ornament, and architecture, to the destruction of solemnity and the disappearance of historical painting in "restoration." The immense difficulty of the task undertaken is evident—is not disputed; whether art ought to be hampered with such difficulties is the question. Contemporary scenes and events are the more obviously fit material for painting. Mr. C. C. Coleman's "Venice" is a picture which almost contradicts the statement above that there is no historical painting in the American gallery. A black steamship lies at anchor on the glassy waters of the lagoon; beyond is seen the well-known sea-front of the Queen of Cities, the palaces and towers gleaming with a pale light through a somewhat hazy atmosphere, and at the distance of a mile or two from the spectator; over all bends a lovely mottled sky. "Venice, Ancient and Modern," says the catalogue. The painter's idea is obvious: here is the modern (and future) seaport, and the bustle of modern commerce, embodied in this black hull and funnel and tapering spars; beyond, forming a background to the thoughtless, restless, ignoble life of the day, is the stately and beautiful past. What remains of the past, at least, is stately and beautiful; how will it be with the remains of that which is now the present and will soon be the past? Three hundred years hence the sky and the water will be as beautiful as now, and the Ducal Palace and its neighbors will be still strong and fresh, if not wilfully destroyed; but what of the work of to-day will be fit to keep so long! Nothing. Our successes will be surpassed and forgotten, even as this steamer will be replaced by vessels in every way better. And so much of our thought as is permanent in character and cannot be thought over again and better thought in the future is embodied in books we hardly think of now, and certainly not in the visible and lasting forms of architecture. Mr. Coleman's picture may remain, and tell the people of the twenty-second century how we of the nineteenth dreamed over the architecture which (they will be ready enough to say) we could not hope to rival.

Mr. Coleman has another picture here—a decorative panel; a flowering branch seen relieved against a background of embroidered Eastern muslin, an effective composition and extraordinarily well painted. A similar picture by this artist in the Salon of this year was perhaps even more beautiful. It would appear that he has given peculiar attention to this matter of wall-decoration; these panels are peculiarly well adapted to their purpose; it is rare to see such charming work of the kind—lovely painting of bronze vase and stuffs, and not less lovely painting of fresh blossoms, without relief or projection, such as might be thought foreign to the idea of wall-decoration.

Mr. Dana's large sea-picture, a rolling, weltering sea of the calm weather following a storm: huge, shapeless waves without the "white caps," or the swift life of the sea driven by a gale—"the tumbling ruins of the ocean" black under the moonlight—has received one of the four prizes awarded to the American fine-art exhibit. It is a remarkable work in many ways, but I prefer the manly little picture, by the same artist, called "A Squall," with its rapidly-coming black cloud, and the wind just beginning to annoy the sea-weed gatherers. The view on the Marne, by Mr. F. D. Williams, is a very charming landscape. Mr. Dubois's "Autumn" is fine, with its strong, well-rooted trees in their brown dress. The "Approach to Venice," by Mr. W. G. Bunce, is worthy to hang beside Mr. Coleman's picture of similar subject. It is a pleasant grey landscape which is exhibited by Mr. W. B. Jones, under the name "Return of the

* Letters from our special correspondent at Paris for which we could not find space before the close of the Exhibition will be printed from time to time with the above date. —ED. NATION.

Cows, Brittany." Mr. Vedder exhibits three pictures, each of individual merit and value, but as your correspondent, "W. J. S.," has described these at length, I refrain, remarking only that this ascription of imaginative power in treatment of subject is one which ought to be sparingly rendered; the charm of Vedder's pictures is in their purely artistic character. The brown hares creeping and nestling about the young Marsyas are wonderful, and the insight into the nature of the creatures is imaginative, if you please, and that in a strong, manly, unaffected fashion. The picture is admirable, too, with the strange lights on the snow, and the near trees, the animals and the satyr himself relieved against it.

All these painters who have been named are resident abroad. Some of them have lived abroad many years without ever returning to America, or without returning for more than a brief visit. Their works are seldom seen in the exhibitions in New York or the other American cities; many of them are sold in Europe and remain there, for there are American painters in Europe whose chief "patrons" are in Europe also. The appearance in this gallery of the works of these able and highly-trained artists is the cause of the complaints that have been made in the United States of the arrangement. It is not strange that astonishment should be caused by the giving up so much of "the line" to the works of men almost unknown at home; but, on the other hand, it is certainly not strange that the best pictures should come from the men who live in Paris or in Rome. They live in Paris and in Rome precisely for the reason that they can paint better and more easily there, surrounded by great works of the past, forming part of a community in which fine art is a chief object and interest of life, with all the technical appliances within easy reach.

But, after all, there are good things that have come from America. Mention has already been made of Mr. La Farge's landscape, "Paradise Valley, Newport." It is a noble landscape; one can leave it and walk directly to any landscape in any gallery and return, and it is still strong and pure. It has been exhibited in New York, and, as it belongs to a Boston lady, no doubt it has been and will be again exhibited in Boston too; it cannot be seen too much. There is no space in which to attempt analysis or description. It has received one of the four prizes. Mr. R. Swain Gifford is on the road to great eminence; nothing is more calm and dignified than his work; the little oil-painting and the three water-colors he sends are all admirable, and excite but one feeling that is not pleasure—a feeling that perhaps there is to be found in them a certain uniformity of treatment. The best Eastman Johnson that ever was painted, no doubt, is "The Corn-Husking," with all of Mr. Johnson's vigor of conception and greater technical skill than one expects to see. The three little studies by Mr. Homer are characteristic works of a man whose every sketch and scrawl leads us to expect a wonderful picture by and by. Mr. Samuel Colman's "Emigrant Train Crossing a Ford," though perhaps not equal to his best pictures, is lovely in color. Mr. C. H. Miller sends a landscape rather larger than most (for the American pictures run small, it seems), "Oaks at Creedmoor, L. I."; it is a strong picture, exceedingly fine in its general decorative effect.

In mentioning these few pictures there has been no conscious abandonment of a standard of choice as high as that which would be applied to any of the galleries, except always the French, in which the number of works is so great as to compel a still more careful selection. Judgment and perfect independence must have gone to the selection to make the average so good. The only fault which, as it is urged, sounds formidable, is that the pictures chosen are not "national," not American enough. But that is the case not with the Belgian only, but with pretty much all the national exhibits. What pictures except the British are free, or even more free than ours, from this overmastering French influence? How far the British pictures are the better for their independence is an interesting question to which we may come. It is not important that our painters should seek to be national, or that they should seek to resist foreign influences. It is the important thing that they should seek to be skilful in work and simple in design; nationalism will come as imagination, as invention, as power, as "genius" will come, of itself, in its own good time. R. S.

Correspondence.

THE INDIAN QUESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of the 21st inst. you say "that Congress will be urged with unusual vigor at the next session to transfer the care of the Indians to the War Department." This transfer, if made, would probably be beneficial in two respects: Firstly. The army officers would be required to superintend the Indians near the several military posts, thus superseding a like number of Indian agents. Secondly. The War Department, through its Commissary-General, could purchase the treaty supplies for the Indians far better than the Interior Department through civilians. As far as the change operated, the Indians would have better agents and be better supplied. But this would fail to reach the main difficulty, which is the total failure of the present system. The Secretary of the Interior would give as intelligent attention to the affairs of the Indians as the Secretary of War, under a system like the present. Each of these secretaries has quite as many imperative duties as he can perform, and very little attention can be expected from either to the affairs of the Indians.

What is now needed is a *Department of Indian Affairs*, with a cabinet officer at its head, and a law of Congress instituting a new system of management of the affairs of the Indian tribes. It is not certain that a new department of the Government and a new system of measures can remedy the enormous evils which now environ the Indian tribes. But the creation of such a department by Congress is the best and the last feasible chance the American people can offer for the solution of the Indian problem. The need of some movement radical in character, and supported with sufficient power, is evident to all. The country is ready for such a movement, and, as I believe, would give it a cordial welcome.

Although there are but about four hundred thousand Indians in the United States, an insignificant number of people in the aggregate, they are scattered over the Territories, where they meet our people at numerous points; and they are also found in places in several of the States. They, and their posterity, will live in our midst for centuries to come, because Indian arts for the maintenance of life are far more persistent and effective than we are disposed to credit. The Indian tribes hold a more important position in their relations to us than their numbers would imply. It is for the reason that they form no part of our social and political system, are not a portion of our people, and stand without the pale of the Government. But as the aborigines of the country and its ancient proprietors they stand to us in a special relation—a relation in some respects awful to contemplate. We are responsible for them before mankind if we do not perform our duty towards them intelligently, and as it becomes the superior race.

Two instrumentalities may be named which have at least the promise of good. One is the establishment of a factory system for such tribes as have been long accustomed to settled life on reservations. (See an article in the *Nation* for July 27, 1876, page 58, in which I gave some account of such a system.) This would stimulate and reward their industry, which is never wanting among Indian women. In fact, the women would support their husbands and children among all the reservation tribes if their labor were encouraged and rewarded; but the experiment of Mr. Church at the outlet of Lake Superior, referred to in that article, shows that the men also will work if a fair opportunity is given them. The second instrumentality is a pastoral system for the Indians of the Plains. This is the more important of the two, because it would reach and benefit those tribes among whom disturbances are constantly arising, and who are putting our Government annually to millions of expense to hold them in check.

We have overlooked the fact that the principal Indian tribes have passed by natural development out of the condition of savages into that of barbarians. In relative progress they are now precisely where our own barbarous ancestors were when, by the domestication of animals, they passed from a similar into a higher condition of barbarism, though still two ethnical periods below civilization. Their great progress commenced, as we have reason to suppose, when they gained, through flocks and herds of domestic animals, a permanent meat and milk subsistence. We wonder that our Indians cannot civilize; but how could they, any more than our own remote barbarous ancestors, jump ethnical periods? They have the skulls and brains of barbarians, and must grow towards civilization as all mankind have done who attained to it by a progressive experience.

The next condition into which the Indian tribes would naturally advance is the pastoral. They have learned unassisted to raise horses in herds, and thus have become partially pastoral. They can be taught to raise domestic cattle in herds. Here the Government should help them by purchasing herds of cattle for them, and by sending herdsmen to take care of them until they can be made to see that the natural increase will afford them an abundant meat and milk subsistence. The Government should own the cattle until this fact is demonstrated to them. This will

solve the problem and recast the destiny of the Indian tribes. In time they will raise cattle in millions on the great plains as buffaloes have raised themselves in millions on the same plains. The Indian tribes would thus become contented, prosperous, and happy, and make a proper use of regions of no present use or value to our people.

As an economic question we have a direct interest in this matter ourselves. If innumerable herds of domestic animals are created on the vast central Plains they will become a source of meat supply for the entire country east of the Mississippi. It will cost the Government but a small part of the sum annually expended upon the Indians to establish this great work, with every assurance that it would solve the Indian problem by raising the Indian tribes of the Plains into a condition of prosperity, not to say of wealth, and by making them an ultimate source of benefit to the country instead of the plague into which they are rapidly degenerating.

I need not take the time of the reader to amplify these propositions. The present system has failed completely, and has become discreditable to the country. Any new movement having a fair promise of success will be received with favor, because the American people would be glad to see our Indian affairs in a more reputable condition. The transfer of the Indian Bureau to the War Department will not relieve the difficulty, although it might work a limited amount of benefit. The new Department of Indian Affairs might be created for twenty-five years. Within that time it could prove itself, and it would save the national Treasury many times the increased expense of the department.

Yours truly, LEWIS H. MORGAN.

ROCHESTER, Nov. 22, 1878.

THE FISHERIES AWARD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You say with truth that as the case stood there was no honorable way of refusing to comply with the Fisheries Award, and all who have a regard for the reputation of the Republic will rejoice that the money has been paid. But it is to be hoped that the day is not very distant when there will be an end of these absurd and humiliating fines imposed by a distant Power upon the inhabitants of this continent for the use of its natural franchises, and when this system of mutual exclusion, with all its waste and bitterness, will give place to commercial union. The northern and southern sections of the continent are the commercial complements of each other. Nature has joined them; an evil policy keeps them asunder.

We pour derision on the popes of old for presuming, by their ecclesiastical authority, to mete out this hemisphere and set bounds beyond which enterprise and colonization were not to pass. Our posterity will perhaps look with the same feeling upon the pretension of a European Government to draw a line, for its political purposes, across this continent, and to say that the people of the two portions shall not enjoy their commercial advantages in common.

A few years of commercial union would give Canada far more than she receives under the Fisheries Award, and with equal advantage, instead of loss, to you.

Yours faithfully, GOLDWIN SMITH.

TORONTO, Nov. 23.

A RETURNING BOARD ABOLISHED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of November 14, 1878, in speaking of Returning Boards in the Southern States, you say: "We have heard of no legislation changing their character or regulating their duties. . . ." In this State, at the first session of the Nicholls Legislature, the law creating the Returning Board was repealed and a new election law passed, by which the votes are counted as cast, and promulgated in like manner. The votes actually cast stand as the *prima-facie* result until overthrown by contest in the courts.—I have the honor to be, very respectfully,

Your obedient servant, E. D. W.

NEW ORLEANS, November 21, 1878.

Notes.

WE have received from Little, Brown & Co., Boston, 'Minor Poems, by Percy Bysshe Shelley,' and it has the distinction of being the first trustworthy edition of the poems ever printed in this country. It follows the text of Mr. H. Buxton Forman's careful London edition of 1876, but it has omitted his annotations, which are necessary in more than one case for the elucidation of lines which left alone are unintelligible. The volume contains the most valuable of the shorter poems, but we wonder at the omission of the choruses of the 'Prometheus Unbound,' which would certainly bear printing separately as well as the chorus given from 'Hellas,' and which are among Shelley's finest lyrical works.——R. Worthington has in press 'Leisure-Time Studies,' chiefly biographical, by Andrew Wilson, Ph.D.——Marion Harland, whose 'Breakfast, Luncheon, and Tea' left an obvious gap in domestic convenience, has now filled it with 'A Dinner Year-Book' (Charles Scribner's Sons), of which it would be safe to predicate an excellence equal to that of the former well-approved work. We believe that Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney's 'Just How' (Houghton, Osgood & Co.) will also recommend itself to housekeepers of much or little experience.——The Smithsonian Report for 1877 has appeared, and for the last time bears the honored name of Joseph Henry. The usual interesting survey of the Institution's activity is supplemented by appendixes of translations and original papers in regard to color-blindness, American archæology (covering a wide range), the history and climate of New Mexico, meteorology, etc. ——We have received Lieut. George M. Wheeler's annual report of his Survey for 1877, with accompanying topographical atlas sheets. From a picturesque point of view the most interesting feature of the season's work was that in the vicinity of Lake Tahoe, which Lieut. Wheeler regrets cannot revert to the Government as a perpetual tourists' reserve. He calls attention to the delay in making preparations for each expedition in consequence of the appropriation being voted with the regularly postponed and belated "Sundry Civil Bill." He suggests its transfer to the more punctual Army Bill.——The Yellow-Fever Relief Commission invite the sending of official and unofficial data in regard to the benevolent work connected with the recent epidemic to Dr. John M. Woodworth, P.O. box 33, Washington, D.C., who is to edit their report.——The thirteenth of *Nature's* "scientific worthies," portrayed by pen and by the admirable graver of Jeens in the number for October 31, is Sir George Biddell Airy. The shrewd and kindly face of the Astronomer-Royal is well interpreted by the story of his notable career.——The *Geographical Magazine*, which gave in its October number a general map of Afghanistan and the N. W. frontier of India, has in its November issue a much better executed map of the northerly seat of war—that is, of the strip of territory stretching from Attok on the Indus to Bamian on the Kunduz, and including from north to south the Abkhana, Kurram, and intervening passes (N. lat. 33°–35°, E. long. 68°–72°30′). This number of the magazine is rendered more attractive than usual to the general reader by two light sketches of travel, "St. Germain-en-Laye" and "Palermo." ——The event has at last overtaken the rumors of former years of the death of Dr. Johann Georg Kohl, the city librarian of Bremen, who passed away on October 28, at the age of seventy. His memory as a traveller and antiquary is ensured by his numerous and in their day important works. He spent the years 1854–58 in this country.

—The excellent series of book-lists which the Dutch booksellers have long had has been continued by a classed index to the publications of the last twenty-five years, compiled by B. v. d. Meulen. Some interesting statistics are brought out by this subject-arrangement of titles. In the quarter of a century the Dutch Netherlands have absorbed 8,500 theological works, while commerce, the very foundation of their state, has had but 900; 800 original and 1,700 translated novels have been issued, and no doubt read, while the Fine Arts, in which the country was once so famous, have brought forth less than 9 works each year. Various curious mistakes in classification have been noticed by the Dutch critics, of the kind which are inevitable in a list made up from titles alone, without sight of the books. The 'Gospel according to the Spirits' of Allan Kardec, the very hierophant of Spiritualism, appears under Systematic Theology; Pimantel on Probabilities under Insurance; Krummacher's Sermons under Exegetic Theology; and Erasmus's 'Praise of Folly' twice, once under Greek Classics, once under Protestant Dogmatic Theology, and both times, of course, wrongly.

—The uniform excellence of the successive parts of Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians' (Macmillan) is only one of the many signs of the great advance which England has in recent years made in musical culture. Mr. John Hullah has been commissioned to investigate the methods of musical instruction in the public schools on the Continent, and his report is looked forward to eagerly. Meanwhile the general interest in this matter is well shown by a series of articles and letters on musical education which have appeared in recent numbers of the *Times* and other London papers. The facts brought to light by this discussion

reveal a by no means favorable state of affairs ; but here, as elsewhere, the consciousness of one's own shortcomings will be found the first and most important step towards progress. The English still reveal their imperfect musical taste by their great delight in displays of technical skill, especially vocal, and by their predilection for the vast and gigantic, which is as much out of place in the formation of choruses and orchestras as it is justifiable in certain species of architecture. The efforts made some thirty years ago to effect a change for the better by invoking the aid of the public schools are also now shown to have been misdirected and more or less fruitless, from want of proper supervision. Mr. Hullah has pointed out that in most of the schools singing is now taught by rote, or by ear, instead of by note, a system which he justly pronounces a "mere sham" from a musical point of view. This statement, coupled with the knowledge that Parliament makes an annual grant of over £100,000 for teaching singing in public schools, has aroused the indignation of many Englishmen, who now insist that the money should be devoted to some other use. Sir George Bowyer proposes that, instead of indiscriminately teaching all the pupils in public schools to sing, instruction should be given to limited classes only, consisting of those pupils who are endowed with good musical voices and ears. This is a truly remarkable proposition. The object of musical instruction in public schools is not to train talented pupils for the operatic stage or the concert hall, but to develop a taste for music in all those who do not possess it, and thus to bring the masses under the refining influence of the art. The remarkable musical superiority of the Germans is to a great extent due to the excellent training which their public schools give them from the earliest age, and to the accumulated effects of hereditary transmission resulting from this. If the English ever wish to compete with them they must not throw over the whole system because at first great mistakes are made in its application. Sir George Bowyer thinks that the English climate offers an insuperable difficulty to the general development of musical voices ; but here he is again mistaken. The climate of Berlin is no more favorable to the voice than that of London; yet it is at Berlin that the finest choruses in the world are nowadays to be heard, not merely in regard to excellent training, but also as regards sensuous beauty of tone. Careful vocal training, in fact, renders the voice less dependent on climatic influences, and therefore has not only an artistic but also a hygienic value. Moreover, the number of those who are physically incapable of learning music is not so great, either in England or in America, as is commonly supposed. Dr. Lowell Mason reported but a small percentage of such cases, and careful examination would perhaps show that all such individuals are afflicted with what Mr. Grant Allen has called note-deafness—an imperfection in the nervous apparatus of the ear analogous to color-blindness, which is supposed to be due to one of the three sets of retinal nerve-fibres having lost its sensibility.

—The *Atlantic* for December is chiefly notable for the continuation of the more brilliant articles from the last number. Prof. Norton concludes his history of St. Mary of the Flower, devoting his attention mainly to the building of the Dome by Brunelleschi; there are several additional chapters of Mr. Howells's "The Lady of the Aroostook," as charming as the opening ones ; and the second paper by Mr. Brooks Adams on "Oppressive Taxation and its Remedy" pleads for the non-taxation of mortgages and of foreign stocks and for an appeal to a jury in the case of excessive valuation of real estate. He comments severely on some past and proposed expenditures by the city of Boston, makes some striking contrasts of the expenditures by the city with those of Harvard College, and shows some practical modes of retrenchment and of equitable taxation. The article upon "Three Typical Workingmen" is not so striking as the previous contributions by this writer, and nearly every one of experience, probably, can parallel the types he has described. The review of recent novels is excellent, as is also the article, or rather eulogy, on "Sheridan at Winchester." Mr. Richard Grant White continues a recent much-criticised article on "The Nature of Music," and offers further evidence and argument in support of his theory that appreciation of music is conditioned on physical structure, and that music has itself no moral or intellectual content. Other articles are, one which argues that hard times result from our not spending our money but foolishly saving it, one on the Pictures at the Exposition at Paris, and a story by J. W. DeForest. The Contributor's Club is entertaining but brief, and the poetry of average merit.

—The Woodruff expedition has just added another to its long list of prospectuses for its scientific voyage around the world, the present one being more elaborate than any which have preceded it, and fixing the 8th of May next as the date of sailing. Assuming the statement contained in this document to be perfectly correct, the managers have "purchased" a first-class steamship, the *General Werder*, from the North German Lloyd Steamship Company, and now require only to find 250 young men ready and willing to pay $2,500 apiece, to make the voyage a success. A glowing account of the natural wonders to be visited occupies eight pages of the pamphlet, and will no doubt fill many a youthful mind with a desire to become a member of this wonderful company. A judicious silence is observed respecting the surroundings of life on board the ship at sea. If this expedition pretended to be nothing more than what it is, a pleasure trip around the world with a great number of accessories designed to make it as improving to the mind as such a trip can be, there would be little to be said against it. The minds of the young are improved by travel, and whether it is safe to turn a young man loose in a foreign city with 200 companions after the *ennui* of a long voyage is a question which every parent must decide for himself. But not satisfied with this, the expedition makes pretensions of a kind which it is difficult to characterize properly. The sending of these young men round the world purports to be an enterprise of great national importance, worthy of encouragement from the Government and scientific institutions, and affording a rare opportunity for students of science to pursue investigation under competent instructors. It is darkly hinted that the education which a young man can get in our home institutions has many serious defects :

"The powers and faculties are crushed under a mass of merely memorized fact and theory, and at the end of his educational course the young man finds himself unfitted for the work of the actual world, and has to unlearn and learn again before he can find the path to success." "Young men enter life from their course of study with sufficient theoretical knowledge, the practical application of which has to come with many mistakes and a long course of experimental inefficiency."

All this may be true, but it is difficult to regard the idea that the evil is to be remedied by putting the student and professor on board a ship and starting them around the world, in any other light than that of a joke. Yet the sole inducement which the expedition offers to parents, beyond the pleasure trip, is the opportunity which life on board a sea-going vessel offers of avoiding the defects of education on shore. That such an argument should be seriously put forth ought to subject the managers to the ridicule of the community. Every one knows that the facilities for and inducements to study while in the crowded cabin of a ship are of the worst possible class, and that it would be difficult to find a place where close study would be pursued at a greater disadvantage.

—Cassell, Petter & Galpin have issued vol. vi. of Mr. Edward Walford's 'Old and New London,' thus completing the work. The present volume deals with the southern suburbs, and, like its predecessors, it is an industrious compilation from many sources, containing much that is curious if not rare, and very plentifully illustrated with copies of old prints and other authentic pictures of buildings and quarters now removed or transformed, with portraits of eminent personages, etc. Beginning with Southwark, to which nearly a fifth of the book is devoted, we have the history of Barclay's Brewery, of course with the "incident Haynau," as they would say in France, but also with an account of the earlier owner Thrale, and of his wife, the friend of Dr. Johnson. The Doctor, as one of the executors, was present at the sale which transferred the property to David Barclay, and it was on this occasion that he used the famous expression, "Sir, we are not here to sell a parcel of boilers and vats, but the potentiality of growing rich beyond the dreams of avarice." It is thought that the brewery covers part of the site of the Globe Theatre, about which Mr. Walford presently has something to say. Bermondsey follows Southwark, and Rotherhite next succeeds, with its Thames Tunnel ; then Deptford, with its docks, the home of Evelyn, the house of Czar Peter during his ship-building apprenticeship, etc.; then Greenwich, with its Hospital and Observatory ; then Blackheath and all the petty suburbs—Cumberwell, which introduces Tom Hood ; Sydenham, of Crystal-Palace fame ; St. George's Fields, where the Gordon riots occurred and Bedlam is situated ; Blackfriars' Road, with the Surrey Theatre ; Lambeth, with Astley's (about which there are ten pages of highly amusing matter, with divers cuts), the Doultons' pottery, Lambeth Palace and the Lollards' Tower, etc.; Vauxhall, whose gardens are described minutely and at length ; Chiswick, with Hogarth's house, and so *ad finem*. A grand index embraces the whole work. Taken by itself this sixth volume may be called complete, and for desultory reading may be recommended as highly interesting, to say the least. A few plans of the suburbs mentioned accompany the text ; but for subscribers the publishers will issue three large maps of London in 1560, 1720, and at the present day, at a very moderate price.

—Prof. Eiríkr Magnússon, of Cambridge University, England, well known as a co-laborer with the poet William Morris and with George Powell in their English translations of Icelandic sagas and folk-lore, has recently returned from the Scandinavian countries and Finland, whither he was sent by the Cambridge University to gather materials for a proper classification of the runic calendars ("primstaves"). His journey has been a very successful one, and he has reaped a plentiful harvest. He has brought back photographs of two hundred and sixty-five wooden, horn, and bone runestaves. By his investigations he has been enabled to classify the runic calendars by distinct markings into six separate groups —a result that will have an important bearing on the study of the primitive literature of the Teutons. 1. The Norwegian primstave (without runes), long supposed to have originated in that country, Eiríkr Magnússon shows to have been imported from England. 2. The Danish (with runes) distinguishes itself from the Swedish by the form of the runic characters and the type of emblems by which saints' days and festivals are marked. 3. The Swedish (with runes) is characterized by a peculiar type of runic characters and emblems, and the staves also are frequently furnished with the so-called Peter's Problem—a formula which shows how fifteen Christians and fifteen Jews can be so arranged that, when every ninth one is taken to save a sinking ship in a storm, the lot of being thrown overboard always falls to a Jew, and so the Christians are all preserved. 4. The Finnish is characterized by the irregularity of the runes and by exceedingly ornamental emblems, of many of which the signification is not known. 5. The Lapponian is usually made in the form of a book, fashioned from bone or horn. The ornamentation and the emblems are odd, but usually very artistic and tasty. 6. The Tshudic primstave is a short wooden or bone block, having six sides. It is thick in the middle and tapers toward both ends. The Sundays are marked simply by incisions on the edges where two planes meet. The symbols are few and very coarse. It is hoped that many vexed questions in reference to the relation of these Teutonic almanacs to the calendar of Julius Cæsar will now be cleared up, as this will prove a great aid to Scandinavian chronology.

—One of the much mooted points in Provençal literature is the existence of an extensive epical literature. The affirmative was warmly supported by Fauriel in his 'Histoire de la Littérature Provençale,' who adduces as arguments in favor of his theory all the mentions made of special subjects in various Provençal poems. These subjects, however, were common to all Europe in the Middle Ages, and it seems hardly possible that if Provençal poems on these subjects existed they should have disappeared and only be preserved in the works of the *Trouvères*. Fauriel, in the third volume of his history, gives a list of these supposed epical poems, which, however, is far from complete, and the student of this interesting subject will be glad to know that these deficiencies are corrected in a recent German work: 'Ueber die den provenzalischen Troubadours des XII. und XIII. Jahrhunderts bekannten epischen Stoffe,' by Dr. Adolf Birch-Hirschfeld (Halle, 1878). The author has assembled an astonishing number of allusions to the personages of epical poems, many of whom have never been heard of before, and who cannot be connected with any known epical cycle. After a mention of the sources, which consist principally of didactic poems known as *ensenhamens*, the author divides his material into three classes: the first embraces references to antique-classical, Byzantine, and Biblical subjects; the second to the cycle of Brittany; and the third to the French hero legends and other narrative poems belonging to France. The author concludes that in general the knowledge of epical poems came to the Provençals from the north of France, as the great mass of references are shown to allude to French poems which still exist or are known to have once existed. Some degree of independence, he says, existed in the field of the love *Novelle*, and we must regard as Provençal property the *Novelle* of Andrieu of Paris and the Queen of France. Traces of other short narrative poems are not wanting, as those of Bertolai, Linaure, and Massot; to these are to be added perhaps Virgil myths (of Italian-Byzantine origin). Finally, it is probable that the Provençals first independently put into poetic form Byzantine materials.

—A correspondent writing from Frederickstaed, Santa Cruz, W. I., under date of November 1, sends us an interesting account of the late disastrous uprising of the blacks in that Danish possession. The chief incidents of bloodshed and arson have been already made public through the daily press, but the following seems worth printing as an illustration of the working of gradual emancipation:

"The grievances of the plantation negroes were in many respects undoubtedly genuine, and should have been redressed long since. The Labor Act of the island was the cause of most of the troubles. This act, made in 1849, was intended to cover the transition period from slavery to freedom. Although intended to be provisional, it has been in force ever since that time, and has been strictly carried out until very lately. By it the laborers on the sugar estates are required to enter into a contract *for a year* or to leave the island; they are not allowed to remain unemployed. Passes are necessary before the negroes can leave, and every obstacle is thrown in the way of departure. The negroes are required to carry out their part of the contract faithfully, and all of the existing Governmental machinery is used to see the law executed. The rate of wages is established by the act; first-class laborers, either male or female, being required to work five days of the week at ten cents a day, and in addition a small allowance of provisions, a house, and a lot of ground are given. Extra labor is paid at double rates. From this pay three cents a week are deducted for medical attendance, and it is in the power of the manager of the estate to fine the laborer for offences either real or imaginary. As far as I can learn, the wages have been paid regularly at the end of each week. The whole system theoretically left the blacks on the estates in a transition state, neither slave nor free, but by its practical workings it was a mild system of slavery. It is but fair to say that the planters were willing to have the restriction placed upon the rate of wages abolished, but insisted upon the yearly contract.

"The entire white population of the island is about 2,000, while the plantation hands alone number more than 2,000. With this great difference in numbers it is surprising that so little precaution was taken against a rising of the negroes, and against all the evils possible from a servile insurrection. The establishment of a central Government factory, modelled after the *usine* of the French islands, has indirectly been one of the causes of the late troubles. By the establishment of this factory it was intended to separate the manufacture of sugar from the cultivation of the cane, and in this way to get better results in both cases. The idea was an excellent one, but the execution has been bungling and unsatisfactory. One of the results of the mismanagement has been that laborers at the factory have been paid very high wages, thus breaking the Labor Act and demoralizing the labor on the sugar estates. The grant given to the factory by the home Government required the abolition of the Labor Act within three years; but the blacks supposed the Labor Act would be abolished at once, and on finding it still in force this October felt much aggrieved.

"The labor question, though much exaggerated by the peculiar state of affairs in Santa Cruz, is not a troublesome question on that island alone, but throughout the whole of the West Indies. The abundance of food, the slender requirements for clothing or shelter, and the indolence of the blacks make the supplying of steady, prolonged labor like that needed in the cane-field a difficult matter. Besides, sugar from the beet-root is coming into active competition with the cane-sugar, with labor, climate, and proximity to market in favor of the former. Although the negroes on the neighboring islands are better treated than those on Santa Cruz, still the whites there are none the less insecure in their feelings. It has not been long since the negro 'insurrection' in Jamaica was 'stamped out' by Gov. Eyre; negro riots occurred recently in Barbadoes; Tortola has passed through the experience of Santa Cruz; and at Porto Rico the Spanish authorities felt the danger of the Santa Cruz outbreak so much that they embarked 300 cavalry ready to start at once in case their offer of assistance was accepted by the Danish Governor. The damages resulting from the destruction of property on the island by the rioters have been estimated at about one million of dollars, which may not seem great; but the loss is really almost crushing, coming as it does after a succession of bad seasons. The one certain result of this disturbance will be the abolition or modification of the Labor Act."

MISSOURI LAWYERS.*

THE fact that the United States are fast attaining a respectable age is brought very strongly to mind by this book. Despite the famous compromise of 1820, which has passed into the region of history, Missouri seems a very new State when compared with the original thirteen. She is still so young that only one of her Senators was born within her limits, and it is rather startling, therefore, to find that so late an addition to the Union has a legal history extending over nearly three-quarters of a century; it makes us realize that the youth of the Eastern communities has departed.

Judge Bay's volume gives a very good idea of the development of Missouri in many respects, and his sketches are entertaining in more ways than one. The book itself, the characters portrayed, and, above all, the literary style, are very typical and peculiar. The style particularly, both as to words and grammar, will afford a subject of curious enquiry to the future philologist. The prevailing characteristic is size. Expression and thought alike smack strongly of a race living by the longest river in the world and in a valley capable of sustaining countless millions of human beings. There is something so genuine and yet so funny about it all that it gives the book an interest apart from its intrinsic value. In the first place, the author always refers to himself in the first person plural with a persis-

* 'Reminiscences of the Bench and Bar of Missouri. By W. V. N. Bay, late Judge of the Supreme Court of Missouri.' St. Louis: F. H. Thomas & Co. 1878.

tency and frequency that recall the anti-Jacobin sneer at Erskine's speeches, which always exhausted the font of the capital I. This editorial plural turns up on every page, in narrating all sorts of circumstances, and in the strangest combinations. It makes one feel as if these lives were a constant succession of such editorial interviews as appear in the comic paragraphs of the Burlington *Hawkeye*. Then, we find that there are apparently few or no women in Missouri, but only "ladies," and generally "ladies of great intelligence, refinement, beauty, worth, and fine literary tastes." No one in Missouri ever "went" or "settled" or "remained" anywhere. Everybody "located." It is needless to add that there are no "situations" in Missouri, geographically speaking, but only "locations." Almost every man of any education at all appears to have been a "profound classical scholar," or "a brilliant historian or poet or student of literature," or at least a remarkable linguist. Whenever a death is recorded the author indulges in brief reflections of the very sublimest kind, and usually winds up with some such apt quotation as "Death loves a shining mark"; "What shadows we are," etc. In the midst of the fine language it is rather refreshing to come across the statement that Benton was the "right-bower" of Jackson's Administration, and that a certain nameless attorney was a "shyster."

These little peculiarities of expression do not, however, in the least injure the real interest of the book. The sketches must include almost every man of the slightest importance who has practised at the Missouri bar within half a century. Almost all held public offices of some sort, and many served under the National Government. Very few of them, however, ever attained a national reputation, the great majority having only the narrowest local notoriety. Among those who became known beyond the borders of the State were Benton, *facile princeps*, whose biography is the first of the series; David Barton, the first Senator, whose career was cut short by his advocacy of Mr. Adams in 1825; John Scott, who gave the vote of Missouri to Mr. Adams at that time and thereby met his political death; Gamble, the war-governor; Edward Bates, Mr. Lincoln's attorney-general, and Frank Blair, whose career is still fresh in every one's memory. The most striking point about the legal fraternity in Missouri, as a class, is that they all had military titles. Many were "generals," still more "colonels," and few were so poor as not to be "majors" or "captains." If the "judges" are added, it may be safely said that untitled lawyers were so scarce in Missouri that the mere profession was almost equivalent to an order of nobility. In the beginning a lawyer had to be familiar with the civil and Spanish law bequeathed by the previous proprietors as well as with the common law.

The effect of this mingling of systems must have been far from good. Life in Missouri while yet a Territory and when first a State was wild and rough in the extreme. The wager of battle, without much regard probably to its antiquity as a custom, was the prevailing mode of settling disputes among the population. The force of a judicial decision was much what it was in England when the Paston Letters were written. If the successful party could gather sufficient physical force to execute a judgment he was likely to be satisfied, but not otherwise. Down to a very late period, Judge Bay informs us, "court-day" was the time when the inhabitants met to decide their differences in the prize-ring, and one learned judge, who took a great interest in the manly art, was in the habit of adjourning his court to be present at the fighting. The rude and unsettled state of society was, of course, exemplified by the lawyers. They were apparently much addicted to drinking, and not a few were extremely dissolute. This, however, was but little regarded. Many of them were noted duellists, and all seem to have been ready to become so. Colonel Benton "had the reputation of being a duellist," though the author says "we know he was opposed to it on principle." This reputation was hardly without foundation, as Benton killed one man (five of whose brothers, by the way, died by violence) on Bloody Island, near St. Louis, and fought several other duels. Some of these duels were of a very savage character, as in the case of Spencer Pettis, member elect of Congress, and one Major Biddle. Biddle was near-sighted, so they fought at five paces, and not unnaturally both were killed at the first fire. Another rather striking case was that of Judge Leonard, a New-England man who settled in a portion of Missouri where there was a strong prejudice against "Yankees, their puritanical education, and their aversion to duelling." This prejudice found expression in one Major Berry, who, being a very large man, laid hold of Leonard, who was very small, and horse-whipped him. This Leonard resented, and, getting over his scruples, called Berry out and put a rifle-bullet through his heart—an act which he always told his wife he never regretted.

Shirts appear to have been the cause of many incidents n legal life, as they were, seemingly, not thoroughly well recognized in Missouri. One gentleman was the hero of the story of putting on six shirts one over the other, so little was he accustomed to the laborious habit of changing them. David Barton, when passing the night at a friend's house, was offered a shirt, which seems to have been an article of hospitality. This particular shirt had a cotton body and a linen bosom, "which struck Mr. Barton's sense of propriety." He at first hesitated about putting it on at all, but then concluded to put it on *back in front*. Having effected this change, he came out adjusting the collar and said: "Look here, S., this shirt is a d—d fraud, and I don't mean to be a party to it." Judge Tompkins, of the Supreme Court, "who dressed very plain but never could tolerate slovenliness in others," heard one day a long argument in a case by a lawyer named Mendell. About the time of adjourning, Judge Tompkins interrupted the counsel by saying: "Mr. Mendell, it is impossible for this court to see any law through as dirty a shirt as you have on, and this court will now adjourn until ten o'clock to-morrow morning, to give you an opportunity to change your linen." This is a very mild example of the language, manners, and habits of the Missouri judges, although Judge Bay says there was never any loss of real dignity. There is one rather striking example of this kind in the case of a learned judge who always drank a pint of whiskey before holding court. If he exceeded this allowance the author says he was apt to be confused, and this led to both court and counsel "perpetrating a good deal of mother wit." When the author was admitted to the bar he passed two days in fuddling with brandy Judge Tompkins, who examined him. On another occasion the author, a friend named S., and one Judge Ansell were forced to occupy a room together in a crowded hotel. There was a great disturbance in the night, which on enquiry was found to be caused by an attempt on the part of Mr. S. to strangle Judge Ansell. The author, however, explained in facetious terms that his friend S. had delirium tremens, nothing more; and the judge, receiving this statement without any mark of surprise, assisted the author to keep his unlucky friend awake during the remainder of the night, and the next day they all went on their way together. The members of the Missouri bar appear to have sworn freely, and the author has not attempted either to disguise or to soften their language in this respect. Mr. Peyton R. Hayden, for example, "indulged largely in profane language, but his profanity was not of the kind which shocks one's sensibility," and the author gives the following anecdote as characteristic of Mr. Hayden's "harmless profanity." A Methodist preacher chanced to look over Hayden's shoulder one day in court when that gentleman was taking notes of the opposing speech with the intention of replying. This is what the Methodist read: "By God! he has travelled out of the record. By God! I will travel out of the record too." The preacher thereupon asked Hayden if he swore in court, and the latter replied at once that any one who said he did was "a d—d liar." The book is full of such anecdotes incidental to the subjects, and interspersed by the author from his own experience.

The general tone of the book is highly eulogistic and always grandiloquent, but there is at the same time a good deal of frank and shrewd criticism. Yet the class caricatured by Dickens as alluding to everybody as "One of the most remarkable men in the country, sir!" is not wholly extinct, and one cannot but wonder by what tests intellectual ability is tried in Missouri when it is stated that Gideon Granger was a "man of transcendent abilities and one of the most profound men of his day." The immense political importance of lawyers in a half-civilized community, the extraordinary mixture of races in early Missouri history, the desperate struggle between the Virginia and New England elements for the possession of the State in 1820, and finally the awful condition of affairs in 1860, have much light thrown on them by Judge Bay's biographies. There are also a few hitherto unpublished letters given relating to the Burr conspiracy, and they confirm in every point Wilkinson's complicity in the plot, and his subsequent betrayal of his leader. Despite the superficial magnificence of expression one cannot but feel kindly towards the author, who is always genial and honest and well-intentioned, while many of his incidental opinions—as, for example, on trial by jury—are sensible and thoughtful.

RECENT POETRY.*

JOAQUIN MILLER has not grown under the influence of culture and civilization and longer practice in writing into the poet it was hoped he would become. The 'Songs of Italy' have the same spontaneous vigor, the same vividness and originality of imagery, the same lack of pro-

* 'Songs of Italy. By Joaquin Miller.' Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1878.

portion, of taste and thought, the same excellences and defects, as the 'Songs of the Sierras,' although their distribution is perhaps more even. Italy would move the heart of the dullest of poets, and she has kindled in him no common emotion; but it is plain that he has lost in his change of subject. His first poems will remain the earliest and thus far the best poetic embodiment of the romantic elements in the pioneer days of the Plains, the Sierras, and the great wastes, and the only poetic description of their strange and impressive scenery. As such they were valuable, notwithstanding their open and manifold faults. In Italy he has felt the romance of Venice and St. Mark's, and the desolation of Torcello and the Roman plains. He has, as was to be expected, his interest mainly in the picturesque life of the lower classes, the traditional bandit, the duelling cavalier, the ungoverned passions whose working he has seen or fancied; and his complaint of the age of gold, the lack of love, his own unsatisfied loneliness, is a constant strain; but the poetic result of these motives is less than before. He has suffered, too, in that his verses often recall in thought and phrase Swinburne and Browning. "The Dove of St. Mark" is a subject which needs the tenderest handling in order to avoid disgust, and Rossetti only has succeeded in this line in his poem of "Jenny," which it recalls. "The Ideal and the Real," a poem of the same order and subject, is worse. "A Garibaldian's Story" and "Implora" seem to us the most excellent of this collection, and "Recollection" is perhaps a fair example of the poet's normal work. He is at best a poet who requires great charity; his faults are on the surface, his excellences are less prominent and constant; and in this volume the reader will often be offended by phrases, crudities in thought, and suggestions of the most unpleasant things, and at the end may feel that he has paid dearly for what pleasure he has got. We shall have to bear with the most abnormal moods toward women of the street; to hear much nonsense about the search for the twin soul who was made the poet's mate before the stars were sown, and whom he finds in a Venetian *bagnio*; to listen to the poet's preference for the "dashing, bold robber" over the "shopman," and much of the same sort. For ourselves, we got pleasure and profit from the reading, but we wait for the time when the poet shall return to the forests and mountains of which he first sang.

Mr. Bayard Taylor has given us in 'Prince Deukalion' an allegoric sketch of the spiritual history of mankind from the time when the pagan was passing into the Christian age; and, as he informs us in his argument, he has employed the old device "of making personages stand for powers and principles, yet (he earnestly desireth) without losing that distinctness of visage and those quick changes of blood which keep them near to the general heart of man." It would in any case require great skill to make us see a real woman in a being who has been labelled at the beginning the Mediæval Ecclesiastical System; and neither in her case nor in the other characters, whose principle of life is not so plain, has Mr. Taylor breathed into his creations any very vigorous life or brought about any illusion. Like Prince Deukalion himself before his "airy substance" becomes incarnated in actual humanity towards the close of the last act, all his associates hold in their veins a scant and pale ichor unreddened by any "pulse of blood." It is necessary, therefore, to accept the poem as an allegory and not as a drama in any but a formal sense. It is in four divisions, each of which mirrors associated phases of human feeling, achievement, or aspiration at different eras—the early Christian, the mediæval, the present, and the future. In attempting thus to write of the highest spiritual result in the past and the highest spiritual hope of the future, Mr. Taylor has won the success which a man of talent could attain by a vigorous *tour de force*. There is much clear thought, direct expression, and melodious verse, particularly in the choruses, which seem to us the best work in the volume. His creed, however, is not a new one, nor is it enforced with any new vigor, clearness, or beauty of utterance. The promised land which he looks forward to is one where all human functions will enjoy energetic activity, as appears from the language of Agathon (Child of Prince Deukalion, the Ideal Man, and of Pyrrha, the Ideal Woman) to Buddha, who bids him "learn to renounce"—

> "But I *accept*—even all this conscious life
> Gives in its fullest measure—gladness, health,
> Clean appetite, and wholeness of my claim
> To knowledge, beauty, aspiration, power!
> Joy follows action here; and action bliss
> Hereafter!"

Or, stating this legitimacy of all desires in another way than by prophecy of the blissful state wherein they may ultimately be allowed, the author blames Christian faiths for their dwarfing mankind by repression either on the side of sense or of knowledge; or, stating it in another way still, he apprehends no loss to any one through exercise of liberty, as where Agathon says to Calchas (the Religion of the North):

> "Nay, Priest, thou warrest with pure intelligence
> That rays all whither from its central flame,
> And reaches God on Power's or Beauty's side
> As on Devotion's! . . .
> Denial cannot 'scape him, sacrilege stray
> Beyond his pity, nor by any path
> The seeking spirit miss."

As showing the lights and shadows in which the past and future lie in the sight of this school, the book is valuable; as a poem, it has passages, like the vision of Prince Deukalion, of force and beauty; but we doubt whether it will advance Mr. Taylor's claim to be an original poet. If one would see how a poet treats a similar theme, and would contrast the work of genius with the utmost that talent can achieve, let him read the 'Prometheus Unbound' of Shelley.

The poems of Mrs. Sarah Helen Whitman will always interest the curious in literature as the work of the woman to whom Poe was affianced not long before his death, and those in this volume which relate to him, beside their extrinsic romantic interest, are the most impassioned and vigorous, we think, that the volume contains. Twenty-five years ago some of the poems here printed were issued in a small book entitled 'Hours of Life, and Other Poems,' and to these are now added as many more written in later years, including one written at the age of seventy-five. The earlier seem to us the better poems, and they show a remarkable power of natural description, strong and pure sentiment, and a freshness of impression which is rare among our minor poets. Here and there, naturally enough, one catches echoes from the peculiar music of Poe's verse, but all beside is original and seems to have sprung directly from the experience of the writer. All is not equally valuable, but we are sure no one can read without pleasure the natural descriptions in the early poems, the verses to Poe, and in the latter portion "The Portrait," "Proserpine to Pluto in Hades," or "Night Wanes."

'Apple-Blossoms' are the poems of two children who have written them "for the family circle," which has published them as an expression of child-life. The earliest were written at the age of nine, the latest apparently at the age of fifteen in one case and of twelve in the other. They are certainly remarkable productions in view of the circumstances. They describe pleasantly and simply the aspect of inland scenery, the pleasure of children in the spring-time, the birds, the arbutus, the gentian; and frequently in reading we found humming in our memory

> "the hour
> Of splendor in the grass, of glory in the flower."

The indoor delights are also sung, and there is a notable absence of childish moralizing. Two portraits of the children appeal to the kindness of the reader, and these, serving as an introduction, will commend the volume to children of a like age with the authors, and we doubt not that they will enjoy it.

Mr. Harvey Rice, who puts forth 'Select Poems,' appears to be of Western lands, although his book has the imprint of an Eastern firm. He rejoices in the West, although his native State is dearer to him, and he foresees the time of "happy millions," of "cities set on hill and plain like gems of art," of telegraph wires, of the decadence of the East, and like circumstances,

> "While startling rolls the frantic car
> And bannered glides the gallant boat."

The time of "the frantic car" as a regular mode of transit in the West we trust is far distant, nor have we ever heard it before mentioned as among the prominent promised blessings of the broad prairies. Other poems are devoted to a tour at Mt. Vernon, various natural objects and moral sentiments; a few of them are graceful, and there is one curious attempt at wit in the form of punning upon "the mystical vision of man," but the author was hard put to it when he indited the following irreverent stanzas:

> "What a mystical vision is he,
> With his hands and his feet
> Pierced with 'nails' like his Lord on tree,
> And a 'beard' like the wheat!
>
> "What a mystical vision is he
> When a 'lid' shuts his eye,
> And his 'ghost' pays to Charon a fee
> That is stamped with a 'die'!"

We suppose this to be an attempt at wit, but it is not clear that the author did not attach meaning to the first lines.

'Prince Deukalion: A Lyrical Drama By Bayard Taylor.' Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1878.

'Poems by Sarah Helen Whitman.' Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1879.

'Apple-Blossoms. Verses of two children, Elaine Goodale, Dora Read Goodale.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1878.

'Select Poems. By Harvey Rice.' Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1878.

'Guatemozin : A Drama' is a story of Mexico in the time of Cortez. It does not show any great strength, but, on the other hand, it never falls below mediocrity. It has the romantic interest which attaches to all tales of that time ; but one does not feel any great admiration for the heroes, or any great contempt for the villains. Some scenes are very well executed, and all are free from affectation ; the merit of the work is of a negative rather than of a positive character.

With 'The Vision of Echard, and Other Poems' we close our list. With his familiar excellence and humility Whittier celebrates the local traditions of Eastern Massachusetts, strikes the chord of patriotism in "In the Old South," "Lexington," and the "Centennial Hymn," gives the meed of honor to Thiers, Halleck, and Bartlett, and throughout all holds up the same liberal ideal of life and reveals the same charitable and almost sacred spirit. Here is his "Response, 1877," to the friends who honored him :

"Beside that milestone where the level sun,
Nigh unto setting, sheds his last, low rays
On word and work irrevocably done,
Life's blending threads of good and ill outspun,
I hear, O friends ! your words of cheer and praise,
Half doubtful if myself or otherwise :
Like him who, in the old Arabian joke,
A beggar slept and crowned caliph woke.
Thanks not the less. With not unglad surprise
I see my life-work through your partial eyes ;
Assured, in giving to my home-taught songs
A higher value than of right belongs,
You do but read between the written lines
The finer grace of unfulfilled designs."

KITCHEN REFORM.*

THE work whose title we give below is a reprint of the 'Official Hand-book of the South Kensington Training School for Cookery.' We noticed the English edition upon its first appearance, and commended the remarkable clearness and apparent excellence of its receipts. It is a good sign that the third American edition of the reprint has been called for within a few months ; and as a praiseworthy effort is now making to introduce the South Kensington method of teaching cookery into this country, it will not be inappropriate to call some further attention to the peculiarities of these "Lessons" and of the school in which they originated.

The South Kensington Training School for Cookery, of the Science and Art Department, has been the pioneer of a movement which seems now to have become pretty firmly established in England, and which aims to make practical cookery a matter of regular school instruction among the middle and lower classes of the people. The managers of it had their attention early directed to the subject of cookery mainly with a view to securing greater economy of diet among the working classes, by avoiding waste and showing how provisions may be made to go further by better modes of preparation. But it was soon found that any effort of this kind, in order to attain its object even partially, must be systematic, and provide for the extension of its agencies and influence. It was recognized that if anything adequate was to be done to mitigate the barbarism and elevate the character of popular cookery by showing the people how it might be improved, the first thing necessary was to prepare qualified teachers for the work. The Training School for Cookery was therefore made a Normal School, and it provided not only for teaching girls how to cook, but also especially for training young women to convey the art to others. It is the success of this plan that has given an impulse to the subject throughout the country. A large number of teachers, well trained and regularly certificated, have been sent out, thus opening a new avocation for the sex, creating an interest in an important subject, and qualifying great numbers of women to prepare an economical, varied, and healthful diet for the family. These efforts, too, have met with more general favor and appreciation than was expected. On a subject in relation to which there is a great deal of popular prejudice it was anticipated that the attempt to send teachers through the community to meddle with domestic affairs and old family habits would be resented as an impertinence, or at least received with disfavor. On the contrary, the teachers of cookery appear to have been everywhere welcomed ; lectures upon the subject have become common in all the larger towns, and regular cooking schools have been established in many places, either independently or in connection with the Government system of public instruction.

But before teachers could be graduated from the Normal Training School, and made competent to go out and establish other schools successfully, the directors had first to elaborate and verify a method of practical teaching. Nothing of this kind had before been wrought out, and it was by no means an easy task. There was no difficulty, of course, in applying the usual school methods of recitations and lectures to the acquirement of information concerning cookery, but all this had been done before, and to very little practical purpose. As chemistry can only be properly acquired in the laboratory, so cookery can only be properly learned in the kitchen ; and in both cases the students must practise the necessary manipulations, and learn to *do* things as well as to understand how they are done. The South Kensington establishment is, therefore, simply a series of kitchens arranged for graded courses of culinary practice. There is an apartment called the demonstration-room, where the students take certain general preliminary instructions from the teacher, such as may be needful for entering directly upon the actual work. Each pupil is then given a place in the kitchen and begins a methodical course of practical cookery. In what manner this should be organized and conducted, so as to make the work feasible for the teacher, effectual for the pupil, and economical for the institution, was the problem the South Kensington managers had before them. A strong teaching force was required, since each instructor could attend to but a small group of pupils ; but the end was compassed by the Normal feature of the school, in which students were put to teaching as soon as they were suitably prepared. Another difficulty quickly arose in the impossibility of making any oral directions a sufficient guide to the details of work. Every grade of capacity and incapacity had to be provided for, and every expedient resorted to to make each lesson a success. The managers drew up printed directions for preparing dishes, which were furnished on separate sheets to each pupil at each lesson. All the steps to be taken were carefully stated, numbered in their true order, and put down in the plainest language so as to prevent even the dullest from going wrong. The object aimed at was the utmost simplicity possible in the directions for carrying on the work. Each printed sheet was thus the full and minute receipt for a dish, but it was much more than a mere receipt in its ordinary acceptance. The relation of the receipts of this volume to those of our current cook-books is very much that of science to common knowledge ; they are precise, accurate, and methodical, while those of previous cook-books are generally vague and loose, and wanting in the orderliness of their directions. The training-school receipts thus became valuable lessons in practical cookery. The attention of the South Kensington managers and teachers was carefully concentrated upon this part of their work, and the lessons were simplified, extended, and improved by a long course of experiments and of trials with pupils of all grades. When the directions were perfected as far as possible, the sheets that had been separately employed for practice were combined into a volume and published as the official hand-book of the school. It is to this thoroughness of preparation and equipment of the teachers, who knew exactly what they were able to do, that the success of the schools subsequently established in different parts of the country is to be ascribed.

The volume they have produced has undoubted merit independent of the agency of teachers specially trained in its method. It is the simplest guide to kitchen operations that has yet been produced, and may be successfully followed by any persons of common sense, as nothing is taken for granted, and the directions are explicit and complete. The book goes, perhaps, about as far as print can go to help those who wish to instruct themselves in the culinary preparation of food. It is, of course, English in many of its features ; but beef and bread, and the principles of good cookery, are not monarchical monopolies. Many American articles of diet are not mentioned in the book, but its two hundred "Lessons" cover broad ground, and, dealing chiefly with staple dishes, they offer abundant and pertinent examples for general practice, and the work claims nothing else. The American edition has been revised by its editor, Miss Eliza A. Youmans, who was a student at South Kensington and familiar with the teaching there. The essential character of the lessons is unchanged, but there was a redundancy and repetition in the form of statement, and other peculiarities growing out of the circumstances of the teaching, that were misunderstood in this country, and have accordingly been omitted. Miss Youmans contributes an instructive preface on the history and claims of the work, and has appended to the volume a valuable essay on the "Principles of Diet in Health and Disease," by Dr. Thomas K. Chambers.

Any step forward, however slight, in the direction of kitchen reform is to be cordially commended ; and if it shall prove that the founders of

'Guatemozin : A Drama. By Malcolm MacDonald.' Philadelphia : J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1878.

'The Vision of Echard, and Other Poems. By John Greenleaf Whittier.' Boston : Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1878.

* 'Lessons in Cookery. Hand-book of the National Training School for Cookery (South Kensington, London). To which is added the Principles of Diet in Health and Disease, by Thomas K. Chambers, M.D. Edited by Eliza A. Youmans.' New York : D. Appleton & Co.

these training schools for cookery have made a real advance in the herculean task of rescuing the kitchen from its traditional degradation, they will be entitled to an eminent place among the benefactors of mankind. It may be very properly added here that an effort is now making to introduce the South Kensington method of teaching and practising the art of cookery into this country. Miss M. L. Dods, a graduate of the London school who has had experience in establishing a similar institution in Edinburgh, has just given a course of demonstration lectures in New York, and hopes to be able to form practice-classes in which pupils shall be set to work systematically. It is to be hoped that in this she will meet with liberal encouragement so as to give the method a fair trial here. Intelligent ladies who have attended her demonstrations speak highly of her capacity both as a teacher and a cook, and are very favorably impressed with the method of training which she so pleasantly and successfully represents.

Children's Books.—In juvenile literature the changes of fashion are certainly to be regretted. This truth is brought home to every one who seeks to provide the young with reading and has not time to examine the fresh productions of our publishers. How few are the standard works in which he would fain take refuge ; and to what bookstore could he go to find those favorites of our mothers and grandmothers as regularly displayed as the season of gift-making comes round ? They can all be had by searching, but then comes the choice of the edition, and who is to be one's guide ? We know where not to go for Miss Alcott's works or Oliver Optic's or Mayne Reid's ; but where shall we turn for the best edition of 'Sanford and Merton' or the 'Mother's Assistant' or 'Robinson Crusoe' or 'Æsop' ? As we recently remarked, the 'American Catalogue' partly answers this question ; it displays all the editions before us, and to some extent enables us to guess at the best. But, so far as we are aware, no bookseller makes it a point to keep in stock a reasonable assortment of juvenile classics.

These remarks have been prompted by the edition of Bewick's 'Select Fables' just issued by Longmans, Green & Co., London—a limited edition, we believe, presaging a limited demand, though it would be a hardship not to be able to procure this book at any time. We know what masters have since Bewick's day been employed to illustrate Æsop ; Tenniel's grace, Griset's fancy, Herrick's and Weir's accomplished animal delineation, are each and all well in their way, and Bewick in Saint's edition of 1784 (from which this present is a reprint) was far from having reached the incomparable skill he afterwards displayed both in design and in engraving. Still, there is a simplicity and directness about these cuts which brings them close to the childish apprehension, while some of the brute figures and not a few of the landscapes are among the best that Bewick ever executed ; and, in all, the fulness either of incident or scenic detail is quite beyond the meaningless wash of the modern draughtsman's background. The text is antiquated in the sense of being too elevated for the very young, but, as Mr. Pearson undertakes to prove in the preface, it is probably Goldsmith's, and in reading aloud it is no disadvantage for a child to hear occasionally a word he does not understand except by the context, or will have explained to him before the reading proceeds. Decidedly, the artistic and the literary-historic associations of the 'Select Fables' outweigh all its archaisms.

It remains to say, bibliographically, that this work first appeared in 1871, and that then as now Bewick's original blocks were used to print from. The differences are that the editor's preface has been revised to advantage, is less marred with italics and positiveness of statement, contains a few more specimens of cuts from other works of Bewick (but also drops some), and, what is a great consideration, presents a portrait of the artist. On the other hand the cuts are less evenly printed, as a whole, than in the edition of 1871, and for some reason unknown to us ten of them have different borders allotted to them. We may add, for the benefit of those to whom this edition may be inaccessible, that copies of the edition of 1871 are obtainable at Geo. Routledge & Sons' in this city.

When we turn to nursery literature certainly we do not recall a more sumptuous edition of 'Mother Goose's Melodies' than that reissued by Houghton, Osgood & Co. One only marvels that colored pictures were thought capable of enhancing the worth of a book already equipped with an historical introduction on the Boston "Goose or Vergoose Family," and antiquarian notes, and nine of the jingles set to music, with as many woodcut designs at their head. But the publishers evidently know how to be as generous as the editor, who does not stick at including among the "Melodies" a parody on a well-known piece of Charles Mackay's, nonsense verses from Edwin Lear, and even prose *Mährchen*. For a pure text of Mother Goose, with no admixture, one must seek further and will probably fare better as regards price. It is not to be found, by the way, in Mr. J. F. Goodridge's 'Mother Goose in White' (Lee & Shepard), which is quite as heterogeneous as the preceding in its collection of rhymes, and witless and inartistic in its fifty full-page blackboard designs.

Mrs. Charles Ellis's 'Summer in Normandy' (Geo. Routledge & Sons) calls for a full measure of praise. It is a well-bred, motherly account of an English family's sojourn at a French farm-house not far from Mont St. Michel in the eventful summer of 1870. It opens with a glimpse of the home in England, and ends with a description of a Scotch farm-house, while all the rest of the book tells of the quiet life across the Channel, in a region of wells but no pumps ; of caps that have come in from Paris, and are no longer "the real old Norman caps," "rising a foot from the head, stiffened with starch and wire"; of cuttle-fish bones, of samphire gatherers and fishermen. Of course a visit was made to the Mount and its castle, and there was a picnic to the sandy shore "said to have been once an enormous forest, and if you dig deep enough you may find remains of trees in the sand," and where the children gather cockles without digging. Then come the rumors of war, and slowly after these the war itself, applauded by these rustics till the humbug of the *tout va bien* telegrams is revealed ; then the surrender at Sedan, when the villagers follow Paris in proclaiming the Republic, and in pulling down all the Imperial signs and eagles. At the dread name of the Republic all the English incontinently take to flight, in spite of the entreaty and assurances of the Imperial sub-prefect ; the Ellises do not lag behind, and on their way to Cherbourg pass amid warlike scenes of sad omen. All this is a useful picture of French character, in peace and in the greatest of national trials, to set before our boys and girls. Such of them as know a little French will get along best with the phrases here and there quoted by Mrs. Ellis.

More distinctly a child's story is that called 'Little Speckly, or, The Adventures of a Chicken, told by Herself,' a fable of French origin, and very good and wholesome in every way (Routledge). This extraordinary fowl, who escapes the pot with unvarying success amid all her shifting experiences in high and low, city and barnyard and forest life, would be perfectly happy but for the acquired knowledge that she has no soul. She contrives, however, to furnish many a salutary lesson to those who have souls in the course of her entertaining narrative, and may well become as an authoress the pet that she began and ended by being on account of her resemblance to a partridge.

'The Chicken Market and Other Fairy Tales,' by Prof. Henry Morley, with illustrations by Charles G. Bennett (Cassell, Petter & Galpin), is a reprint of stories published several years ago. Some of them are beautiful, some ingenious, but they are not true fairy tales of the old sort ; they lack lightness and variety of movement, and are often simply the grotesque development of some single fancy to its ultimate results, in the conditions and laws of the new world, which the truth of the fancy would make necessary; but, worst of all, they have a moral. Of course in every fairy tale there is a silken thread of reason that winds in and out through all the elusive transformations in the unreason of fairyland, but it is never obtrusive, it does not tell a child it is there to make him good any more than a sea-breeze tells him it is there to make him healthy. Prof. Morley, it is true, has sometimes sheathed the moral so deftly that only a mind trained in the metempsychoses of metaphor will discover it, but, to make up for this, he has sprinkled in here and there a story of a single page whose moral is in A B C characters, and ordinarily it is written in big letters everywhere. This must be considered a blemish in fairy tales, the office of which is to quicken the imagination rather than develop the conscience, and besides this he occasionally presumes a considerably larger acquaintance with life than is general among children who read fairy tales—as, for example, is the case, we believe, where he talks about playing pool-billiards ; but the collection is much better, as a whole, than most that fall from the pens of modern writers, and if it should do anything to regain for fairy tales the place in education which they have yielded to primers of machines and "real things," it will have contributed to a welcome work.

'Play Days, a Book of Stories for Children,' by Sarah O. Jewett (Houghton, Osgood & Co.), contains brief and pleasantly-told stories without invention and with staring morals. Dolls, kittens, playhouses, the histories of buttons, Crusoeing on a small scale, and like matters are the subjects, which make the book, consequently, one for girls especially, and doubtless, if they are good-natured, it will have a mild medicinal ef-

fect upon their moral sense. On the other hand, H. C. Barkley's 'My Boyhood: a Story for Boys' (E. P. Dutton & Co.) refreshingly goes to the other extreme and is as free as possible from nonsensical purism. The tale purports to be true, and in it the author relates his adventures with his dogs and horses, the little incidents which occurred in his sports, of which he was very fond, and the peccadilloes which he seems to have enjoyed with a becoming satisfaction. The scene is laid in a clergyman's family in the eastern counties of England, and one gets by the way characteristics of the community, sketches of individual peculiarities, and glimpses of such soberer life as cannot be kept altogether from children's eyes. The ideal which the book will incite its readers to reach is the being a rough rider, a strong swimmer, and a dead shot—an out-of-door, noisy, adventurous existence.

'Prairie Days; or, The Boys and Girls of Osego,' by Mary B. Sleight (E. P. Dutton & Co.), is a story of childlife in a family which was forced by misfortune to go West, and so we are introduced to log-huts, rattlesnakes, Indians, and the days before the railroads destroyed frontier life in Illinois; but this local flavor is soon lost, and in the larger part of the volume the scene might as well have been laid anywhere in America. The children, by a modern improvement on the old-style Sunday-school book, are not always good, but good at one remove—that is, they have their faults and follies, but are immediately sorry, freely confess, and never do so any more. They honor their father and their mother, delight in farm-work and house-work, are kind to all sorts of people, and in general all goes as merrily as could be desired in a well-regulated family into which no native bad nature has intruded. Possibly the depth of degradation into which Hugh is thrown by his first college escapade is a little overstated; possibly Maud is a trifle facile in her mastery of the mysteries of making soup and chicken-pie; but as the aim of the book seems to be to make little girls contented to wash dishes and little boys cautious about drinking currant wine out of a keg, there is no need of any further criticism than to remark that it is admirably fitted to develop these qualities where the environment is in these respects as favorable as it seems to have been in Osego.

William Dawes, and his Ride with Paul Revere. An Essay read before the N. E. Historic-Genealogical Society on June 7, 1876. To which is appended a Genealogy of the Dawes family. By Henry W. Holland. (Boston: 100 copies privately printed for the author. 1878. Pp. 128.)—As will be readily seen, this book is divided into two parts; one personal and relating to a well-known episode in our Revolutionary history, the other genealogical purely. The first is a vindication of the claim of William Dawes to the honor of being one of the two men who roused the country on the eventful night preceding the battle of Lexington. It seems pretty well established, after all the discussions, that Captain John Pulling hung the signal-lanterns in the Christ-church steeple for which Conant and Devens watched in Charlestown. They despatched an express, name unknown, who was soon captured, and thereby missed his chance for fame. Revere soon afterwards crossed to Charlestown in a boat and began his famous ride, already transformed by the glamour of poetry to an unrecognizable splendor. William Dawes started at about the same time over Boston Neck, thence went through Brighton and Cambridge, and rejoined Revere at Lexington Common. Later, being reinforced by Dr. Prescott, the trio started for Concord. Revere was soon captured by the British troops, but one of the others arrived safely. Dawes afterwards joined the Continental forces, and was appointed commissary at Worcester. He was undoubtedly a devoted and brave patriot, but his title to remembrance lies in that one night's work. Mr. Holland has brought out all possible details, on the best authority.

The second and larger part of the book is a good genealogy of the descendants of William Dawes, a mason of Boston. His descendants have been numerous and respectable, and his blood flows in the veins of many of the solid citizens of that famous city. Senator Henry L. Dawes, however, belongs to a branch not yet affiliated to this main line. The genealogy is elaborate and well furnished with references and an index. A number of portraits add to the interest, and the whole book will take a high rank in this class of writings.

The College Book. Edited by Charles F. Richardson and Henry A. Clark. (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1878.)—This is a large volume, similar in style of publication to the 'Harvard Book' published a few years ago by the same editors. It contains an account of twenty-four leading colleges, including the Naval and Military Academies and Vassar. These colleges are described in such a way, as the preface says, as "to present in a compact yet readable form material for a sufficiently full knowledge of the history, resources, and aims of the several institutions, as understood by their officers and friends." In many cases the articles are by graduates or resident teachers at the several colleges, and are, therefore, to be read with more or less caution as being the most favorable presentment of the merits of rivals, but they are also based upon the fullest knowledge. In consequence of the authorship there is great variety in the modes of treatment, but with the single exception of Cornell, which is very insufficiently described, all the articles seem satisfactory. The book will be of great service to persons whose work is in the direction of college education, since it reveals clearly many varying modes of education and the steps by which each has been advanced or modified. We think it is to be regretted that it is not issued in cheaper and less luxurious style; the copy which we have received is for ornament as much as for use. It is profusely illustrated with about sixty heliotypes of the buildings and grounds, the old universities receiving the larger number.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
A Masque of Poets	(Roberts Bros.) $1 00
Atkinson (Prof. W. P.), On the Right Use of Books	" " 50
Beers (Prof. H. A.), Century of American Literature	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 00
Bryant (W. C.), Thanatopsis: illustrated	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 2 50
Burnett (Mrs. F. H.), Kathleen: a Tale, swd	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 40
Pretty Polly Pemberton, swd	" " 40
Lindsay's Luck, swd	" " 30
Clark (E. L.), The Races of European Turkey	(Dodd, Mead & Co.) 3 00
Cook (Rev. J), Conscience	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 1 50
Cowan (F.), Southwestern Pennsylvania in Song and Story	(Frank Cowan) 2 00
Handbook of Nursing	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 25
Hawley (R.), Essay on Free-Trade, swd	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 25
Holmes (O. W.), The School-boy: illustrated	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)
Johnson (Rev. A. H.), The Normans in Europe	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 1 00
Julien (P.), La Conjugaison des Verbes Français	(F. W. Christern)
Landseer	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 50
Macpherson (G.), Memoirs of Anna Jameson	(Roberts Bros.) 2 50
McKnight (G.), Life and Faith: Sonnets	(Henry Holt & Co.) 2 00
Nolte (F.), Histoire des Etats-Unis d'Amérique, 2 vols., swd	(F. W. Christern)
Reid (J. D.), The Telegraph in America	(Derby Bros.) 6 00
Rimmer (A.), Pleasant Spots around Oxford	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin) 6 00
Spedding (J.), Life and Times of Francis Bacon, 2 vols.	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.)
Taylor (B.), Prince Deukalion	" " 3 00
Thaxter (Mrs. C.), Drift-weed: Poetry	" " 1 50
Toland (M. B. M.), Iris: a Poem	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 3 00
Vincent (Rev. M. R.), Gates into the Psalm-Country	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 1 50
Weeks (E. P.), On Attorneys and Counsellors-at-Law	(Sumner, Whitney & Co.) 6 00
Whitman (Sarah H.), Poems	(Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 1 50
Willing (Mrs. C.), Genevieve of Brabant: a Poem	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 2 50

The Johnson Revival.

BOSWELL'S LIFE OF JOHNSON. The Original Text, relieved from passages whose interest is obsolete. Large 12mo. Uniform with Johnson's 'Chief Lives.' $2.

DR. JOHNSON'S CHIEF LIVES OF THE Poets. Edited by Matthew Arnold. With Macaulay's Life of Johnson, and an Appendix containing Macaulay's and Carlyle's Essays and a very full Index. Large 12mo, $2.

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TAINE'S FRENCH REVOLUTION. Vol. I. Large 12mo (in the uniform Library Edition), $2 50.

LIFE AND FAITH. Sonnets by George McKnight. Sq. 12mo, $2.

THE STUDIO ARTS. By Elizabeth Winthrop Johnson. 16mo, 60 cents.

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PLAYS FOR PRIVATE ACTING.

GADDINGS WITH A PRIMITIVE PEO- ple. By W. A. Baillie-Grohman.

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 5, 1878.

The Week.

CONGRESS opened quietly on Monday. In the Senate the first matters introduced were the transfer of the Indian Bureau, the investigation of the yellow fever, the retirement of the trade-dollar (by Mr. Beck, of Kentucky), the making it legal tender (by Mr. Voorhees, of Indiana), and the Southern electoral outrages. This last resolution was Mr. Blaine's, and by it the Judiciary Committee is instructed to enquire whether at the late elections "the Constitutional rights of American citizens were violated in any of the States of the Union" by intimidation, fraud, refusal to receive ballots, etc., etc.; and whether any additional legislation is necessary. The reading of the Message in the House caused Mr. Fernando Wood to attack the President for his vacillation concerning the South, and Mr. Garfield to retort effectively as regarded Mr. Wood. On Tuesday, in the Senate, Mr. Morrill introduced a bill authorizing the issue of certificates of deposit; Mr. Beck wanted the Secretary of the Treasury to tell what he had done towards receiving the silver dollar for customs dues and paying it out for interest on the public debt; and Mr. Matthews called up the Texas and Pacific Bill. The House promptly passed the Military Academy and Fortification Appropriation bills.

The President's Message deals first with the yellow fever, estimating the number of cases at one hundred thousand and the deaths at twenty thousand, according to "intelligent estimates," but we suspect this is a serious exaggeration. The loss in money he sets down at "hundreds of millions of dollars," and suggests the establishment of a system of national sanitary administration with high quarantine powers. He gives a summary of the way in which the negroes obtained the franchise at the South; describes the expectations entertained of the working of the measure by its friends; alleges that in some States the negroes "have not been able to make their opinions felt in the elections, owing to influences not easily measured or remedied by legal protection," but that in South Carolina and Louisiana, and in some particular Congressional districts outside these States, the participation of colored voters in the elections has been "neither general nor free." It is for Congress to determine the validity of these elections in the case of its own members, he says; while, for his part, he will use the powers now vested in him by statute to prosecute the offenders, and will appeal to the legislatures, courts, and executive authorities to prevent a repetition of the crimes, and he asks for money for the expenses of legal proceedings. He comments on the deep importance to the whole country of free elections in each district, and expresses the confident belief that with regard to this things are improving at the South. He speaks approvingly of the Paris Exposition and our share in it; gives the result of the Silver Conference without comment; describes our foreign relations, speaking hopefully about the troubles on the Mexican border, and then gives brief summaries of the reports of the various Departments. He not only suggests no financial legislation, but expresses the hope that none will be attempted, and maintains dead silence about civil-service reform, which only two short years ago formed such a very prominent feature in his programme.

The only part of the Message which calls for any expression of opinion is that relating to the South, which merely states undeniable facts in a somewhat tame way. There is no fault to be found with it except that it is not full enough. The problem is a serious one, and merited more discussion from one who, like the President, has the means of being exceptionally well informed about it, and might therefore give a healthy and rational direction to public opinion about it. He might, for instance, have disengaged the facts of the situation in South Carolina and Louisiana from the mass of newspaper rant in which they are now enveloped, and let the world know just what the cheating and intimidating amounted to, and how much of it, if any, was reachable by legislation. The omission of all mention of civil-service reform, of the progress it has or has not made, and of the difficulties it has encountered, is, considering everything, discouraging enough.

The difference of opinion about the Southern portion of the Message, between the two great Republican preachers in this city, the *Times* and *Tribune*, is at once sad and embarrassing. The *Times* can hardly find words strong enough to express its condemnation. The "phraseology" of the Message is "milk and water"; it is "pervaded by a mild optimism" which some deluded people may take for "amiability," but which is in reality "weakness," and the poor author gets his "consolation" about the South not out of the facts, but out of his own "inner consciousness," and has "a sublime faith in the angelic tendency of American humanity." The *Tribune*, on the other hand, which is as sound on "outrages" as any other paper in the universe, we care not where the other may be printed, declares that the President tells the truth about the South "without a rag of disguise"; and "congratulates the country upon the firm stand the President has taken with respect to this vital matter," and predicts that "the people of America will stand by him to a man," though what they are going to "stand by him" for does not clearly appear. If it is in prosecuting the Southern intimidators, a great crowd would only embarrass him, as all he needs to do is to instruct the District-Attorney properly and see that he does his duty. But we cannot help feeling that the *Tribune* makes a great mistake on its own account in taking this hopeful and encouraging view. The *Times* is on far safer ground in a race for organship, and if the *Tribune* does not take care its sour and despondent rival will rob it of the advantage derived from the great telegram and "coparcener" achievement, in spite of its immense and unquestioned superiority to the *Times* in the matter of Mr. Stewart's body.

The report of the Secretary of the Treasury is in all respects praiseworthy and very useful, both as regards opinions and statements of facts, showing what a different person Mr. Sherman freshly stiffened by an election is from Mr. Sherman a little doubtful how the wind is going to blow. He promises a surplus of receipts over expenditures for the financial year ending June 30, 1879, of $24,400,000, and a contribution to the Sinking Fund of $36,954,607 87 for the same period. He gives a brief account of the preparations made for resumption, with which most of our readers are already familiar, and reminds those who insisted on the reissue of the redeemed greenbacks that they can only be reissued in consequence of appropriations made by law, in the purchase of bullion, or for the refunding of the public debt—which is another way of saying that they can only be got into circulation by increasing the expenditures of the Government. He gives a clear account of the way in which the unrestricted coinage of silver will continually affect the currency of the country, and a description of the working of Gresham's Law, which we hope some of the silver-men will read carefully and try to understand; recommends, in view of the altered relative value of gold and silver, the readjustment of the present legal ratio so as to make it 1 to 16, instead of 1 to 15½, and, in order to prevent silver from driving gold out of the country and reducing us to a single silver standard, he asks Congress to authorize him to stop coining silver when the amount outstanding is over $50,000,000, showing that this is about the amount he thinks we can maintain at par. In this he differs from the silver prophet of the Chicago *Tribune*, who swears lustily that we could support $300,000,000 of silver without winking.

We have discussed the sugar question and the comparative merits of the specific and ad-valorem duties elsewhere. Mr. Sherman strongly urges the adoption of the former as far as practicable in all future revisions of the tariff, and asks for increased means of paying informers for reporting frauds on the revenue, but does not ask for the restoration of the moiety system. He closes with a complimentary reference to the fidelity and efficiency with which the multifarious duties imposed by law on the officers of the Treasury are discharged, and justly suggests that it "would seem proper that the persons performing duties so varied and important should have a tenure of office terminable only for cause, as is the case in the Army and Navy, and that provision be made for increased pay as a reward for long-continued and faithful service." Curiously enough Mr. Sherman, from whom it was least to be expected, is the only member of the Administration who says a word on this subject.

The Report of the Secretary of the Interior opens with an account of what has been done in furtherance of his views of a proper Indian policy, as enunciated last year. Agencies have been consolidated, at twenty-two of them an Indian police has been organized and has worked well, and fifty boys and girls, selected from different tribes, have been taken to the Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute, in Virginia, "where they will receive an elementary English education and thorough practical instruction in farming and other useful work, to be sent back to their tribes after the completed course." The Indian service has been largely reorganized and its character raised, and fraud vigorously prosecuted wherever detected. Congress, by its tardy and insufficient appropriations, and the temper of the Western people, are the two great obstacles to the success of the Bureau with its present machinery. The creation of mounted "Indian auxiliaries," consisting of young men from various tribes, under the command of the military authorities, is recommended. The removal of the Sioux to a site of their own choosing, in accordance with the President's promise, and their good behavior are commented on, and it is stated that a wagon-train organization manned by Indians with their ponies for transporting supplies from the Missouri River promises to fulfil the service for which contractors made such exorbitant bids that they were rejected. Mention is made of the hard case of the Pimas and Maricopas, of Arizona, whose reservation was partly irrigated by the Gila River, which has now been diverted in its upper course by the miners, so that their crops failed and they were compelled to leave their reservation. The Bannock outbreak is attributed to insufficient food, for which Congress was responsible; that of the Cheyennes to a native spirit of discontent without a grievance. The other chief topics of the Report of public interest are the timber lands, and the railroads in their relations to the new Bureau of Railroad Accounts. The disloyalty of Congress in hampering the Government's endeavor to prevent timber depredations is shown up, and an earnest appeal is made for the abrogation of laws passed last session by which the destruction of timber and ultimate devastation of the country on the Pacific Coast are almost ensured. A summary statement is given of the business, profits, debts, subsidies, rolling-stock, etc., of the railroads which have complied with the law requiring them to report to the Auditor.

The report of the Secretary of the Navy shows a general improvement in his department, and contains the usual protest against the imprudence of a commercial nation's maintaining a weak navy, but there is no matter of special interest except the announcement of the success of the recent survey of the Amazon and Madeira rivers. The main points of the Secretary of War, in his report, are the recounting of the Indian experience of the year, with a recommendation of the Army plan of overawing the Indians by a display of force while the process of civilization is going on; the success of the policy of increasing our forces on the Rio Grande, and pursuing the marauders with greater vigor, so that during the year there has been less trouble, and for the last four months perfect quiet; and, most important of all, a demand for the repeal of the *posse-comitatus* clause in the Appropriation Bill, or for an express authorization of the use of the Army in a greater number of cases; and here the Secretary points his demands by a reference to the mail-robberies in New Mexico and Arizona, and the disturbances at Lincoln, New Mexico, which the President was forced to declare an insurrection before there was an opportunity to pacify them.

The disposition to regard the present Congress as incapable of any useful work during the short session just begun is natural and well justified. There are, however, several important measures which afford no room for party opposition and which ought to be passed at once. One of these is Mr. Clarkson N. Potter's bill for transferring private claims from Congress to the Court of Claims, not for final decision but for examination and report, without which Congress is debarred from considering or allowing the payment of any of them. This is the measure to which its author lately referred as perhaps the sole reward of his laborious service in Congress; and it is one which of itself would make the ordinary Congressman a character for statesmanship. Whether it shall be enacted depends now upon the Senate, for the House passed it at the last session. We take the liberty of reminding Mr. Blaine, as well as the rest of his Republican colleagues who may think the ballot-stuffing in South Carolina a more pressing subject of debate, that a self-correcting, and therefore temporary, evil has no dangers for national morality and well-being comparable to those which attend the corruption of the sources of legislation. Another urgent occasion for speedy Congressional action is the approach of a new census year without anything having been done to remedy the defects of the law of 1850. General Walker, the Superintendent of the Census, has sent in a report pointing out these defects, and how they should be remedied; and we cannot believe that a bill embodying his ideas will fail for any other reason than the party wrangling over dead issues, by which there are already signs that the present session may be rendered futile. Upon the enumeration the reapportionment of the representation in the House of Representatives will depend.

The dispute between Secretary Schurz and the Army officers in regard to the management of the Indians has been continued in a letter addressed by the former to the Secretary of War, and in a letter from General Sherman to the Chairman of the Joint Committee having under consideration the transfer of Indian affairs to the War Department. Mr. Schurz's letter relates to General Sheridan's charges that the consolidation this summer of the Kiowa and Comanche agencies in the Indian Territory with the Wichita agency was designed to defraud the Indians by taking them where cheating could not be observed and exposed by the military. It was also alleged by the General that the water and soil were as good at Fort Sill as at Wichita, and the removal was a piece of petty and false economy, since it would entail the removal of the fort also; and that the President, the Secretary, and the Commissioner of Indian Affairs in ordering and approving it "must have been deceived by an Indian agent." Mr. Schurz's reply covers every detail of these charges, and leaves them not a leg to stand on. He shows that the removal was determined on before the present agent was appointed to the post, and was recommended by a number of disinterested and unimpeachable persons and commissioners during several years past, one of the grounds being the sexual relations of the military and the Indians; that the water is good at Fort Sill—so good that the military are careful not to let the Indians use it till after it has received the drainage of the fort; that the soil is not bad, but the military get the best of it and it is subject to drought; that the fort need not be removed, but, on the contrary, is very much needed just where it is, to guard the Texas frontier against hostile incursions. General Sherman approved the consolidation, but wanted it to work the other way—*i.e.*, toward Fort Sill—to which the Secretary's objection is that the Wichitas are well established and prospering and ought not to be disturbed. "The difference between us," he says of both generals, "seems only to be that they look at things from a point of view most favorable to the accommodation of the military,

while this Department looks at the same things from a point of view most favorable to the welfare of the Indians."

General Sherman's letter is devoted chiefly to the Sioux removal, is entirely courteous towards the Secretary and Commissioner, and takes due account of the fact that the removal was in fulfilment of a sacred pledge, rendered all the more sacred by the objections which the Government felt and urged against a site remote from the Missouri. He foresees "more wars near at hand" as a consequence of the new location and the utter inability of the agents to restrain the Indians without recourse to the military. From the latter cause he expects further trouble, too, from the Cheyennes, Arapahoes, Kiowas, and Comanches of the Indian Territory. As he is opposed to "transferring the army to civilian management," he solves the difficulty by advocating the transfer of the Indians to the care of the War Department, and the employment by the army of "civilian agents for the peaceful tribes and military agents for the warlike tribes." "There will," he says, "be less hypocrisy and cant" with the latter than with the former. The change would be economical, and the Indians themselves would welcome it, all impressions of the "bloodthirstiness" of the army to the contrary notwithstanding. He does not at all approve the Indian mounted police.

A number of the citizens of Richmond have formed a society to take measures for the maintenance of the credit of Virginia, and they have just issued an instructive address to the people of the State. It begins by stating that, unlike many public debts at the South, their debt represents value received; "every dollar of the money which the State owes was spent in erecting and creating the public improvements, such as railroads, canals, universities, and asylums, which we daily use in the transaction of the business affairs of our life, and without which the State would be little better than an unimproved wilderness." It then goes on to show that the whole interest could be met, and a sinking fund provided for which would in a few years extinguish the debt, while the expenses of the government and the public schools need not be decreased, by the imposition of an additional tax of twenty cents on every hundred dollars' worth of property. It rehearses the injury to public and private interests already brought upon the State by its tendency toward repudiation, and finally urges the formation of similar clubs throughout the State which shall work in connection with the central club at Richmond for a thorough canvass of the State, distribution of documents and pamphlets, and the formation of an active party on this single issue for the choice of members of the Legislature a year hence. The address is signed by the most respectable men of Richmond, and, whether the plan succeeds or not, it seems certain that a strong and intelligently directed fight will be made for honesty. Meanwhile it affords an excellent example for the people of Tennessee.

Some weeks ago Governor Hampton, of South Carolina, was thrown from a mule in hunting, and had his leg badly broken in two places, and was carried home, and has ever since been under medical treatment. There never has been any doubt cast on the story, and he is residing in Columbia, the State capital, under everybody's eyes. The New York *Times* itself has published accounts of the accident and of his condition since the accident as part of the news of the day. On Saturday, however, it printed a "special despatch" from Washington, quoting the following from "a letter from a well-known gentleman" of Charleston:

"It is rumored here that the story of the mule throwing Wade Hampton and breaking his leg is all a hoax; that Hampton is badly scared at the unexpected results of the frauds, and that, in order to save himself from signing the fraudulent certificates of election for the numerous successful candidates, he has practised this fresh fraud, and turned the duties of his office over to Simpson, who can stomach anything. If this is so, it will not be the first time that Hampton has cheated the public."

This is by itself sufficiently silly, but the *Times* takes the "rumor here" from "the letter of the well-known gentleman," and in the head-lines converts it into a positive fact, as "Wade Hampton's Mule-Fraud—The Mule Story a Cheat—Hampton Evading the Responsibility of Signing the Fraudulent Election Certificates." This is not a bad sample of the spirit of mischief and unscrupulousness in which many Republican papers even of the best standing treat this most serious problem.

There was a flurry in the gold market during the week. The price had stood for a long time at 100⅛; it was suddenly advanced to 100½. No reason for the rise was given further than that it suited the purposes of a few speculators to make it. The discouraging part of the business is that it is possible within a month of resumption for any one to create a difference between gold and paper that would be sufficient if made after resumption to create serious trouble. The Philadelphia Clearing-house declined to follow the New York banks so far as the action of the latter relates to the silver dollar. The reasoning of the Philadelphians is that immediate action is unnecessary, and that there is no use in infuriating the bull by shaking the red rag at him. Baltimore took the same cautious view. As the transactions at the Clearing-houses of both these cities together are not one-tenth of those at the New York Clearing-house it is, perhaps, not a very important matter whether they follow the New York banks closely or at a distance. Silver stood at 50⅝*d.* to 50¾*d.* per ounce in London during the week, and the bullion value of the 412½-grain dollar here was as nearly as possible 85½ cents gold.

In England there has been nothing very new since Lord Beaconsfield's speech at the Lord Mayor's dinner, which had been long waited for and was expected to throw some light on the situation. It, however, contained nothing remarkable beyond the assurance that the Treaty of Berlin would be executed both in spirit and letter, and since then assurances to this effect have been received from the Emperor of Russia; but this, of course, does not prevent Prince Labanoff's again warning the Porte that Russia will not evacuate Adrianople and the territory of Turkey south of the Province of Eastern Rumelia until a definitive treaty of peace is concluded between the two late belligerents. Lord Beaconsfield was very severe on the "anonymous paragraph writers" who have of late been predicting the failure of the Treaty of Berlin, and reminded his audience that the world is governed not by such people but "by sovereigns and statesmen." He has lately set up a most amusing scorn for mere rhetoricians, he himself being the head of the tribe, and pretends to look down on this score on Mr. Gladstone, who is really the foremost living legislator and financier. There have been fresh rumors of a dissolution of Parliament, but this is not the time to dissolve, and the report has been contradicted. A fierce discussion is raging over the justifiableness of the war with Afghanistan, the only weighty champion of the Ministry being Sir James Stephen. Most of the prominent Indian statesmen now in England, such as Lords Lawrence and Northbrook, the two recent Governors-General, take the other side. But proving the unjustifiableness of a war which has actually begun is in every country unprofitable work for a politician.

The reports from the seat of war in Afghanistan indicate a near cessation of active operations, unless in the rear of the advancing columns. In the Khybar Pass it has been asserted and denied that the road below Ali-Musjid was blocked by Afridis, one of the mountain tribes; that a convoy from Jamrud could not proceed in consequence; that a signalling party was attacked with loss, etc. The rumors in regard to the strengthening and the desertion of Jalalabad have been equally contradictory, but no progress appears to have been made by General Browne beyond Dakka, and here, it is said, he expects to winter. General Roberts has peaceably occupied another fort in the Kurram Pass, but the garrison, having fled to Peiwar, at the north end of the valley, successfully resisted an attempt of three regiments to turn the position on Saturday, and fighting was reported again on Monday. From General Biddulph come laments for the loss of his camels, and predictions that he will stay at Pishin till spring.

THE BANKS AND THE SILVER MANIA.

THE articles of the Western papers on the proposed course of the New York banks with regard to silver, and the popular indignation it is said to have aroused in some parts of the West and Southwest, afford another useful illustration of the mischief wrought by the spread of the notion that the Government has the power to make money as well as coin it. For it must not be supposed that this notion has no place in the silver movement. The truth is that it is at the bottom of it. The genuine silver-man does not ask for the coinage of silver because he thinks it a good measure of value, any more than the genuine greenbacker asks for greenbacks because he thinks printed paper a good measure of value. What he aims at is some kind of money that debtors are likely to be able to get easily to pay their debts in, and he is only prevented from asking for copper or iron money because the inconvenience of such a material is too palpable. His fundamental principle is that the money-coining power of the Government is not the discharge of a ministerial function like the creation of a standard quart, but a discretionary power, to be used for the relief of people in distress. In other words, the money question is, through the late agitation, regarded by a considerable portion of the people not as a business question, to be settled on business principles, but as a philanthropic question, to be settled by considerations of pity or charity; and for a good while before the late election the two parties were competing not to see which should supply the people with the steadiest currency, but which should supply the kindliest and most affectionate currency, which would stay by the poor man without regard to the balance of trade. Of course every American engaged in trade knows that the introduction of such considerations into his own affairs would soon ruin him and injure everybody who trusted him, and he would treat anybody doing business on the benevolent plan as either a fool or a knave. Inasmuch as nearly every American is engaged in trade, and has an unusual capacity for it, the growth of an agitation in favor of compelling people to do business on this plan must be set down as one of the most remarkable psychological phenomena of our time. One cannot cover with this excuse, however, the sermons of the leading silver and greenback newspapers, and especially those of great commercial cities like Chicago and Cincinnati. These preachers are not so simple-minded as their hearers, and cannot keep the twinkle out of their eye when they are proclaiming the virtues of the elastic yard and the compressible quart pot.

The application to the banks of the state of mind which the currency delusion has produced is curious and interesting. Banks are purely commercial undertakings, in which benevolence and philanthropy have absolutely no place. A banker may be a benevolent man, but a benevolent banker is almost a contradiction in terms. His business is to receive money on deposit, keep it safely, and lend it, with as much more of his own as he pleases to add to it, for the market rate of interest, not to the deserving or the needy, but to those who he thinks will surely repay it on the appointed day. If he receives or lends money with an eye to anything but profit and security he is a bad banker, and is sure to end by going out of the banking business in sorrow or disgrace. He may have strong opinions about the relations of the Government to the currency, and about the conditions of good currency; but it is no part of his duty to promote any particular theory of currency by his manner of banking. On the contrary, his duty is, in whatever country he may be established, to take the currency supplied to him by the Government and conduct his business in such fashion that, whether it be good or bad, steady or fluctuating, he shall be able to give his depositors back the true value of what he has received from them, and obtain from his debtors the true value of what he has lent them. His mode of doing this is his own affair. In selecting the mode he will show his sagacity, or the reverse, and, as in all other business, his success will depend on his skill in selecting. But the public has no more concern with it than with the manner in which Mr. Halstead and Mr. Medill organize their respective publishing offices. Public excitement lest certain bankers should not select the right method, or should select a disagreeable or unkind method, is therefore almost ludicrous.

The situation with which the bankers are now called on to deal may be described thus: The Government proposes after the 1st of January next—whether wisely or unwisely is something with which the banker *quâ* banker has nothing to do—to present the country with three legal tenders, gold, silver, and greenbacks. They are not now, and are not likely to be, of equal value for the purposes of foreign exchange, to which a banker has always to look; they are almost certain to become before long unequal in value for the purposes of domestic exchange also. In putting them all on a par by law the Government gives everybody the option as to which he will use in his dealings. In fact, the existence of this option is something the silver-men profess to value very highly. Every banker must, therefore, decide before the 1st of January in what manner he must conduct his business in order to prevent persons who deal with him as depositors or borrowers from exercising this option to his damage; that is, he must take measures to ensure his getting back the value of what he gave, and to ensure his not being compelled to give back greater value than he received—and by value he means not what political conventions say is value, but what he finds to be value in the market. He must decide, for instance, in what manner he shall prevent a man from depositing with him a dollar which is worth only eighty-five cents, and then demanding from him a dollar worth one hundred cents. He must decide, too, which of the three legal tenders he will keep his accounts in and use as the test of the condition of his affairs, or, in other words, as his measure in valuing his assets; and he will naturally choose the steadiest. In all these matters, too, his discretion is unlimited. The Government has no more to say about it than about the management of the wool business. A banker can refuse to receive a man's deposits and give no reason. He can refuse to discount his note and give no reason. He can make any agreement he pleases with a customer as to the kind of money he shall deposit and as to the time and manner of its withdrawal, and his duty is to be governed in all these matters solely by his judgment as to what will be safest and most profitable for his stockholders and dealers. The notion which has spread at the West, that if he refuses to deal in one of the legal tenders because he considers it too fluctuating to be safe, he is violating the law or "setting the people at defiance," is, considering the character of the community from which it comes, a strange and somewhat startling delusion.

It may be said, however, that the banks, being chartered by the Government and being indebted to the Government for the privilege of issuing notes, are bound to permit interference, and to defer to the public opinion which makes the laws, in the management of their business. This theory of the consequences of a charter first found expression in the Granger attack on the Western railroads three years ago. It was then gravely laid down by the agitators, and the doctrine was actually embodied in legislation, that the State had absolute power over the property of a corporation created by it, so that it could compel a railroad company to carry freight or passengers for nothing, or convert the line from a commercial into a philanthropic enterprise. The truth is, however, that what is called a "corporation" is simply a mode provided by the State to enable several individuals to club their money in a common undertaking, with limited liability in case of failure; that is, it is a means of facilitating commercial ventures supposed to be useful to the community. It is not a means of giving the State absolute control over the property which the stockholders put into the common treasury; nor does the charter impose any obligations on the company *except those which it specifies*. The corporation is legally and morally bound to conduct its business under the conditions laid down by the law under which it is organized, but it is not legally or morally bound to conduct its business in accordance with new views on finance, or any other subject, which may appear in the newspapers or find a lodgment in the brains of members of Congress after it has gone into operation; and to attack it by fresh legislation for not

doing so would be a gross breach of faith. It is all but certain that no man competent to do banking business would have organized a bank under a law which deprived him of discretion in the matter of receiving deposits. There is no mention in the national banking law of any such interference. There is no suggestion that there would be thereafter two legal tenders of unequal value in the market, which the banks would be compelled to treat as if they were of equal value. The law regulates the issue of notes and the amount of the capital, prescribes some of the duties of the officers, and limits the amount of interest to be charged on loans other than discounts. But the banks are authorized to carry on an ordinary banking business in the ordinary way "by discounting and negotiating promissory notes, drafts, bills of exchange, and other evidences of debt; by receiving deposits; by buying and selling exchange, coin, and bullion; by loaning money on personal security; by obtaining and issuing notes," etc. They are not *directed* or *required* to carry on all or any of these branches of the business. They may refuse any of them they please. Of course everybody who opens his mouth in public or puts pen to paper on this subject ought to know these things, and yet so great is the tendency to mania about money that we find in the *Penn Monthly*, a Philadelphia magazine of considerable standing and pretensions, a deliberate proposal that Congress should pass a joint resolution revoking the charters of such banks as refuse "to obey the law by which they are required to receive and pay out the silver dollar on terms precisely similar to those under which they have heretofore received and paid out the other legal-tender money of the country." There is no such law. The proposal is based on pure hallucination, like most of the plans of the silver-men.

We shall have something to say next week, probably, about the gross exaggerations which are current as to the value of the privileges enjoyed by the banks and as to the profits of their business. The Comptroller's report tells a curious story on these points, which is worth study by the sane.

THE SUGAR QUESTION.

MR. WOOD'S recent investigation into the management of our customs service has so far mainly resulted in directing public attention to the sugar question. It has brought out all sorts of denunciations of our sugar-refiners and importers, which have filled some of our papers with an angry controversy that must have proved confusing rather than enlightening to the public. In approaching this vexed question we do not pretend to solve its complicated problems, but we propose to assist in bringing them within the limits of intelligent and profitable discussion. In order to do this it will be well to draw the attention of our readers to the prominent facts and assertions brought out by Mr. Wood's investigation, which we class under the following three heads, viz.:

1. The defects and injustice of the present system of assessing duties on imported sugar, and the necessity of a change in that system.

2. The assertion of extensive frauds upon the revenue by procuring false classification and weights, and by adulterating sugars sold for export and entitled to a drawback fixed in proportion to the duty paid on the raw sugars.

3. The alleged existence of a widespread practice of adulteration in our refineries.

Contrary to the course followed by our daily press, we maintain that the above states the points involved in the order of their importance, in which we, therefore, propose to consider them.

I. *Assessment of Duty.*—It will be remembered that our present tariff imposes on refining sugars below No. 16 duties ranging from 1¾ to 2¾ cents per pound, with the addition of 25 per cent., the scale being graduated according to the color of the sugar, as measured by the Dutch standard. This system of graduated duties has been in practice since December, 1861. It formed a tolerably safe and satisfactory basis for the assessment of the high duties levied since that date as long as importations consisted exclusively of clayed sugars and muscovadoes, which then were in all markets valued by the standard of color. Since the introduction of that system, however, the improvements made in the machinery for sugar-making, and partly, no doubt, also the classification for duties in our markets itself, have led to large and increasing importations of a third class of sugars, centrifugal and beet-root, the intrinsic value of which is not indicated by their color. Certain kinds of Muscovado sugar, also, are brought in of a color far below their actual strength. Neither of these classes of importation can be called fraudulent, but they undoubtedly vitiate our present rules for assessing graduated duties, and render the adoption of a more appropriate system a necessity.

This portion of the sugar question has been agitated for years, more particularly during the last session of Congress, while there was a prospect of embodying a better system in a new and general tariff bill. Numerous conferences between refiners and importers were held at this port and elsewhere; but, owing to the unavoidable conflict of different interests, they failed to unite upon any distinct plan, and the result was that Mr. Wood's bill proposed to settle the matter in a way not satisfactory to either of the great interests concerned, by graduating duties by the color standard and the polarization test combined, thus rendering the assessment of duties exceedingly complicated. A solution of the difficulty certainly should be sought by a simpler measure, and if our refiners and importers really wish to be relieved of their present embarrassment, they should be able to unite upon a plan and force it upon the attention of Congress by a concerted effort. In such case, we venture to say, the choice will be found to lie between three systems, which we shall characterize as follows:

1. The adoption of the polariscope test as the sole basis for the graduation of duties, the scale rising either with every degree of strength or with every five degrees. A duty so graduated would be all but equivalent to an ad-valorem duty on a home valuation. It would be equally just to the importer, the refiner, and the consumer. It would not exclude from our market any kind of sugar. The adoption of this system, therefore, should be satisfactory to all, provided the test is reliable and is not more liable to encourage fraud than another system. On these important points there seems, however, to be great room for doubt. The importance of correct samples would, under such a system, not be diminished, but rather increased. The color of sugars can be judged of by any ordinary appraiser, but the making of a reliable polariscopic test requires uncommon skill and experience; it cannot be controlled by the appraiser; the chemist's decision will be paramount, and if appealed from, delay and vexation will arise. Tests made by different chemists are known to vary sometimes considerably, in Europe as well as here. Altogether, we fear that applied to this purpose the polariscope will prove too delicate a test, that it will create new difficulties and increase rather than diminish the temptation to fraud.

2. Another plausible plan proposes a uniform specific duty on all refining sugars, which would have the advantage of doing away with a great deal of uncertainty, dispute, and temptation to fraud. Such a uniform duty was imposed for a few months by the Morrill tariff of March, 1861, and it might possibly have worked well for a longer time, as the rate then imposed was only ¾c. per pound. Now, in order to produce the present amount of revenue of about thirty-seven millions, which, we are told, is indispensable, the rate could not be placed much below 2½c. Even at 2c. a uniform duty would necessarily discriminate in favor of high-grade sugars to such a degree as to create a revolution in the course of trade, and would threaten the existence of our refining interest by driving the greater portion of the manufacturing process to Cuba and other places, and leaving to our refiners nothing to do but to give to imported sugars the last touch that will be required to turn them into refined sugars.

Grossly suicidal as such a policy would be, it would not even benefit our consumers. Aside from the fact that at this day sugars can nowhere be refined at less cost than in the United States, the double process through which such sugars would be forced to go

would necessarily increase their cost to the American consumer, while at the same time such a policy would tend to cheapen all low-grade sugars, of which many cannot be improved, to the refiners and consumers of other countries.

3. There remains a third plan, namely, the adoption of a uniform ad-valorem duty, such as was imposed by the tariffs of 1846 and 1857, when the rate was thirty and twenty-four per cent. respectively. And here we must note the singular fact that such a duty does not appear to have been thought of by our refiners and importers. In explanation of this silence on their part, we have been told of another circumstance worth mentioning, which is, that at this day there is hardly a single active refiner in the country whose personal experience reaches back to the time before the war, and to the time of ad-valorem duties. We are convinced that the system of ad-valorem duties, on raw materials at least, has been unduly discredited since the introduction of our war-tariffs, and that it not only is more just and equitable to all concerned, but is also safer for the revenue and works more smoothly than that of specific duties. Though such a duty, in order to produce the present amount of revenue, may have to be placed at 50 per cent. or over, serious undervaluations cannot easily be perpetrated without being detected. For this the appraiser has abundant means at hand, as every one acquainted with the Custom-house knows. There will be no objection to his adding to these means the polariscope, if he suspects and desires to verify an undervaluation; but to use the polariscope for establishing the *primâ-facie* dutiable value will be found infinitely more troublesome and vexatious, and certainly not safer, than to take the invoice and market value for that purpose. Until some one shall invent a scheme that will positively exclude opportunities for fraud, we are inclined to believe that an ordinary ad-valorem duty will prove the most equitable and the simplest duty that can be imposed.

We regret to see that the Secretary of the Treasury in his report to Congress points to a uniform duty on refining sugars, or to a combination of the color and polariscope test, as the most desirable solution of the difficulty; we nevertheless hope that Congress will find a less complicated and a safer way out of the present difficulties, and not defer granting the much-needed relief to another session.

II. *Frauds upon the Revenue.*—If certain witnesses at Mr. Wood's investigation were to be trusted, we should be bound to believe that the Government has annually been defrauded out of millions of revenue by our importers, and more particularly by our importing refiners; and that single firms have profited hundreds of thousands by practices that could not have been successful except by heavy bribery and collusion with numerous Government employees. Before any of our readers believe in the truth of these sweeping insinuations, we advise them to study the testimony of the head appraiser, who has therein shown himself tolerably well conversant with the duties of his department in this particular, and who positively denies the existence and the possibility of any such extensive frauds. We advise them, further, to consider the character of the great majority of houses engaged in this important business, and to ask themselves the question, whether merchants notoriously commanding the largest capital, and with this capital constantly within the reach of the Government, are likely to stoop to continued bribery, without which such frauds could not be committed? When they consider that these charges proceed exclusively from broken-down sugar-refiners, that they are all general and not one of them is specific, they will probably come to the conclusion that they are at best gross exaggerations and not deserving of credit.

III. *Adulteration of Refined Sugars.*—The closing remarks of the last paragraph apply with equal force to the charges of adulteration which the same parties have thrown in the face of our refiners, and upon which such an angry controversy has sprung up in our papers. Little, if anything, has thus far been proved to an impartial observer beyond the fact that by the modern process of refining the same raw sugars are made to yield different qualities of refined sugars, the lowest of which, formerly absorbed by the syrup, contains less crystallized sugar than the raw material from which it was made, and therefore can be sold for less, just as well as the syrup could before.

The presence in refined sugars of any deleterious chemicals used in the process of refining remains to be established, and the charge of adulterating refined sugars—in particular sugars sold for export and entitled to drawback—with glucose made from corn-starch is not proved. That this substance is largely used for the adulteration, if it can be so called, of sugar-house syrup, is not disputed, but whether such adulteration is practised by all our sugar-refiners, who alone are charged with it, and not mainly by other parties, remains an open question, nor has it been proved that such adulteration is injurious to the health of the consumer. The public will do well not to be frightened by exaggerations of this kind, and unless better proofs of these charges are furnished, the parties who have brought them forward, and who have so eagerly spread them, will not escape the condemnation that awaits slanderers.

THE LAST OF THE WICKED-PARTNER THEORY.

WRITING in 1876, shortly before the Presidential election, on the comparative merits and demerits of the two Presidential candidates, we spoke as follows of one of the possible advantages of Mr. Tilden's experience and reputation as a dexterous and by no means simple-minded manager:

"He would have, finally, one quality which we have during the last eight or twelve years so often longed for in the President—perfect ability to protect himself against sharpers and intriguers, and therefore perfect ability to bear the responsibilities of his position. There is, of course, a bad side to this, which we need not point out. But it would be for the country a great gain and a new sensation to have at the head of the Government a man who understood a fraud, or villanous scheme, or 'little game,' or 'deep-laid plot' when he saw it; whose mind could not be 'poisoned,' or who could not be 'got round' by every poor adventurer who obtained admission to his house, or who, when a bill was laid before him for approval, would need no coaching from 'managers' or 'Administration Senators' to enable him to know how to deal with it. It is quite certain that if Tilden is elected, no speculator or wirepuller will ever go to the White House with the expectation of finding the President off his guard or unprepared for him, or unable to see what he is after; and the public will never need to condone the President's complicity in a job or swindle on the ground of simplicity, or because 'the old man got mad' or 'had his mind poisoned.' We shall know whom to blame for corruption in the Executive department."

We did not then suppose, of course, that our prediction would be verified so soon, and be verified in the precise way in which it has been verified; but it has turned out curiously correct. Mr. Tilden proves to have been surrounded by "poor adventurers" not only before he was elected, but while his canvass was still pending, and it turns out that a "fraud or villanous scheme" of a peculiarly dangerous character was concocted in and carried on from his own house, ostensibly in his interest, and by persons holding a high place in his confidence, and rightfully entitled to represent him. On the discovery and proof of these things he promptly put in the plea of "Wicked Partnership," and had much reason to infer from his observation of public opinion during the last ten years that it would be sufficient to exonerate him. During General Grant's Administration several cases occurred in which operations of a still more criminal character than those revealed by the cipher telegrams—because they had not even the poor excuse of "politics"—were either carried on from the White House, or were carried on with the complicity of persons living in or frequenting the White House and enjoying the President's intimate friendship. The close connection of these persons with him, and his liking for them, and his refusal to believe evidence against them which was satisfactory to everybody else, and which was rousing the indignation of the whole country, were among the notorious facts of the day. Not only did he refuse to believe this evidence, but in some instances he pursued with an appearance of vindictiveness the officers who ventured to furnish it; and it became one of the boasts of his inner circle of intimates that they were never so safe in their places and emoluments as when the press was busiest in exposing their rascality.

The scandals were so great and permeated the White House so thoroughly that many even of the President's warmest friends were only able to save him in their estimation by throwing their mental apparatus out of gear—like the witty lawyer who, as one tale after another of the doings of "Administration circles" came in, declared that "he had lost all faith in circumstantial evidence, for he still believed General Grant to be an honest man." There could not, in short, have been a severer trial than that to which the Wicked-Partner theory was exposed under the Grant Administration then, and it stood it perfectly, at least with a large portion of his own party. It seemed to show that a man who had previously borne a fair reputation himself could, as long as money was not actually traced into his pockets, or documents were not discovered in his handwriting, remain in close association with persons of the worst character and incur no greater damage in the process than earning a reputation for extreme simplicity. It is quite true that the larger number of Republicans were satisfied before the General retired from office that a person of such exceeding blindness and capable of such devoted attachment to his friends, whatever their faults, was hardly fit to be charged with the highest executive office of a great government; but the general course of the party towards the President was undoubtedly calculated to elevate the Wicked-Partner plan in the popular mind and familiarize politicians with its use.

It was tried at the same period in New York—with less success, it is true, because the circumstances were much less favorable—by Mr. Oakey Hall, the then Mayor of the city. He was for several years a member of the Tweed Ring, in intimate intercourse, both official and social, with the leaders, voted what they asked him to vote and signed what they gave him to sign, while they were stealing $6,000,000 and spending it in vulgar debauchery. Nevertheless, when they were found out in 1870 he declared his entire ignorance of their doings, but at the same time refrained from any condemnation of them. A similar case has since then occurred in South Carolina, the late Governor of which, Mr. Chamberlain, a shrewd and able lawyer, served as Attorney-General of the State in close official association, at least, with a band of adventurers of the coarsest type, while they were robbing the State of about $20,000,000 by the clumsiest frauds, which they took no pains to disguise. When they were discovered and exposed, he too promptly repudiated them as Wicked Partners, of whose culpable acts he knew nothing, and his plea has been accepted by at least a portion, but a very respectable one, of the Republican party. It must be remembered that in all these cases the plea has been put forward not by shy recluses, or pious missionaries, or fine gentlemen who have only seen the world from their library windows, but by lawyers, soldiers, and politicians, thoroughly familiar with the rough and dark side of American life, and with those weaknesses of human nature on which American life acts most powerfully.

It was, perhaps, not unnatural for Mr. Tilden to suppose that he too would get the benefit of this abounding charity, and that even if his own relatives were detected in carrying on negotiations for the purchase of the Presidency for his benefit under his own roof, he would but need to bury his face in his hands, weep, and ask plaintively, "Whom should he trust now?" and declare that he had neither art nor part in this reprehensible transaction, in order to put himself right with the public. Nor was the fact that when General Grant went out of office his Administration had few or no defenders, except the Senatorial Group, a sufficient warning to him, because he has seen that in the two years which have since elapsed a considerable body of Republicans, in the presence of growing evidences of corruption and disorder, have begun to turn for salvation to the most easily deceived man, and the man most trustful and kind to depraved adherents, that has ever occupied a high political position in the United States. We can readily believe, therefore, that Mr. Tilden said to himself, "Since Grant has not suffered from Babcock, and Robeson, and Shepherd, and Belknap, and Murtagh, and 'the whiskey thieves,' and the 'safe-burglars,' and the 'Indian traders,' I shall certainly not suffer from Pelton, and 'Moses,' and Weed, and the rest of the 'coparceners.' I shall simply say, on my honor, that I knew nothing of what they were doing, and that, bad as it was at worst, the other side was doing something just as bad."

We are glad to say, however, that, whether honestly put forward or not, the plea has not succeeded. His experience as a manager and as an observer of human nature under a great variety of circumstances, and his mode of doing business and of protecting himself against the consequences of human folly and weakness, were too well known to make it possible for him to escape the responsibility of the telegraphic negotiations. People have very naturally said that if he was not wily and shrewd and watchful he was nothing, and it is not only the Republicans who have taken this view. It is greatly to the credit of Mr. Tilden's own party that they have taken it too. He has become an impossible candidate for them. They do not venture to produce him in the character of a Good Man who "means well" but "has made mistakes, as who has not?" and has been deceived and betrayed by designing persons. His political prospects have been wrecked utterly, either by being too good or too bad; in other words, he has performed the *reductio ad absurdum* on the Wicked-Partner theory as applied to public life. When a man of Mr. Tilden's age and experience and peculiar mental traits produced it, while a candidate for an office requiring the highest perspicacity as well as the highest integrity, its futility was made plain to thousands who never saw its futility before. Those who have watched the way in which the theory has for some years past been destroying the last remnants of responsibility in official life will acknowledge that this is an immense gain. The larger and more unwieldy the Governmental machine grows, and the further its chief officers are removed from popular observation, the more necessary to purity of administration and thorough accountability does the good old rule, *Noscitur a sociis*, become. Under the Grant régime the doctrine that it was no part of a President's duty to keep good company or to apply to his friends the rules of prudence which govern men in private stations was fast becoming embodied, like the "spoils" doctrine in the civil service, in the rough code of usage by which plain people judge the conduct of public men. Mr. Tilden, in illustrating its flimsiness, has wittingly or unwittingly rendered the country a great service.

DE BROGLIE'S 'SECRET DU ROI.'

PARIS, November 14, 1878.

LETTERS have at all times been the consolation of disappointed statesmen. Mr. Gladstone returns to the Homeric world as soon as he gets out of office; the Duc de Broglie is imitating the example given by so many before him. He suffered at the end of last year the most terrible defeat; though he did not initiate what was called the 16th of May, he had become the head of the Conservative movement, and he had to give way before the will of universal suffrage. He is, at least apparently, now as far removed from office as he was in the days of Napoleon III., when he was in the hopeless phalanx of the French Liberals. He is not one of those gloomy men who weep and wail like Jeremiah when they cannot be satisfied in their ambitions; as soon as his party was defeated and he had left office he returned quietly to his books. He looked over his manuscripts and his family papers, and after the lapse of a year he offers the public two volumes which bear the taking title of 'Le Secret du Roi.'

We are informed in the preface that this work was begun a little before 1870; it has often been interrupted since. A few chapters were read before the French Academy, in its private sittings, or published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. What was the king's secret? Louis XV. has come down to posterity as the type of the indolent king, of a sybarite who was quietly awaiting among his courtiers and mistresses the "déluge" which he had prophesied. There was something, however, left in him of the activity and regularity of Louis XIV. Not only did he take cognizance of the diplomatic despatches, the work of the Duc de Broglie proves that he had his own diplomatic correspondence, his own secret agents, unknown to the ministers. "I had often," says the Duc de Broglie, "in my youth heard conversations about my great-uncle and his secret relations with Louis XV., and I felt almost sure, from some notes found in the papers of my father, that his correspondence with the king existed

in the archives of the Foreign Office. I thought of verifying the fact, and I succeeded in it, not without difficulty." It certainly seems strange that Louis XV. took the trouble to conceal the better part of himself, his profound interest in the diplomatic affairs of Europe. "It was under the triple seal of a cipher correspondence that he showed what was left in his heart of sentiments worthy of the throne, and of desires for the public welfare."

Poland was the chief object of the secret diplomacy of Louis XV. The first mission of his secret agents consisted in trying to prepare the nomination of a French prince to the throne of Poland; and when this project was abandoned the king still tried to save that unfortunate country from the ambition of its neighbors. The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, which put an end to the war of succession in Austria, is thus judged by Voltaire in his 'Siècle de Louis XIV.':

"After this peace the Christian part of Europe remained divided into two great parties which counterbalanced each other. The states of the Empress, Queen of Hungary, a part of Germany, Russia, England, Holland, Savoy comprised one of these factions; the other was formed by France, Spain, the Two Sicilies, Prussia, and Sweden. All the Powers remained in arms, as the hope of a durable peace was founded upon the fear which each half of Europe inspired in the other."

Poland is not mentioned in this last. Poland stood between the two parties, and threatened at the same time Russia, Prussia, and Austria. Unfortunately the condition of the country was such that she could have no traditional diplomacy. The throne was elective, the nobility was torn into many factions, and the foreign ambassadors were forced, against all the rules of the law of nations, to join these factions in order to have any influence. In the sixteenth century the Duc d'Anjou (afterwards Henri III.), placed on the throne by a faction, had to run away and return to France. The Prince de Conti, who was the candidate of Louis XIV., could not even arrive in Poland. The father of the wife of Louis XV., Stanislas Leszczynski, was obliged to run away in disguise, and to leave the place to Augustus III., elector of Saxony. The health of Augustus declining fast, Louis XV. made an effort to put on the throne the Prince de Conti, who was a good soldier, an eloquent orator, and who lived at the Temple, where his *salon* was presided over by the charming Comtesse de Boufflers. "The poor prince," says the Duc de Broglie, "suffered from the feeling that he shone everywhere without being the first. His rank was high but secondary, his faculties were distinguished, but were not of the first order." He was, in short, an "amateur" in everything. When some Polish princes came secretly to offer him the throne, he persuaded Louis XV. to enter into these views. It was not easy; Saxony was then represented in France by the famous Maurice de Saxe, the hero of Fontenoy. Poland was not popular with the ministers. Louis XV. did not confide the Conti plan to the Marquis d'Argenson, his minister of foreign affairs, who was very hostile to Poland. He undertook to enter himself into the adventure, as he would have done in any private intrigue. Secret agents were named for Sweden, for Constantinople, for Berlin; they kept all the threads of the Polish succession in their hands. In 1752 Conti asked Louis XV. to send to Warsaw one of his friends of the Temple, the Comte de Broglie, second son of the Maréchal de Broglie.

The Comte de Broglie was then thirty-two years old; he had served in the army and held the rank of a general. He was named ambassador. "He is," writes the Marquis d'Argenson, "a short little man, with his head up like a cock. He is irascible; has some wit and much vivacity in everything." Eight days after his nomination, which was very unexpected, he received an autograph letter from the King in these words: "The Comte de Broglie will believe all the Prince de Conti tells him, and speak of it to no living person." The young Count received the confidences of Conti. He was much frightened; his mission was to make a king, and to make a king without the support of the official diplomacy of his own country. He knew that if he made a false step he would be disavowed. He stopped on his way to pay his respects to the great Frederic, and found King Augustus of Poland at Bialystok, the magnificent residence of Count Branicki. The transition was great from the Temple to a Polish château of the eighteenth century. Round Branicki, who was the commander of the forces, was a sort of aristocratic democracy, fifteen hundred gentlemen-in-arms, all equal, all ready to end a quarrel with the sword.

The Duc de Broglie gives a very vivid description of the Polish diets, and explains carefully how the *liberum veto* (that is, the right to annul any decision) was counterbalanced by the *pacta conventa* (that is, by the right which the majority possessed of organizing an armed force to support its annulled decisions). A constitution so absurd in itself had been only maintained by the patriotism of the nobles and their courage, as well as by the intense devotion of the peasants to their lords. Political life was kept in constant fermentation, and animated the dreary plains, which were constantly crossed by warriors on their swift horses, or in winter by the sledges in which the nobles were seen in their furs, with their caps adorned with diamonds. The great lords, those who had made the journey to France, and their wives were familiar with all the refinements of the first court of Europe. The Comte de Broglie soon felt himself at home at Bialystok. Count Branicki (who had a revenue of 1,200,000 livres) gave entertainments as fine as those of the Duc d'Orléans at St. Cloud. The old Count Branicki, who was the host of his King and of the Comte de Broglie, had just been married to the young and handsome Countess Poniatowska, whose mother was a Czartoryska. At that time the great family of the Czartoryskis was in the Russian interest.

"The Czartoryskis understood that the detestable institutions of Poland would lead their fatherland sooner or later to destruction, and they saw no way to save it but by a revolution which would fortify the monarchical power and restrain the exaggerated prerogatives of the nobility. To expect such a reform from an interior reaction would have been a chimerical hope, for how could the interested parties be induced to abandon voluntarily their prerogatives? They considered it a necessity to have the help of a foreign power. Despairing of the help of France, they decided to lean on Russia, a dangerous ally to be sure; but, inflated by their great patronage and by their immense fortune, the Czartoryskis flattered themselves with the hope of using the influence of Russia and of moderating its ambition at the same time; they thought they could stop the fire after having kindled it."

It is quite certain that Russia was adverse to the idea of the partition of Poland; she was only gradually induced to take her share of the spoils when Prussia and Austria obliged her, so to speak, to do so. But there was no question of partition yet. When the Comte de Broglie arrived in Poland he tried to reconstitute a French party, in the face of the Czartoryskis; he hindered the revolution which was meditated. A young gentleman named Mokronowski, who had become one of his friends, handsome, eloquent, and so strong that he could kill an ox with one blow, entered the tent where the nobles were signing a pact of confederation. He took the parchment, showed that the revolution in the constitution would be soon followed by an invasion, and tore the bond which was to be the instrument of the Czartoryski party.

The Comte de Broglie had an inventive mind; he formed a project which might have saved Poland. He recommended to Louis XV. and to the Prince de Conti a resurrection of Poland on the basis of the offensive and defensive alliance with Saxony. Poland was too weak alone; with Saxony it was strong enough against all parties. Prussia could take Hanover instead of Silesia and Posen. Branicki entered into these views; Turkey was sounded by the Comte de Vergennes, then ambassador at Constantinople, and undertook to co-operate with the Poles as soon as a French prince should become king of Poland. A vulgar intrigue had been metamorphosed into a huge diplomatic plan in the head of our young soldier-diplomat. His activity was boundless; his resources were very small, and he was constantly in need of money in a court which was then perhaps the most extravagant in all Europe. His mind was fertile in expedients; he was ambitious for France more than for himself. He foresaw the remote consequences of the breaking up of Poland. It remains to be seen how his great plan was defeated, not only by the influences of foreign courts, but by the dissensions of the Poles and by the irresolution and weakness of the French government.

MUSIC IN BERLIN.

BERLIN, November 14, 1878.

THE Prussian capital is at present, if not the intellectual centre of the world, as it professes to be, at any rate the paradise of amusement-seekers, and of lovers of good music in particular. This is shown not only by the great number of fixed institutions for constantly supplying the musical epicure with the daintiest morsels, but also by the great number of world-renowned executive musicians who come and go every week. In the course of about three weeks the happy Berliners will have had an opportunity to hear any one or all of the following artists: Dr. Hans von Bülow, Sarasate, Wieniawski, Joachim, Madame Essipoff, Adelina Patti, Wachtel, and several others of minor note. Von Bülow's concert ranks among the musical curiosities of the season. The programme consisted solely of the last five of Beethoven's pianoforte sonatas, and was, therefore, *caviare* for the public, although the musicians enjoyed it immensely; and of course the tickets were all sold a week in advance. The same programme was repeated at Hamburg and other cities, and,

strangest of all, the proceeds are to be devoted to the Bayreuth festival fund. It appears from this that the doctor no longer harbors any ill-will against the great composer for having appropriated his wife. Madame Essipoff, the great interpreter of Chopin, also drew good houses to a mixed and a Chopin concert. She receives better treatment here than she did in America. G. Henschel and I. Brüll, the composer of "Das goldene Kreuz," have also announced a series of vocal and pianoforte recitals.

Of the three great violinists mentioned, one, Joachim, resides in Berlin, being director of the Conservatory of Music. Under his guidance the pupils of the Conservatory recently performed Mendelssohn's "Elijah" in a manner which would have done credit to any professional society. In the same week Stern's Gesangverein produced Mendelssohn's "St. Paul," and the Singacademie Bach's Mass in B minor. Three of the greatest of our choral works in one week! If I am not mistaken the great Mass in B minor has never been performed in America, although it is, in my opinion, more sublime even than the Passion music, if we except the last chorus, which is, perhaps, Bach's greatest effort. A writer in a recent number of the *Atlantic* remarked that Bach is really the most modern of composers, because of the obscurity in which his name and his works have so long been allowed to remain. From this generalization Berlin must be excluded, for more than thirty years ago, when Berlioz wrote those brilliant and witty pages describing his musical travels through Germany, the Bach *cultus* was so great here as to provoke the sarcastic remark that in Berlin "there is but one God, whose name is Bach, and Mendelssohn is his prophet." Since those days the admiration for Bach has rather increased here than diminished, as is evinced by the enthusiasm with which the Singacademie rendered and the audience received the wonderful Mass, which is perhaps the most difficult of all choral compositions. Every page of it makes one wonder that Bach could have been born almost two centuries ago. In richness and complexity of harmonies it can only be compared to Wagner's later works, and, indeed, there is a much greater affinity between these two composers than is commonly imagined, *pace* those who have not heard Wagner's later works.

Besides the occasional choral concerts and those given by travelling musicians the Berliner has his choice every night between about twenty-five theatres, representing all species of stage-amusements, from "La Belle Hélène" and Punch-and-Judy up to the classical tragedy and the modern music-drama. A day seldom passes without an opportunity to see a comedy or tragedy of Shakspere; indeed, it is nothing unusual to see two plays of Shakspere announced for one and the same evening at two rival theatres. Of the opera houses one cultivates French comic opera, a second Italian opera, while the Imperial Opera devotes itself chiefly to the German classical, romantic, and modern schools. An attempt is being made at present to revive some of the earlier operas of Mozart, "Così fan Tutte," "Titus," and "Die Entführung"; but this movement is of more importance from an historical than an artistic point of view, as the operas in question cannot be regarded as works of art, except by those who allow their habit of hero-worship to run away with their judgment. They are too much the products of their own time exclusively, and suffer from too many defects to come up to the standard set up by the more critical taste and profounder emotional culture of our period. The only operas of Mozart which have stood and will stand the test of time are "Don Giovanni," "Magic Flute," and "Figaro." At the Italian Opera there has also been a revival, or rather a first performance in this city, of one of Verdi's earlier works, "La Forza del Destino," which has been favorably received by the public, and mildly treated even by those critics whose ferocious attitude towards everything Italian has become proverbial. Perhaps they are becoming mild now because they have won such a complete victory over the admirers of dance-rhythms, abnormal melodies minus harmony, and nonsensical librettos.

The Imperial Opera is open every night, except when the orchestra gives one of its admirable symphony concerts. These take place at intervals of a few weeks, and the same is true of the concerts given by the Symphonie-Capelle, which also assists at the choral concerts. Of the remaining orchestras, the most important is that of Bilse, consisting of seventy well-trained musicians. So far as I am aware, no other city affords its inhabitants the opportunity which Bilse gives the Berliners of hearing a good orchestral concert every evening through the year, excepting a few months in summer. It is true that Bilse's band does not play as well as the Gewandhaus orchestra at Leipzig, as can best be seen in such pieces as the overture to "Midsummer-Night's Dream," or the introduction to "Lohengrin," with its "spider-web harmonies"; but in general this difference is not great enough to be noticed by any but specialists. It must also be borne in mind that, whereas at the other symphony concerts a good seat costs a dollar, in Bilse's concert-house the general public only pays nineteen cents for a ticket, while students at the Conservatory and the University get their tickets for even less—for twelve cents apiece. The programmes are arranged on a very cosmopolitan basis; and while the old masters receive a good share of attention, Bilse and his audiences appear to be very fond of Wagner, Liszt, Berlioz, and Saint-Saëns. Twice a week the programme includes a symphony of Beethoven, Mendelssohn, Schumann, Rubinstein, Raff, or Brahms, and thus in the course of the winter students have a chance to hear about seventy symphonies for less than ten dollars. This fact should be taken into account by those Americans who come abroad to study music. Among the most interesting compositions recently played were Wagner's "Siegfried-Idyl" and Brahms's Second Symphony, in D. The former is of such exquisite beauty that, had the composer written nothing besides, it would entitle him to a place among the leading musicians. It is a kind of symphonic poem, an imaginative reverie or epitome of the most beautiful passages in the drama "Siegfried," worked up into a new organic whole. Much has been written about the so-called Tenth Symphony. Since Beethoven, perhaps, no important work of the kind has appeared on which this complimentary epithet has not been bestowed by some admirer. I may, therefore, be pardoned if I express my own humble opinion that the real Tenth Symphony is the "Siegfried-Idyl." Certainly neither the first nor the second symphony of Brahms equals it in beauty or importance. The first movement of the new symphony is indeed of striking originality and grandeur. An intensity of feeling pervades it, such as can only proceed from the glowing brain of a genius of the highest order. But the other movements are not so good, even if the third did receive more applause than the first. The public seldom applauds the right thing or at the right place at first, and even at Berlin it is unfortunately true that the *volume* of the applause which follows an insipid cornet solo is greater than that which is evoked by a Beethoven overture—a fact which must be most grateful to the sense of a pessimist and of those who believe in the constitutional depravity of mankind.

At the first concert given by Wieniawski, a few days ago, an event occurred which deserves to be mentioned, as it may help to neutralize the effect produced on the mind by the constant scandals and quarrels which arise out of the mutual jealousy and envy of musicians, and which on one occasion recorded in the history of music resulted in a public prize-fight on the stage between two *prime donne*. Wieniawski has for some years been suffering from an asthmatic affection, and while playing the first part of his concerto was suddenly so overcome by his illness that he had to leave the stage. A piano solo was substituted for the moment. Later on the violinist appeared again and made another effort, after asking permission to keep his seat while playing; but he was again obliged to stop. At this juncture Prof. Joachim, who was one of the audience, stepped on the stage and, after announcing that his colleague's illness was not of a dangerous nature, took the violin and played Bach's Ciaconna in a most masterly and spirited style. The excitement and enthusiasm of the audience may be imagined.

Correspondence.

A SOUTHERN ECHO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your editorial in No. 698 of the *Nation* in regard to Southern affairs you hit the nail on the head and condense the whole matter in one sentence when you say: "In short, there is but one subject on which the South is 'solid,' and that is misgovernment by an ignorant majority under the forms of law." This statement recalls an incident, which allow me to relate by way of parallel.

A friend of the writer, discussing the situation with a well-to-do colored man, who rented a good-sized farm and employed five or six laborers, said: "Now, Peter, would you be willing to put it to the vote of yourself and employés whether *you* or Jack [a good-for-nothing fellow on the premises] should have the control of your crop, and, if they out-voted you, give it into his hands to give you such a share as he thought fit?" "No," said Peter; "*I'd die first!*" "Well," said the other, "that is just the position of the Democrats in this State; they don't intend to allow those who have neither property nor intelligence nor character to get into power again; *they'll die first.*" And I may add, could any people

of the Anglo-Saxon race be expected to feel otherwise, or to endure such governors as Moses and such judges as Whipper, *et id omne genus*, if there was any practicable way to prevent it?

The point is also well taken when you suggest that Democrats North and South are not identical. If things and not names be considered, there seems to be more in common between Northern Republicans and Southern Conservative Democrats. Compare, by way of proof, the recent elections in Massachusetts and South Carolina: was not the issue substantially the same? Though no politician, and certainly no Republican, I would venture the opinion that if the Republicans are wise they will cease to antagonize the South, and bury out of sight "the bloody shirt."

A South Carolina Subscriber.

Eastover, S. C., November 21, 1878.

ODIUM MEDICUM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of November 21 (page 317), in speaking of what you are pleased to term the "odium medicum" and its "scurrilous rhetoric," you make a curious mistake in crediting Philadelphia with being the residence of one of the disputants in the singular and by no means creditable warfare on paper which is waging between two prominent medical men. Neither of them, according to Atkinson's 'Physicians and Surgeons of the United States' (in which are lengthy biographies of each), has ever at any time been a resident of Philadelphia, or in any way identified with any of its institutions. The one is a celebrated physiologist, a resident of New York, the other a noted medical man of North Carolina. Of the merits of the case, which is by all odds as disreputable as any of those in which either "newspaper men" or "clergymen" or "lawyers" have ever been engaged, I have nothing to say. I write merely to ask you to correct your error.

Very truly yours, R. B. S.

Philadelphia, November 29, 1878.

[Our error doubtless arose from the fact that we found the account of the controversy in a Philadelphia medical journal.—Ed. Nation.]

IS DISCLOSURE OF TELEGRAPHIC DESPATCHES A CRIME?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It has been held in England and in this country that it is larceny at common law to tap a gas-pipe and to take off gas. Is it not equally larceny at common law to tap a telegraph wire and to extract the telegrams?

It is larceny under the statutes of New York and other States for a bailee, entrusted with valuable things to deliver to another person, to deliver them to a stranger. Is it not larceny under the statute for the officers of a telegraph company knowingly to give messages committed to it to any other person than the sender?

Cambridge.

Notes.

We have received from Porter & Coates, Philadelphia, 'The Fireside Encyclopædia of Poetry, comprising the best poems of the most famous writers, English and American,' compiled and edited by Henry T. Coates. It contains selections from above four hundred writers, and is accompanied by full indexes of the titles of poems, authors, and first lines. The poems are arranged under several heads, such as Poems of Love, Personal Poems, Weird and Fantastic Poems, etc., which are by no means mutually exclusive, nor are they always a guide. For example, few would look for "Bingen on the Rhine" under Poems of Labor and Social Questions. The taste of the compiler is very catholic, and he appears to have excluded only that class of poems which, in his own words, "would tend to undermine any one's faith or destroy a single virtuous impulse." Except for its inclusion of American poetry, it cannot compete with 'The Family Library of British Poetry,' recently edited by J. T. Fields and E. P. Whipple. It is accompanied by several illustrations of scenes or characters in the text.——'Castles in the Air,' a story for girls, by Louise R. Upton, is announced by G. P. Putnam's Sons.——Since our review of Octave Feuillet's 'Journal d'une Femme' was printed we have learned that a translation of this novel is being published in the current issues of the San Francisco *Argonaut*.——Estes & Lauriat have reproduced the Beaconsfield Cartoons of Mr. *Punch*, by a process called "chemical engraving," which does not recommend itself from these specimens. The cartoons are reduced in size and lose all their sharpness; but the series is brought down to September 21 by the addition of four cartoons. The Germans, too, are having their fun at the expense of the Jingo Prime Minister. An admirably-drawn cartoon in *Schalk* (the new German *Punch*) represents him dressed in full court costume, with the ribbon of the Garter across his breast, standing on tiptoe on a pile of portfolios labelled "Cyprus, Turkish Loan, Suez Shares, London Protocol," and straining eagerly to equal the height of Bismarck. The latter, in his soldier's coat, without any decoration, measures with his hand the height of Beaconsfield, which is about to his shoulder, and says: "You don't quite reach up yet, my dear fellow" (*Es reicht immer noch nicht ganz, Gevatter*).——The growth of the Library of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin continues to be strong and rapid. A second supplementary volume has just been added to its original Catalogue in two volumes. It includes accessions from August 1, 1875, to August 1, 1878, which number some 15,000 and complete a total of 80,000.——The last number of the *Gazette Anecdotique* has an interesting notice of a philosophical work left in manuscript by M. Thiers. It was commenced, according to this account, in 1864, and three volumes were apparently completed at the outbreak of the war with Germany. On the fall of Thiers, in 1873, he took up the study of botany and astronomy, which led him to change a part of what he had written. In 1876 he revised and rewrote the whole of the first volume. His appointment as president of the army commission interrupted his literary labors at this point, and they were never resumed. The manuscript has been put by Mme. Thiers into the hands of M. Mignet to edit. It was in reference to this work that Thiers wrote to Mme. Dosne: "If God does not suffer me to enjoy my glory—for this work surpasses all my historical works—you, Élise and Félicité, will enjoy it."——Another volume has recently been published by the French Government of the series entitled 'Collection de documents inédits sur l'histoire de France.' It is an "Étude sur les sarcophages chrétiens antiques de la ville d'Arles," by M. Edmond Le Blant. It is finely illustrated with thirty-six large plates, and is undoubtedly a valuable contribution to Christian archæology.——A new edition of the 'Divina Commedia' has just been published at Padua by Salmin. It is a volume of five hundred pages, 2 inches long by 1.4 broad, and is said to be printed with the smallest type ever used. A copy was at the Paris Exposition. The largest of the 400 editions of Dante's poem was published in 1809 at Milan, and consisted of three volumes, each 23.2 x 16.——A favorable review of the United States Fine-Art Exhibit at the Exposition, by Paul Lefort, appears in a late issue of the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts*.——B. Westermann & Co. have received the new Athens Atlas compiled at the instance of the Imperial German Archæologic Institute by Ernst Curtius and J. A. Kaupert. It makes a folio volume of twelve plates, with explanatory text, accompanied with fourteen views. The scholarship of the editors has been supplemented by the topographical supervision of Gen. von Moltke.

—In 1865 Dr. Charles Belot, of Havana, whose experience with yellow fever there extended over twenty years and embraced eighteen epidemics, published, in French, a little work on the nature and treatment of that disease. This, within the year, has been translated by an accomplished layman of Savannah in a pamphlet of fifty pages as a public-spirited contribution to our knowledge. The translation is fluent and accurate, and even were the treatise not plausible in its clinical and therapeutical statements, the enormous experience of the author would invest it with interest. An error of fact as to the afternoon temperature of Havana, a curious and unsupported assertion of the influence of moonlight, and a very strained and distorted use of *les causes miasmatiques paludéennes* weaken, or at least disfigure, the first pages that refer to the causes of the disease. But when Dr. Belot sets forth what he has observed at the bedside and on the dissecting table he speaks with authority. We depart from our practice as to professional books in noticing this monograph, which is published by the *Morning News* Co. of Savannah, because of the grave interest the whole country has in yellow fever at present, and because of the unprofessional but admirable channel through which it attained its English form.

—In the Diary of Samuel Sewall mention is made (December 18, 1685) of the death of "Father [John] Odlin, one of the very first inhabitants of

Boston," and who had, in fact, been a witness of the purchase of the peninsula from William Blaxton or Blackstone half a century before. Blackstone was one of the half-dozen settlers about Boston harbor whom Governor Winthrop found there in June, 1630, and whose connection with any known party of emigrants became so obscured that they have presented a standing puzzle to antiquarians. Theirs seemed, in fact, a "pre-historic settlement," and it was only last summer that Mr. Charles Francis Adams, jr., whose phrase we have just quoted, published the result of researches by which he satisfactorily accounted for Blackstone, Maverick, and Walford. The clue which he ingeniously and successfully followed up was the Episcopal settlement of Wessagusset (now Weymouth) in September, 1623, by a party under Captain Robert Gorges, a younger son of Sir Ferdinando Gorges, who played so prominent a part in the early settlement of Maine. Captain Gorges tired of his adventure and returned to England in the course of a year, together with a portion of his company; his clergyman, the Rev. Mr. Morell, lingered till the spring of 1625. A chance remark of Governor Winthrop's in February, 1631, indicates that weather records had been kept in Boston Bay for seven years previously. This gives February, 1624, as the date of the arrival at the Bay of one or other of the planters. Mr. Adams furnishes the names of some of the remnant of Gorges's settlement, and finds "William Blaxton, clerk," mentioned in connection with one of them as John Gorges's attorney in his attempted transfer of his grant to John Oldham. A remark of Lechford's makes 1625 or 1626 the probable date of his removal from Weymouth to Boston Bay. Like Blackstone, Maverick was an Episcopalian, and his name occurs in a Maine patent granted by Sir Ferdinando Gorges, in conjunction with Blackstone's fellow-attorney, William Jeffrey, of Weymouth. The date of his removal to Noddle's Island is inferred to have been the fall of 1627. In Thomas Walford's case the evidence is less direct and conclusive, but points the same way. He too was probably a Weymouth settler. The other settlers about Boston Bay, over whom no mystery hangs, Mr. Adams also traces. They did not proceed from Weymouth. Mr. Adams's paper will appear in the forthcoming volume of Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society.

—The *International Review* for November contains an article by Dr. Johannes Huber on German Socialism, which is not unworthy of attention on account of the opinions therein expressed, but which is chiefly noticeable by reason of the extraordinary blunders of the translator. The *Review* has been conspicuously unfortunate in Englishing its contributions from the Continent, but we do not recall in its previous issues such botchwork as this. One of the liberal parties in Germany being called the "Fortschrittspartei," *anglicé* "Progressists," the pages of the article are filled with talk about the "Party of Progress," the "National-Liberals" being thus, by implication, ranked among the Conservatives. Further on we read of a "not yet socialistic but *progressive* [meaning *Progressist*] union." Again, the translator evidently considers the title "Prince of Prussia" synonymous with "Prussian prince," never having heard that it is used exclusively as the title of the heir-presumptive. Sometimes the author is made to say precisely the opposite of what he really must have said; *e.g.*, "the Prussian Government which the National Assembly had dissolved." With regard to Lassalle, we are told, the Government was aware that "if he should be beset with processes [*Prozesse* = trials, indictments] he would turn them into triumphs." Then we have explained to us Marx's theory of "the formation of the great capitals in England," as well as "the great landholding" and "the great industry." Later, in describing a tumultuous meeting, instead of saying that certain persons were driven from or hustled out of the room, we have the German "aus der Thür gesetzt" literally rendered "placed outside the door"; and so on, page after page.

—The history of the Lyceum Theatre in this city has been one of great expectations and great disappointments. It is one of the prettiest and most comfortable theatres in New York, and yet, either because it is too far from the main thoroughfares or because of bad management, or both, it has earned a thoroughly bad name among managers. For the past few weeks, however, it has been redeeming its reputation by an extraordinary hit in Mr. Denman Thompson's "Joshua Whitcomb." The part is one of a kind of which there is now a whole family on the stage. It is difficult to find a name for it—perhaps Degraded Yankee comes as near it as anything. Solon Shingle is the great prototype of the school of which Joshua Whitcomb is the latest type. Mr. William Warren, if we remember right, used to produce a part or two of the kind for the benefit of the Bostonians, but for some reason the stage Yankee has never been enjoyed as much in New England as it has in New York and London. There is certainly nothing idealized in the part of *Joshua Whitcomb*. He is the good-natured, vulgar, nasal, expectorating Yankee whom every one familiar with New England villages recognizes at once as true to the life. He is, however, of the quick, nervous Yankee type, as distinguished from the slow, drawling character common among deacons and persons in authority. It would go against our conscience to recommend any one to go to see "Joshua Whitcomb," for a more hopelessly vulgar entertainment we have never seen. The vulgarity of the principal personage is, of course, that inherent in the part. But that of the play in which he appears is another thing. So also is that of the actors with whom he acts. It was quite unnecessary to introduce into it any ladies or gentlemen, still less ladies and gentlemen whose ideas of good breeding are derived from the traditions of negro minstrelsy. The low life of the play is, moreover, too heartrending; the little boy and girl, both of whom show a good deal of talent, and the maltreated mother with her drunken husband, form altogether too sombre a background for *Joshua*. He has, however, made a great success and "created" a new type of degraded Yankee, more degraded in some respects than any the stage has hitherto possessed. It is curious, by the way, that the Yankee character, which would, *à priori*, be picked out as thoroughly undramatic, should practically serve the purposes of the theatres so well. But it is always in low comedy that its success lies, so that its want of adaptability to great dramatic situations and character may still properly be lamented by dramatic reformers.

—A minor addition to the musical entertainments of the season has been made by the Tracy-Titus English Opera Company, which has been giving the English version of the "Cloches de Corneville" at the St. James. The opera, though not put on the stage as well as it was last year by the Hess troupe, strikes us, on the whole, as being quite as well sung, and there is a pleasure to be got from good English voices that makes up for the want of dramatic faculty. If people really went to hear comic opera for the music, without regard to the acting, the St. James troupe would be better worth seeing, or rather hearing, than the Aimée company. Miss Lewis and Miss Laura Joyce—to say nothing of the actor who takes the part of the *Marquis*—have both better voices than any two actresses among the French company. In fact, if it was not for the great art with which the French singers manage what voices they have, it would hardly occur to any one that they were worth hearing at all. But that nameless something which is contributed to an opera by the fact that the whole company naturally *act* their parts, is almost wholly wanting even in the best English opera, and particularly in comic opera, where most English performers, while carefully refraining from anything that can offend the moral sense, usually lay themselves out to shock the taste by substituting horse-play for genuine theatrical comedy, and asinine jokes for those little half-confidences to the audience at which French actors (and especially actresses) are so good.

—The John Wilson Croker collection of works relating to the first French Revolution is the subject of an elaborate paper in a recent number of Von Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift*. The writer, J. Hermann, who has for the past ten years been a student of this and the collections at Berlin and Paris, regards this as in some respects the most remarkable existing. He estimates it to consist of between 20,000 and 30,000 separate publications, books, pamphlets, tracts, fly-leaves, and broadsides, which were arranged by Mr. Croker (they have not as yet been catalogued) under some 200 different divisions, commencing with "Le Collier." Many of these publications are excessively rare, on account of their rigorous suppression at the Restoration, when it was a treasonable offence to possess a copy of certain works. The collection made by M. Deschiens, and now in the National Library at Paris, is larger—there are 32,057 separate titles—but many of these are not originals, and it includes the later literature relating to this period. M. Deschiens published a bibliography of the journals in his collection in 1829, but was obliged to relinquish his plan of printing a complete catalogue on finding that it would reach to twenty-eight or thirty volumes.

—'Studien zur Geschichte der Landfrieden' is a brief treatise by Dr. Odo Eggert, the main object of which is to fix the date of the *Treuga Henrici*, or general peace, proclaimed by King Henry VII. (son of Frederic II.), which he places in the middle of October, 1224. Incidentally two points of general interest are taken up. The first is the connection of the *Landfriede*, as an institution, with the "Truce of God"; the second, a sketch of the successive Landfrieden of the eleventh and twelfth centuries, in connection with the disturbances which called them out in each case respectively. This is a valuable summary. The *Treuga Dei*, or

Truce of God, prohibiting private warfare from Wednesday night to Monday morning of each week, having originated in France, appears to have been turned to account by the German emperors of the eleventh century, to confirm their own ordinances. It did not, therefore, Dr. Eggert shows, contain anything essentially new in Germany, but merely made more explicit the provisions of the *Landfriede* in regard to persons and matters, armed them with an ecclesiastical sanction, and especially made them more practicable by the limitation to certain days of the week. From the time of the *Treuga Henrici* this last provision is wanting, and it was the great effort of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries to convert the *Landfriede*—established usually at the end of some civil war, or in view of a crusade or other enterprise of general moment—into a permanent institution.

BENTHAM.*

THE peculiarity of Bentham's genius lies in the fact that he perceived that legislation was an art, and brought to the art of legislation that kind of inventive talent and resource which is generally applied to the prosecution of scientific discovery, or to the improvement of mechanical inventions. It is this inventive genius which gives importance in his hands to the formula, notoriously adopted by him from other teachers, that the test of right action is the production of the greatest happiness for the greatest number; for, whatever may be said of this doctrine as the foundation of morals, few persons will now doubt that it supplies the only satisfactory test which can be provided of good legislation. And this is the light in which, in fact, it seems to have been mainly regarded by Bentham, for the real aim of his labors was, from his earliest youth to his death, the increase of human happiness by the improvement of legislation. His formula—derived, it is said, from Priestley—provided him with the object at which to aim. His talent for legislative invention showed him how to adapt means to the attainment of his end. If he is regarded as an inventor laboring in the field of legislation for the benefit of mankind, just as a man of science seeks after discoveries which may extend the field of human knowledge, Bentham will, we are convinced, be seen in his true light, and will be acknowledged as the teacher who, beyond all others since the time of Socrates, has conceived of life as an art, and has at least pointed to the way by which the principles of legislation ought to be investigated, and to the mode in which, by the scientific amelioration of law, the amount of human happiness may be increased.

The treatise on the 'Principles of Morals and Legislation,' opportunely republished by the Clarendon Press, may to an intelligent reader convey important hints as to the true nature of Bentham's genius. But nothing short of a reprint in an accessible form of Bowring's 'Memoirs and Correspondence of Bentham,' which is the worst-composed but also one of the most interesting biographies in the English language, will give the ordinary public any conception of the true originality of the man who, alone among modern inventors, applied extraordinary talents to the improvement of legislation and devoted his genius to the service of mankind. Bentham's marked faculty for the adaptation of means to ends, and the fervor with which he pursued his one end—the promotion of the happiness of mankind—are patent on every page of his biography. It was this capacity for adapting means to ends which enabled him to convert what at the hands of other writers, such as Godwin or Helvetius, was a mere barren formula, into a fertile principle. The 'Principles of Morals,' with its infinite number of divisions and sub-divisions, with its strange terms and its crabbed style, may strike a superficial reader as a dreary essay on the logic of law. But if the book be read with intelligence it will be seen to be an extraordinary and most successful effort to work out into detail the principles of sound legislation.

Let any one, for instance, who doubts this read the chapter on "Cases unmeet for Punishment," and then candidly consider whether Bentham has not really elaborated the principles which govern the topic with which he is dealing. And let the reader at the same time remember that this was the work of a comparatively young man dealing with an unexplored field of speculation. Even the least admiring critic must admit that Bentham is entirely free from the defect too commonly found even in considerable thinkers, of laying down general principles without any power to follow out their results. This is the more remarkable because a belief in the magic of sonorous maxims was the crying fault of his age. The French National Assembly wasted so much energy on enunciating the rights of man that they had none left to draw up a workable constitution. Their acts, as it was remarked by Romilly, constantly consisted solely of a preamble enunciating the principle, whilst the enactment of the clauses which should regulate its application was omitted or was postponed until some more favorable occasion. Bentham, on the other hand, contemned the platitudes which made up the Declaration of the Rights of Man as heartily as did Burke, and analyzed them with an acuteness at least as damaging as the orator's invective. When the French Assembly met, and Europe was excited by enthusiasm for a new era, Bentham, like a true inventor, turned his mind to meet a practical difficulty, and drew up for the use of the Assembly a scheme for the management of their debates. Readers of M. Taine's last volume will see that Bentham's suggestions in this matter were by no means superfluous; but our immediate point is to call attention to the light which the preparation by Bentham of such suggestions throws on the turn of his genius.

This special gift for the adaptation of means to ends enables us to understand two different features in his career which sometimes seem to need explanation. His special talent has, in the first place, a very close connection with what we may fairly call his special virtue. Whatever may be said of the logical effects of utilitarianism, there cannot be the least doubt that in Bentham an almost fanatical belief in utilitarian doctrine was connected with the most undoubted benevolence and with the most disinterested zeal for the public good. "I am," he writes in a book of memoranda, "as selfish as any man can be, but in me, somehow or other, so it happens, selfishness has taken the shape of benevolence." Nor is the paradox here asserted unintelligible. Even a moderate amount of sympathy with others would in many cases lead to zeal for the public benefit were it not that most people have no distinct view of any mode in which they can benefit the public. Bentham was like an inventor who has perceived by his genius the possibility of some great invention which may bless the human race. He was a man of considerable natural benevolence, but we need not doubt that the clearness with which he saw how mankind might be aided stimulated his zeal for aiding mankind. His special talent, again, explains the years of toil wasted on the attempt to obtain permission to found his Panopticon. It seems at first strange that a great speculative writer should have thrown away time and money and labor in striving for permission to set up a model prison. But the truth is that in arranging the scheme for the Panopticon Bentham was following out the true bent of his genius. Here the speculative writer on punishment runs almost into the inventor of new modes of prison discipline. Like all men, moreover, who have faith in their principles, Bentham longed for the test of practical experiment, and the world may still regret that conservatism and prejudice prevented the carrying out, under a man of first-rate genius, of what must in any case have been an invaluable experiment in the much-neglected art of rational punishment.

Several circumstances have obscured the inventive character of Bentham's mind. None of his disciples inherited his peculiar talent. The elder Mill must, even allowing for the obviously exaggerated estimate formed of James Mill's talents by his son, have possessed singular force of character; but his hard and narrow Scotch intellect had none of the suppleness or the originality which marks an inventor or a discoverer. Austin was not, even in his own line, marked by fertility of conception, and his line was the analysis of legal conceptions, not the invention of legal improvements. John Mill's receptive, and at bottom sentimental, nature fitted him to seize, elaborate, and expound the ideas of others. But the thinker to whom Hare's scheme and the enfranchisement of women seemed to be panaceas for all the political evils of the day, was certainly not the representative of the genius of a teacher who, in the nature of his talents, stood nearer to men like Watt and Stephenson than to the propounders of neat logical theories. The negative side, again, of Bentham's efforts has inevitably acquired undue prominence. When he commenced his struggle for legislative reform, he found the world encumbered by a mass of laws which certainly did not promote human happiness. The first efforts of Bentham and his disciples were inevitably directed to the repeal of bad laws. With what immense success these efforts have been rewarded may be appreciated by any one who will compare the condition of English jurisprudence under George the Third with its condition under Victoria. But that Bentham himself would have stopped short with the destruction of bad laws is what no one can suppose who appreciates his talents. Partly, however, because it is always easier to repeal a bad law than to enact a good one; partly because Bentham's disciples could hand on the formula, but could not hand on the genius of their master, the constructive side of Benthamism has fallen far more than it ought to do out of view, and critics who wish fairly to estimate what utilitarianism might achieve for the benefit of mankind, should con-

* 'Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation. By Jeremy Bentham.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co.

sider whether it is not possible that an amelioration in the lot of man far beyond what the world has ever witnessed might not be achieved if, for one generation only, the same inventive power which is turned to the creation of telephones or to the substitution of electric light for gas, were directed to the scientific improvement of law. We may, on some future occasion, call attention to the extraordinary dearth of human inventiveness in the field of politics and of legislation, but our present purpose is simply to point out that to apply inventiveness to the production of happiness was the peculiar trait of Bentham's character. Perhaps no single transaction in his life illustrates this better than what seem to have been nearly his last words. When he firmly believed he was near his last hour he said to one of his disciples, who was watching over him :

"I now feel that I am dying. Our care must be to minimize the pain. Do not let any of the servants come into the room, and keep away the youths. It will be distressing to them, and they can be of no service. Yet I must not be alone, and you will remain with me, and you only, and then we shall have reduced the pain to the least possible amount."

Even at his last breath he showed his resource, and so dealt with death itself as to "reduce the pain to the least possible amount."

The Great Painters of Christendom, from Cimabue to Wilkie. By John Forbes-Robertson. (New York: Cassell, Petter & Galpin. 1878. Pp. xi. 439, large 4to, many wood-cuts of pictures and ornamental letters, and head and tail pieces.)—On examination this proves to be a more important book than it appears at first. Its gorgeously decorated cover of green cloth, with passion-flowers and fanciful letters in gold and black; its profuse illustration, of which one-half, at least, is merely ornamental in character; the absence from those wood-cuts which really belong to the work of all reference to the original pictures or to the places where they are to be found, all go to characterize the book as a mere parlor-table publication. But it is a great deal more than that and better than that. The lives and works of more than a hundred painters of the schools of Italy, Spain, and the north, and of France and England in more recent times, are intelligibly told, with reference to the results of the latest investigations and the conclusions of modern criticism. The tone of the work is not too conservative. The author has his own views of the relative standing and dignity of different schools, and of the peculiar merits of different painters. Perhaps the expression of more decided convictions and a more imaginative insight would tend to make so general a treatise unsatisfactory to those readers for whom it is especially intended—those, namely, who know next to nothing of art, and come to a work of this kind for a guide-book knowledge of what has been generally agreed upon, rather than suggestions of what is more profound, more remote, and more individual. We are thinking of such parts of the book as, for instance, the remarks upon Raphael's work. Any suggestion that the Roman school was not in all respects the greatest of schools, and that the pictures of Raphael's maturity, even more than those of his boyhood, show some lack of reality of conception on the one hand, and of Venetian glory of color on the other, however such suggestion might please one or the other of the great classes of art-lovers, would infallibly repel the less artistically-minded reader, because seeming to him heretical and over-bold. Nothing shocks the unprepared reader so much as an excess of originality ; and that which is matter of course to the practical student of art, that which he is prepared for and believes, more or less, already, as his temperament bids him, is often strange and unheard-of boldness to the general reader. In like manner it seems (p. 18) that our author is hasty in characterizing as he does, with entire reprobation, the work of the Italians during the five centuries before Cimabue. There is a good deal of chat—for it can hardly be called by a different name—about the arts akin to painting, the tendencies of architecture, etc., all of which avails little in real study of the subject; and the frequent quotations from many writers upon art are seemingly guided by no choice, but one authority is taken as about as good as another.

But we come back to the point we started from in repeating that the critical discussion of paintings and painters is not without considerable value, and that, of the books likely to be bought by the general reader, this is perhaps the best yet supplied. The enquiry is very frequently made, Where can one find a general account of schools of art and individual artists? and books pretending to give that information are by no means uncommon; but hitherto we have been unable to answer in a satisfactory way the question when put to us. The present book comes very near to being what is wanted. It is perhaps to be regretted that it is in a costly and cumbrous form.

The Problem of the Homeric Poems. By William D. Geddes, LL.D., Professor of Greek in the University of Aberdeen. (London and New York : Macmillan & Co. 1878.)—Grote's theory of the structure of the 'Iliad,' put forth in the second volume of his 'History of Greece,' was, in brief, as follows : He held that Books I., VIII., XI.–XXII. (perhaps also XXIII. and XXIV.) made up the original poem, which he called an Achilleid, and that the rest of the 'Iliad' was a subsequent enlargement of this work of Homer, although the added books are not of inferior merit nor of a later generation than the original Achilleid. His arguments for this view were drawn entirely from the inconsistencies, not of language or metre, but of subject-matter between the two sections thus separated. The theory was noticed and discussed by several German scholars within a few years after its publication in 1846, but has never, we believe, been critically examined by any English writer, except in a paper in the 'Transactions of the American Philological Association for 1876,' which paper, however, did not discuss the general subject but confined itself to criticism of Grote's arguments. Now we have in this book by Professor Geddes an attempt to establish virtually the same theory by entirely new arguments and with an important addition. His theory is that the books composing Grote's Achilleid were written by a Thessalian poet whose name is unknown to us, for the honor of the Aeolo-Dorian race of Northern Greece in the person of its chief hero, Achilles ; and that the rest of the 'Iliad' (which he calls the Ulyssean books) and the 'Odyssey' were written by an Ionian poet of Asia Minor, who bore the name Homer, and have for their object to glorify the Ionic race in the person of Ulysses mainly and also of the Peloponnesian chiefs. He supports this theory by pointing out similarity between the Ulyssean books and the 'Odyssey,' and differences of the Achilleid from both, in such matters as these—extent of geographical knowledge, honor to Ulysses, varying treatment of a number of selected characters, mythology, house furniture, dress and the like, marriage usages, references to the horse and the dog, and geographical allusions suggesting the locality of the poet. Thus the Achilleid, it is argued, shows a primitive mythology, full of physical conceptions and of violent conflicts among the gods ; a barbarous ethics, allowing exultation over and abuse of a slain enemy and recognizing purchase as the basis of marriage ; a social life of little refinement in house-furnishing, dress, comforts, arts and inventions, an entire absence of ethical purpose in the action of the poem ; and in all these particulars the Ulyssean books and the 'Odyssey' are in contrast with it. In the Achilleid the horse is the favorite animal, and the dog appears only in associations of contempt or disgust, while in the rest of the poems this relation is reversed. These points and many others like them are defended by numerous citations, and the book is thus full of matter interesting to students of Homer. It shows a very intimate acquaintance with these poems and with other literature, and no small ability in the handling of the argument.

With all this the book does not quite convince the reader. It makes the impression of being rather an argument to establish the writer's theory than an impartial presentation of the facts of the case, with a conclusion clearly made out from them. The argument is, in general, fairly conducted, with due recognition of difficulties and exceptions, but still the author sometimes (unconsciously, no doubt) makes statements which, though true in every word, are in effect false because they contain only part of the truth. It is impossible here to give full evidence of this, but one or two striking instances may be merely enumerated, that a reader of the book may see what is meant. Such instances are to be found on p. 96 (as to lack of any reference to Ulysses in eight Achillean books), on p. 99 (as to insignificance of Thessalian chiefs in Ulyssean books), on p. 107 (as to Hector's conduct towards Polydamas), on p. 167 (as to color on Ulysses's ships), on p. 207 (as to the epithet "thundering"). Again, we find sometimes only a single instance of a word in one of the two sections of the poems used to help out the argument as to their different origin. How little such solitary instances indicate is shown by Friedländer's calculation that of the whole Homeric vocabulary about one-quarter consists of words that occur only once. The writer's method is after the Gladstonian pattern, in that he lays great stress upon epithets, finds solemnity and hieratic significance where the common eye cannot detect them, and ignores the influence of metre on the formation of phrases. Like Grote, he refuses to entertain any doubt as to the original unity of the 'Odyssey,' but he does this in spite of the criticisms of Lauer, Hennings, Kirchhoff, and others, which have appeared since Grote's theory was published. On the whole, there is weakness in an argument which first assumes that such and such books form a group by themselves, and then proceeds to prove a certain character for the whole group on the strength

of passages taken only from single books. A number of the characteristics of the Ulyssean group are proved only by passages from the Catalogue in Book II., or from Book IX., or from Book X., or from Book XXIV., or from two of these only. Still the view presented is so new, and the mass of indications in its favor, slight or misconceived as many of them may be, is so large, that the work deserves serious study and discussion at the hands of Homeric scholars.

Stories of Remarkable Persons. By W. Chambers, LL.D. (Edinburgh and London : W. & R. Chambers. 1878.)—This is a book of the sort that appears perennially to encourage poor and struggling youths by detailing the early lives of illustrious men. The vigorous Scotch which closes the sketch of Thomas Edward, the Banffshire naturalist, might well have served as a motto for the title-page : "Look, ye misspenders of idle time, ye wasters of existence, ye thriftless dram-drinkers, ye vacant-minded street-loungers, what was done by one as poor, if not poorer, than yourselves ! All we ask is that, reflecting a little on your responsibilities, you would endeavor to take to heart the thrilling and instructive instance we have presented of a noble struggle." But the book is far above the average of its fellows; it is entertainingly written; it combines with its moralizing much valuable biographical information, some of which is very curious ; we are given the history of that Scotch lord, of whom we have heard the legend, who found his life-work in sharpening razors, and who made his tailor wear his new clothes until they were fitted to his form before he would don them himself ; we have a delightful extract from the curious book, 'Mystifications,' by Miss Stirling Graham ; the career of De Lesseps gives occasion for a general description of the Suez Canal, and in the story of the Herschels we get the history of early telescope manufacture. Interesting to our public, particularly, are the careers of A. T. Stewart, the Astors, Horace Greeley, and the Jubilee Singers, to which, perhaps, ought to be added the story of Glencairn, the Lord Gordon of Erie notoriety in this city a few years since. This is especially, of course, a book for boys, to whom it will be commended by its excellent typography and neat binding ; but the elders will find amusement and instruction in it as well. The most noted of the persons whose lives it tells, whom we have not mentioned, are the Wordsworths, the Fairbairns, Lord Eldon, Mary Somerville, and Camille Desmoulins. It is an excellent book to remember at Christmas.

A Practical Treatise on China Painting in America, with some Suggestions as to Decorative Art. By Camille Piton, Principal of the National Art Training School, Philadelphia. With folio album of Plates. (New York : John Wiley & Sons. 1878).—The brief preface to this little book is signed by M. Piton, and states that, "owing to his imperfect acquaintance with English," his MS. has been translated by Miss C. A. Drinker. The greater part of the work is devoted to an account of the processes of painting on porcelain and on faïence. It is evidently the work of a practised ceramic painter. The suggestions and warnings are such as could occur only to one who had tried all the expedients suggested and suffered from all the difficulties named. So far it is useful and trustworthy. But between author and translator, somewhere, there lies the responsibility for a series of errors and slips in the phraseology which go far to defeat the good purpose of the book. Thus, on p. 19 we are told that it is "impossible to decorate porcelain in any other way than on the surface of the glaze, by thin layers of fusible colors baked in the muffle at low temperature"—an obvious misstatement, ignoring all the immense variety of "blue china," precisely the most popular and high-priced at the present time of all ceramic wares. This statement is contradicted, moreover, a few lines below, where mention is made of the colors which need the *grand feu* or highest temperature. Painting on porcelain under the glaze seems to be generally ignored in the work, for on p. 29 it is said that "the Chinese do their beautiful work on hard porcelain with a single baking," as if the cobalt, the enamels, and the gold were all fired at once. Of course these errors are of statement only ; it is evident that one particular sort of porcelain decoration was in the writer's mind, and that that one sort is spoken of by mere inadvertence as if it were the only possible kind. But these errors are numerous, and the whole description of the processes of work is exceedingly ill-arranged and vague, so that it would be probably impossible for a person otherwise uninstructed to learn from this book alone what is needful for the practice of ceramic painting. In addition to the technical part of the book there are, right in the middle, a couple of pages about heraldry, too brief and slight to be of any value ; and pages five to sixteen are devoted to the old discussion of the theoretical composition of colors and the theoretical harmonies and contrasts of colors, suggested by Mr. Chevreuil's book and Mr. Owen Jones's numerous essays and treatises, probably of no value to any workman at any time, and certainly misleading, as giving out that the art of combining colors can be taught in words. The plates are full-size outlines for transferring to tiles and plates designs not badly chosen and of possible utility.

Zoölogy of the Vertebrate Animals. By Alex. Macalister, M.D., Professor of Zoölogy and Comparative Anatomy in the University of Dublin. Specially revised for American students by A. S. Packard, jr., M.D. (New York : Henry Holt & Co. 1878.)—This manual, the first of the "Hand-books for Students and General Readers," is of the right size for its purpose, and the space has been quite justly distributed among the different subjects. The language, too, is intelligible, and the selection of morphological points is fairly good. Before speaking of the errors of detail, we will say that we think the book on the whole a useful one—in the dearth of such books a very useful one—and to be cordially welcomed as an accession to our means of teaching zoölogy. But the errors are to be regretted, especially as they must result from oversight and would have been removed if a more careful revision could have been made by the learned editor. The announcement of the volume upon the Invertebrates from the same sources makes it proper that we should call particular attention to the mistakes which deface this part. Our criticisms regard the book in its American form, and we have not observed how far Prof. Macalister as well as Prof. Packard is responsible.

The version is designed to meet the needs of American students, and might, it seems to us, have been carried to a more exact adaptation. The examples which are given are generally of European animals where common American ones could have been as well substituted, inasmuch as the object is not to teach the nature of the nightingale or hedgehog, but of the groups to which these belong. Sometimes, too, the European vulgar names are misleading: to an American reader "bull-head" would denote a horned pout, while in the text (p. 31) a kind of sculpin is referred to. The "gar pike" mentioned is the *Belone* and not the *Lepidosteus* so common in the Mississippi Valley. The latter is referred to repeatedly as the "*Californian* bony pike." The student might be surprised at finding that the "tropical" *Remora* was not uncommon on the bleak coasts of New England, or that a *Torpedo* was frequent here as well as in the Mediterranean. The egg-cases of the Scylliidæ are spoken of. This family is not found on our coasts, but the common devil's pocket-books, the egg-cases of the skates, are left unnoticed. Other mistakes and infelicities there are. The notochord is always spoken of as cartilaginous, whereas it is almost never of that structure. *Cornua trabeculæ* appear to be synonymous with *trabeculæ* themselves. The spiracles of most Elasmobranchs and some Ganoids can hardly be spoken of as *gill fissures* in the way that they are on p. 8, and they may close up when the shark is quite well grown and not at an "extremely early period in embryonic life." The statement that the "median fins, though apparently single and central, are in reality composed of two lateral layers placed in close apposition," is a good example of what Comte used to call metaphysical, and has no excuse in real fact. Fish are stated to be "oviparous—that is, their young are produced from eggs." But all animals can be traced back to eggs ; most Elasmobranchs are brought forth from eggs hatched inside the mother, and in some of them—the smooth-dog-fish (*Mastelus*), for example —there is provision for considerable uterine nutrition by an organ analogous to a placenta. These are all ovoviviparous, an epithet freely used in speaking of reptiles, but not here. In all fishes but the Marsipobranchii no communication is said to exist between the pharynx and the nasal cavities. We find later that this is not true for the Dipnoi, nor is it true for certain Murænoids. We are surprised to be told that the Dipnoi have *horny* scales. Lizards are said to have at least the fore-limbs, which is a mistake, though the shoulder girdle is always represented even when there are no limbs. The common striped snake is rather unfortunate. We read in the glossary "*Tropidonous*, the ringed snake, 46" (which should be *Tropidonotus*, the striped snake), and on page 46 all that we find is the "striped snake, *Eutœmia sertalis*," instead of *Eutœnia sirtalis*, a vacillating nomenclature combining with typographical and other errors to produce one of those little confusions which are most exasperating to the beginner. The definition of the Anacanthini in the glossary as "soft-finned fishes with no swimming-bladder" contrasts somewhat with the statement which has been going the

rounds of the papers that the fishermen about Eastport have made $75,000 the past season from hake sounds, etc., etc.

Contributions to Natural History, and Papers on Other Subjects. By James Simson. (New York: James Miller. 1878. Pp. 210.)—Apparently unconscious that the success of miscellaneous volumes like Huxley's 'Lay Sermons' is rather the result than the occasion of fame, Mr. Simson has included within the same covers essays upon subjects so diverse as "Romanism" and "The Gypsies," "John Stuart Mill" and "Snakes Swallowing their Young." Some years ago Mr. Simson found within a striped snake "about twenty snakelets of considerable size and rather lively." This was not proof that she had swallowed them, since the striped snakes—like vipers and many other species—bring forth living young, and these snakelets may have been as yet unborn. But after hearing rumors of swallowings Mr. Simson, instead of awaiting further opportunities or diminishing the density of his ignorance as to the structure and economy of serpents, "rushed into print." Thenceforth for him all snakes were "swallowers" or "non-swallowers," and all human beings "pro-swallowers" or "anti-swallowers." To this latter category belonged Mr. Frank Buckland, who, as editor of *Land and Water*, was at last constrained to decline some of Mr. Simson's communications. What such unbelief may merit is but darkly hinted by our author, but his readers will probably conclude that Mr. Buckland will be sufficiently punished by reading the unsatisfactory "evidence," the illogical "arguments," and the unwarranted "conclusions" which are reiterated in the present volume.

Yet Mr. Simson is probably correct in his belief that several species of snakes do protect their young by allowing them to glide down their throats. The late Prof. Wyman admitted its possibility, and to the accounts of numerous untrained witnesses is to be added the unimpeachable testimony of the Professor of Comparative Anatomy at Yale College, as stated by Goode in the Proceedings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science for 1873. To this paper, and to Putnam's paper in the second volume of the *American Naturalist*, those interested are referred. To convince the last lingering unbelievers it is probably necessary for a skilled observer—which Mr. Simpson might, perhaps, become after a few years of biological training—to witness the swallowing of the young, then tie a cord around the old one's neck, and finally make a careful examination by the aid of instruments more appropriate than the "two sticks" with which our author's first and only dissection was performed.

The Art of Flower Painting. By Mrs. William Duffield, with twelve illustrations by Dalziel. Edited by Susan H. Carter, Principal of the Woman's Art School, Cooper Union. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1878.)—This is one of the odd little books whose existence it is hard to account for. Is there anybody who expects to learn anything useful about the practice of flower-painting from a hand-book? The author has not, it must be admitted, confined herself to vague generalizations. The pupil is told exactly what colors to use to imitate the hues of any of the flowers named—*e.g.*, "This flower [the yellow crocus] is of a tone so deep that chrome yellow No. 3 must be used for the local color, and after the shadows are finished with a mixture of pink madder and a very little cobalt, it must also be glazed with gamboge." "For the blue nemophila cobalt alone will be the nearest approach to nature in the local color." It appears, indeed, that all the colors of all the flowers are to be found ready in the color-box, except a certain shade "found in the most brilliant petunias and cinerarias," and "hovering between crimson and purple" in a vexatious manner, so that "it can scarcely be called by either name." For this ineffable color the author despairs of giving a recipe, and the pupil is advised to let it alone. What we have said describes the book sufficiently. Perhaps there are those to whom it will be useful.

The editor's work has been confined—as far as appears, for no changes in the text are spoken of—to six foot-notes, of which the longest contains four lines. In one of them a certain great painter's patronymic is given as "Vernese," and in another there is question of the best guides for the student of color, and the only painter named as such a guide is "Escosura" (Leon y Escosura, no doubt), an artist whose admirers even will be a little astonished at the claim set up for him. There are true things in the book, as there are in all such books; but truth and absurdity, mingled in uncertain proportions, are a bad prescription.

The School-Boy. By Oliver Wendell Holmes. With illustrations. (Boston: Houghton, Osgood & Co. 1878.)—This is a pleasant poem in Dr. Holmes's familiar ten-syllabled rhymed couplet, of which, *teste* "The Wonderful Quiz," he was master in 1849, and of which he is a master yet. These verses were read at Phillips Academy, Andover, at the Centennial Celebration last June. Recollections of school and play, fifty years ago; of the teachers of those days, and of the fellow-pupils who have since been teachers, or otherwise well known, make the poem partly incomprehensible to the reader who was not an Andover boy. But it remains pleasant reading for anybody.

There are about thirty wood-cuts, a few of full-page size. Messrs. D. C. Hitchcock, J. Appleton Brown, F. T. Merrill, W. L. Sheppard, and A. R. Waud are the designers, whose names are given in a table which includes all the prints except the pretty little headpiece and the tailpiece to the list of illustrations itself. The small, dark landscapes by Mr. Brown are very good; they give it is hard to say what sense of space and distance. Mr. Sheppard's crowded school-room is also a success, in its way; without effort or exaggeration the various life of the school is well expressed, and the picture is not hopelessly ugly, in spite of the bare and desolate interior which the faithful pencil was obliged to represent. Like other gift-books of the season this one is printed on one side only of heavy, smooth paper; but it is larger than they in containing forty leaves. It is also better than many in general appearance and in interest.

Growth of the Steam-Engine. By Prof. R. H. Thurston. (New York: D. Appleton & Co.)—Prof. Thurston in this work treats of the evolution of the steam-engine, and divides his treatise into discussions of the steam-engine as a simple machine, the steam-engine as a train of mechanism, the development of the modern steam-engine, the modern steam-engine, the steam-engine of to-day, and the philosophy of the steam-engine. The philosophical and historical side is presented somewhat diffusively in certain chapters, but the popular taste may require a large amount of biography in connection with a scientific presentation of the subject. The development of the modern steam-engine is treated in a masterly manner, and wherever actual processes and mechanical contrivances are described the author shows his thorough acquaintance with the steam-engine. He is candid enough to give Englishmen and Scotchmen due credit for their superiority over Americans in the introduction and perfection of the compound engine. It would have been well to have brought more forcibly to the attention of American machinists the good which has been wrought by the co-operation of the Glasgow builders with scientific laborers like Rankine and Sir William Thomson, which has led to such immense advances in the economic use of the compound engine. We could desire also that the American boiler-builder might have had a chapter devoted to his sins. The author shows conclusively the necessity of good and conscientious workmanship for further advances in the employment of steam, and reads the American mechanic a good moral lesson. Those who are interested in industrial education can find no stronger argument for its necessity than that contained in Prof. Thurston's interesting treatise.

Rock of Ages. By Augustus Montagu Toplady. With designs by Miss L. B. Humphrey, engraved by John Andrew & Son. (Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1878.)—This little gift-book contains on one page the well-known hymn in the original form, exactly as given by Lord Selborne in the 'Book of Praise,' and, following it, a very brief notice of its author. The hymn is then "illustrated" by a dozen wood-cuts, with (to each cut) a line or two of the poetry in Gothic type. The designs are of the class that would naturally be looked for in such a volume, calling for no especial remark, certainly not for praise. Two extra pictures are put in to make a thicker book, each with a brief text, having no especial reference to the hymn. The whole is printed on thick and luxurious paper.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 12, 1878.

The Week.

CONGRESS has been working on half-time. On Wednesday week resolutions were passed in both houses looking to the appointment of a joint Congressional Committee to consider the best means of preventing the spread of yellow fever. Mr. Stanley Matthews was not humored in his desire to take up the Texas and Pacific Bill. The House passed a bill to correct the probably fraudulent omission from an appropriation bill of the last session of a clause providing for the Hot Springs reservation. On Monday the silver-men in the House came out in force, introducing various measures to make the Dollar of our Fathers bankable and redeemable at the Treasury in greenbacks, and to redeem and suppress the trade-dollar. Mr. Durham, of Kentucky, moved a suspension of the rules to pass his bill for thus disposing of the trade-dollar, and though he failed of the necessary two-thirds, he secured a majority of 154 to 91. Mr. Fort, of Illinois, was equally fortunate and unfortunate in his endeavor to pass at once a bill threatening any bank that refused to receive the legal-tender dollar on a par with gold and paper with a withdrawal of its circulation. He found 150 supporters against 89 in the negative. Mr. Page, of California, introduced a bill to enforce the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments in the case of South Carolina, and reduce its representation in Congress to two members, in consequence of a "large number of male citizens, belonging to one political party," having been, by statute and concerted fraud and terrorism, "denied the rights secured to them under the Constitution." In the Senate, the most important event was Mr. Edmunds's speech in behalf of his Electoral Bill, which has found a warm supporter in Mr. Morgan, of Alabama, and an opponent in Mr. Jones, of Florida. On Tuesday the House passed the Consular and Diplomatic and the Naval appropriation bills.

Mr. Edmunds's bill for amending the machinery for the election of President undoubtedly contains the best plan yet devised for preventing the recurrence of the trouble of 1876, and probably the best practicable plan, and has the great merit of not departing from existing Constitutional lines. First and foremost it leaves to the State absolutely the duty of deciding who are its Presidential electors, by such process as it pleases to prescribe, and thus does not permit Congress to constitute itself a returning board and "go behind the returns." In the next place it leaves the States time for this process by appointing the first Tuesday in October for the election, and the second Monday in January for the meeting of the electors, by which an interval of three months is left for a "fair count" and any necessary litigation before the courts. Had this arrangement been in force in 1876, the work of the Florida Republican electors would have been undone and a different set of electors would have cast the vote of the State, inasmuch as the Supreme Court overruled, but too late, the action of Dennis, McLin, and the virtuous Cowgill. Congress is then to meet to receive and count the votes on the second Monday in February in joint convention. When a certificate is objected to, each House is to withdraw and consult separately. If there is only one return from a State, both Houses must concur in order to reject it. If there be more than one, that which is approved by the proper State tribunal must be accepted. As to whether the tribunal is proper or not, a negative decision can only be made by both Houses concurrently. If there be no State tribunal's decision or more than one return, a vote can only be counted by the concurrence of both Houses. Congress can do the country no greater service this winter than in pushing this measure to enactment.

Apropos of Mr. Fort's resolution declaring it "defiance of the law" for a National Bank to refuse to receive silver dollars on deposit, and directing the Banking Committee to bring in a bill providing for the withdrawal of its circulation from any bank guilty of this "defiance," it is characteristic of the silver-men as of the "Latin race" to describe violations of the law in this vague-sounding manner, without mentioning or citing the statute. As we pointed out last week, there is no such "law" as Mr. Fort had in his mind. It has been referred to a good deal during the past fortnight, but it is a figment of the silver imagination. Moreover, in America, violations of the law exposing people to penalties are ascertained by judicial enquiry, and not by blatherskite resolutions in Congress. Mr. Hewitt has introduced a bill, which is said to have a chance of passing, recognizing the fact, which the silver-men have generally overlooked, that gold is by law still our unit of value, and that the Treasury in issuing a silver dollar is bound to treat it as of the same value as the gold dollar, and redeem it in gold. But he proposes also that the Treasury shall only coin and issue silver dollars on demand—that is, that it shall only make what the public calls for. This would save the Fathers' Dollar from depreciation, but it would also reveal a most unnatural indifference on the part of the people to these relics of their deceased parents. For all foolish attempts at legislation on this subject—we do not apply this remark to Mr. Hewitt's bill—the Democrats are found almost solid on the side of folly, and the Southerners among them.

Mr. Page's plan for putting an end to intimidation at the South has the same marks of childishness as Mr. Fort's plan for punishing the banks. The Fourteenth Amendment, in providing that when the right to vote is "denied" or "in any way abridged" to any of the male inhabitants of a State the basis of representation shall be proportionately reduced, undoubtedly referred to denial or abridgment by State legislation. The *right* to vote cannot be denied or abridged by cheating or violence at the polls, or by any illegal course. The right to vote is a legal right which only the law can take away. What has been denied at the South at the late election is the opportunity to vote, and a fair count of the votes cast. In other words, certain voters have been made the victims of a criminal offence under the State law, and what Mr. Page proposes to do is to aggravate their grievance by diminishing their weight in the Federal legislature. Moreover, how would he ascertain the number of persons who were deprived of their vote? And how could he show that because they were prevented from voting at one election they would never be allowed to vote again at any other? The remedy for what has occurred in South Carolina and elsewhere is to be found in the prosecution of offenders by the Federal and State authorities, and in the power of each House to judge of the qualifications of its own members. It sometimes seems as if "outrages" had the same muddling effect on the brain as silver.

In pursuance of the views expressed in his annual report, Secretary Sherman has sent to the House the draught of a bill embodying sundry amendments to our tariff and collection laws. First among these is a change of our sugar duties, which proposes to levy a uniform rate of 2.40 cents a pound on all raw sugars not above No. 13 in color, and not testing over 94 degrees by the polariscope or its equivalent; all sugars testing over 94 to pay the rate now assessed on sugars over No. 13 and not above No. 16 in color, *i.e.*, 3.43¾ cents per pound. By thus reducing the number of dutiable grades matters would be somewhat simplified; but the change would keep the most objectionable feature of the present system alive, and by discriminating against high grades it would, in effect, merely reverse the present order of things. Of centrifugal sugars none but the highest grades could be imported to advantage, and high-test Mus-

covado sugars would become the favored class—a hint which the Cuban planters might be forced to take, but the effect of which neither our refiners nor consumers would be likely to relish. Nor could the temptation to fraud be expected to be diminished if a difference in duty of more than one cent a pound were to be made dependent upon the result of a single test. Honest importers would hardly dare to import sugars approaching a strength of 94 degrees when but a slight error of the sampler or of the chemist would be liable to change an expected profit into a loss. For such reasons as these the proposal received the unanimous condemnation of a meeting of sugar importers and refiners held here last Tuesday; but we regret to see that these gentlemen have again failed to meet it by any definite counter-proposition, and have contented themselves with asking for an adjustment of the sugar duties approaching as nearly as possible to an ad-valorem system, without, however, showing how this is to be done. We ask again, Why not unite on an ad-valorem duty pure and simple?

Several witnesses have been heard by the Indian Commission since our last issue. Secretary Schurz was examined on Friday. He disclaimed any desire as the head of a Department to retain control of the Indians, who were of course a source of great trouble and anxiety; but he insisted that in the nature of the case the function of the Army was to repress and not to civilize, and he believed in carrying on the work of civilization already prosperously begun. The present demand on the part of the Army was characterized as inconsistent with opinions published only a few years ago, and to prove this he produced a report signed in 1868 by Gen. Sherman, Gen. Augur, and other officers, expressly declaring the unwillingness of officers to instruct Indians in the peaceful arts, and deprecating on that account the transfer of the Bureau. He denied that Indian wars were due to the dishonesty of agents: the real cause of almost all of them was the breaking of treaties and encroachment by the whites. Mr. Schurz went so far in his vindication of the civil administration as to allege that honesty had not always been the rule in the Army, and that its former management of the Bureau had been disgracefully lax and slovenly. He pointed to the thorough prosecution of rascality among the agents and contractors of the Bureau which had taken place and was still going on under his direction, and closed with an enumeration of measures which he deemed important to the full success of the policy now in force. Col. A. B. Meacham testified that nearly half the whole number of Indians stood in no need whatever of military supervision, that they regarded the Army as their enemy, and found its tone "very grinding and humiliating." Commissioner Hayt went into a comparison of the respective costs of Bureau and Army transportation, and said he was "personally aware that the Indians were opposed to the proposed change." This statement has been confirmed by the voice of numerous councils held to consider the change, and which were almost unanimous against it.

Our comments a fortnight since upon Mr. Campbell's letter to the Charleston Democracy, upon the eve of the late election in South Carolina, seem to have led to a misapprehension. From the text of our remarks it might seem that we referred to *two* letters of Mr. Campbell, one before the election and another after it. Such was not the fact, and we did not intend to be so understood. We had seen nothing from Mr. Campbell beyond his letter of November 1, prior of course to the election, and calm and dispassionate in tone, but we are informed that he has written no other, so that in fact there has been since the election no "angry protest."

The *Times* calmly announces this week that Wade Hampton's leg has been amputated, after having announced last week that he was "shamming Abraham," having sustained no injury to his leg, and for the sole purpose of avoiding signing the fraudulent electoral certificates. It did not explain, though, how it was that so bad a man should take to his bed and falsely say his leg was broken, in order to escape doing a thing in which as a villain he must have delighted. What it ought to have said was that, after having suffered amputation at the hip-joint, he insisted on sitting up in his bed, in defiance of his doctors, for the purpose of signing fraudulent documents of every description, and that, to the surprise of his attendants, the exercise had a markedly-improving effect on his health. The *Times* also defends Smalls, the convicted bribe-taker, and suggests broadly, in the teeth of that statesman's own endorsed checks, that a man who ran a Confederate steamer out of Charleston harbor during the war ought not to go to the penitentiary, even if he does take bribes; and it heaps scorn on "the bridging of the bloody chasm." The *Tribune* will see from all this how unwise its hopeful view of the President's Message was. Governor Hampton, we must add, has been elected to the United States Senate, almost unanimously.

That there were outrages and intimidation at the South during the late election is quite certain, but that the extent of them is not yet correctly known, and that it has been grossly and maliciously exaggerated, is just as certain. One of the reports soon after the election came from District-Attorney Leonard, who declared that in the parish of Caddo alone seventy-five negroes had been killed, and the others intimidated by "bands of armed men." The Boston *Advertiser*, which receives news of outrages as reverentially as the *Tribune*, now publishes prominently the result of the enquiries of a Bostonian among his business friends on the spot, for whom he vouches to the uttermost. They say the Leonard story is false; and that there were no negroes killed and no armed men parading except a posse for the maintenance of order, commanded by a deputy of the Republican sheriff. They add that twenty new colored schools have been opened in the parish since the establishment of the Nicholls government. That there have been disturbances in the State there is no doubt, but Governor Nicholls has personally investigated them on the spot, and promises to punish them. As Horace Greeley so often plaintively asked: "Is there to be no end of lying?" We fear not, so long as it is meat and drink to so many able-bodied men.

Governor Holliday's long message to the General Assembly of Virginia is nearly altogether occupied with a discussion of the State debt, and is in the same temper as the address of the citizens of Richmond to which we called attention last week. He rehearses the labors of the last session which resulted in declaring the debt just and in deciding to pay it; expresses his sense of the paralyzing influence of the unsettled condition of the debt upon the prosperity of the State; occupies considerable space in defending himself from the charge of sacrificing the free public-school system to the bondholders; states that the deficit in the revenues leaves something less than half the interest unpaid; says that this should be honorably met by increased taxation, which he estimates at thirty to forty cents on the hundred dollars—instead of twenty cents as the citizens' address stated—or by accepting propositions of the creditors who might be willing to modify their demands; and finally conveys two specific offers from responsible parties, one from London suggesting a funding of the entire debt at four per cent., gold, exempt from taxation, with coupons receivable for all demands due the State; the other from New York to the same effect, except that only consols should bear four per cent., and other bonds three and a half per cent.; both propositions provide for a sinking fund and extinguishing the debt in forty years. The Governor favors the acceptance of one of these plans and states that the deficit could then be made up without too great a strain upon the industries of the State. The whole forms a sensible argument and powerful appeal, and is pervaded by a deep sense of honor.

The important financial events of the week were: (1), the suspension of the West of England and South Wales District Bank, with deposit liabilities of $17,500,000; (2), the consequent advance in the rate for discounts in London from 4¼ to 5 per cent., and the decline in British consols from 94⅝ to 94⅛, to 93⅞ to 94; (3), the fall in the price of silver bullion from 50¾*d.* to 50⅝*d.* per oz. to 50¼*d.*; and (4) the calling in for redemption of $5,000,000 more of U. S.

5-20 6 per cent. bonds. The great failure above noted was the result of the depression in the coal and iron trade, although it was immediately brought about by the circulation of unsettling rumors. The bank had forty-two branches, and, while no one believes that its management was conducted in the rascally manner which characterized that of the City Bank of Glasgow, yet its unsoundness from legitimate causes is alarming, both on account of the immense amount of its deposits and as another sign of the progress of the general liquidation of the bad business of the last five years in England. It now seems inevitable that there should be many other failures of the kind there before the financial atmosphere is as clear as it is with us. Resumption prospects are bright, although it is evident that Wall-street speculators intend to do what they can to make the loan market stringent between now and February 1. Thus far they have accomplished nothing; and it is not believed that they can do more than inflict temporary annoyance. The bullion value of the 412½-grain dollar at the close of the week was $0.8469 gold. The Treasury is willing to buy trade-dollars as bullion; a movement is on foot among bullion dealers and their friends in Congress to induce the Treasury to take them at the market value of the legal-tender 412½-grain dollar—about 99¾ to 100.

The report that it was proposed to demonetize silver in India and substitute the gold standard doubtless emanated from the official class, which sends home its savings to England and is suffering a loss of twenty-five per cent. through the depreciation of silver. The operation is, however, much too large a one for the Indian Government to undertake in the present condition of its finances, even if it were desirable on general grounds, and the story has been denied. There are supposed to be about $1,500,000,000 in circulation in silver in India, and of course the discarding of such a mass would be a tremendous undertaking. The rumor of it, which has had a certain foundation in the language of Indian officials, produced a curious effect on the silver-men here. If true to their principles, they ought to have hailed the news with joy; but it appears to have frightened them a good deal, and they have been writing articles showing that it would be an outrageous thing, and cannot happen. They forget, however, that on their own showing it is the best thing that could happen. The attraction silver has had for them all through the late discussion is that it is cheap, and therefore easy for the poor man to get hold of; consequently the cheaper it is the better, and the more of it is released elsewhere and sent to us here, the gladder we ought to be. But to follow them through their argumentation about it makes one dizzy.

We have discussed elsewhere the approaching Jingo experiment of starting a court in Canada. But the practical difficulties in the way of it, which probably never occurred to the Oriental imagination which conceived it, are amusingly described in the Canadian papers. The trouble began at Halifax, where none but "landaus, barouches, and broughams," with liveried drivers, were allowed to appear in the procession. This passed without notice, but at Montreal, where there was to be a drawing-room, the Court Chamberlain issued orders which have proved too much for the loyalty even of the Toronto *Mail* and *Globe*. The ladies to be presented were to appear in low-necked dresses, or else bring a doctor's certificate that the state of their health would not permit their doing so; but even the certificate could not relieve them from the necessity of having their high-necked dresses "cut square in front." The *Globe* characterizes this in indignant terms as "tomfoolery," and says:

"These attempts to plaster monarchical customs upon a country that is essentially democratic would do more to undermine the kindly feelings of the people toward the new Governor-General and his wife than anything else that could have happened, and, if persisted in, will assuredly make it a matter for regret that the choice of a successor to Lord Dufferin fell upon the Queen's son-in-law."

Yes, but does not our uncourtly contemporary perceive that if these customs are not "to be plastered" on him, there was no use in sending him a princess? Plenty of men better fitted to administer a plain democratic government than the Queen's son-in-law can be found in England; none so well fitted to embody the "imperial policy" in Canadian manners. The idea is great and the grumbling pitiful, but we should not be at all surprised if the Princess soon tired of a "high-necked" court circle, which arrived in common domestic hacks with drivers in the simple garb of citizens.

Lord Cranbrook has published a despatch containing a detailed history of the difference with the Amir, which makes it arise out of the failure of Lord Mayo in 1869 to give him any definite promise of assistance after he became alarmed by the conquest of Khiva by the Russians, and the persistence of Lord Northbrook in abstaining from interference in Afghan affairs. Lord Lytton was, therefore, instructed when he went out in 1874 to urge on the Amir the necessity of closer relations with the British Government, and the necessity of receiving British agents, though in a friendly way, in his territory to enable the Governor-General to act more intelligently in taking measures for his protection. It appears plain that the Amir did not want this kind of protection. He wished to be aided with arms and money, and perhaps with troops when the danger came, but feared the effects of the presence of British Residents on his independence. On being denied these things he sulked and threw himself into the arms of Russia. The object of the despatch is to show that he was mismanaged by the Gladstone Ministry, whose faults the present one is engaged in repairing. Unfortunately, the Premier's story at the Lord Mayor's dinner does not quite tally with that of Lord Cranbrook, for he says the object of the war is to obtain "a scientific frontier," which the Liberals declare is either a foolish assertion or a brutal proclamation of the right of the strongest. The disadvantage they labor under in all parliamentary debates is that if they press to a division, they make an exhibition of their numerical weakness, and if they refuse, seem to be indulging in mere empty carping.

Parliament met in England on the 5th inst., and at this writing a debate is pending in both Houses on motions censuring the Ministry for bringing on the Afghan War. Lord Beaconsfield, however, with his usual luck, was able to meet his enemies with the news of two successes, the capture of Ali Musjid and the forcing of the Peiwar Pass. On the other hand, he was compelled to produce what he has not been willing to produce—the Amir's letter in reply to the ultimatum, which came too late to prevent the opening of hostilities, and which is not unnaturally supposed to have been written after the fall of Ali Musjid, although the messenger says he was on his road before the fighting began, and was turned back by finding the Khyber Pass closed. The letter reads in English sensible and dignified, as well as peaceful, but the Indian officials will probably get the better of their critics by alleging that the forms and terms of expression in the original indicate insolence and evasiveness, as they have done with regard to other despatches of his. The worst thing he says is that the acts of the British Government have not seemed to him to correspond to their friendly professions, and he enumerates some slight grievances, but alleges that his present state of mind is one of entire friendliness, and that he is willing to receive a small temporary mission.

On the night of December 1 General Roberts succeeded in turning the Afghan position in the Peiwar Pass, and captured it in the afternoon of the next day with comparatively small loss. The guns he took had been well served; the enemy had even assumed the offensive, under the inspiration or with the aid, according to one story, of Europeans. The stores they left in their flight proved a most useful acquisition. Altogether, the victory has been very comforting to the home Government. From General Browne there is no other news than that the advance on Jalalabad is determined on. There are rumors that the Amir has fled from Cabul in consequence of a revolution there, and that his family have sought refuge in Russian Turkistan. General Biddulph has been ordered to push on to Candahar by the Khojak Pass, ascertained to be without defenders.

SOUTHERN AND NORTHERN DEMOCRATS.

WE printed last week a letter from a South-Carolinian, part of which brings out in a striking way the anomalous character of the discussion now raging between the Republican party at the North and the Southern Democrats. He said, what we believe is quite true, that the term "Democrat" means something different at the South from what it means at the North, though the distinction is constantly ignored by the Northern press. The Northern Democrat has, as has been abundantly illustrated during the last ten years, no fixed principles and no definite aim beyond getting into power and having a chance at the offices. He is ready to adopt almost any political doctrine, however much opposed to the old party philosophy, as is shown in the present position of the party towards the currency. He is willing to nominate any candidate, no matter what his antecedents may be, who seems likely to win, as was shown in the nomination of Greeley. With a loose creed of this kind he naturally expects to secure most proselytes among the most ignorant and least reflective of the community, and he is therefore inclined to countenance or advocate legislative attacks on property, and all measures which seem likely to diminish the influence of capital and belittle the importance of skill and training of any kind in public affairs. The completeness with which a man like Butler was able to sweep almost the whole party into support of him in Massachusetts by preaching doctrines which, if carried out, would destroy the public credit and discourage all private saving, illustrated sufficiently, in fact, the composition of the party and its tendencies.

The party which occupies the corresponding position at the South is really the Republican party—that is to say, the Republican party there contains in the main the needy and ignorant element of the population, and the part most easily led by demagogues, and least influenced by any political considerations not relating to the immediate supply of their personal wants. Nor is the kind of government such a party would set up matter of speculation at the South, as it is at the North. In South Carolina the experiment was actually tried for seven or eight years, and was found, as might have been expected on *à priori* grounds, to consist in the election of a legislature composed in the main of illiterate and penniless men, led by worthless adventurers, who used their power almost exclusively to levy taxes and pledge the credit of the State to raise money for division among themselves. In fact, the South Carolina Republicans differed from the Massachusetts Butlerites principally in being much more ignorant and impressionable, and weaker and more helpless. They could not, for instance, have held the government at all without the support of the Federal troops. The Democrats at the South, especially in States like South Carolina and Mississippi, where the negroes are in a majority, occupy somewhat the same ground as the Massachusetts Republicans at the late election; that is, they are trying to keep out of power a party which would probably by its legislation increase taxation, destroy public and private credit, and disorder the machinery of administration.

Of course this is not the whole story. The Southern Democrats' history is very different from that of the Massachusetts Republicans, and the history of the Southern Republicans is very different from that of the Massachusetts Democrats. The two parties in the South are represented by traditions and passions, such as the memories of slavery and of the war, and race prejudices, of which nothing is known in Northern politics, and which are exceedingly powerful—so powerful as almost to take them out of the category of political parties altogether, and give them the character of irreconcilable factions, one fierce, vindictive, and masterful, the other timid and submissive. But it still remains true that covering the Southern whites and the Northern Democrats by the same name, and arguing on the assumption that they are in pursuit of the same political ends, works great confusion in the public mind, and hinders any rational solution of what is called the Southern problem. It begets and perpetuates an implacable, absolute, semi-military way of looking at Southern questions, by presenting the Southern whites constantly to the mind's eye in the simple character of subjugated public enemies who are kicking against their defeat, and the negroes in the simple character of oppressed freedmen who are devotedly loyal to the Union. But the character of both whites and blacks, as political phenomena, is very complex. They are ex-rebels and ex-slaves, it is true, but they are a great many things besides.

There is another serious difficulty in Northern discussion of Southern affairs of which but little notice has been taken. In every free country in which there is no privileged class, every voter, as a rule, who is urging other voters to adopt a certain course, is proposing an experiment in the consequences of which he means to share himself. That is, he does not say, "Do this"; he says, "Let us do it. I am willing to try it, and, if it turns out ill, will bear my share of the suffering or loss it may cause." Under our political system this community of interest has been kept up by the semi-independence of the States. State legislation is advocated and framed, without interference from the outside, by the persons whom it is to affect, and the interest of the people of other States in it is mainly a mild speculative interest. Federal legislation in like manner is confined on the whole to subjects to which the whole country stands in the same relation. So that it may be said that, as a general rule, an American orator or writer when addressing his countrymen with fervor about anything is supporting measures in which he means to prove his confidence by exposing his own person or property to their operation. In fact, it is an essential condition of good government that all who are exerting effective influence for or against legislation in any particular community should be "in the same boat," as the popular saying is. This condition is to a certain extent violated, however, when Northern men insist that Southern States like South Carolina and Mississippi shall try the experiment of letting an ignorant and non-property-holding majority carry on the government. A proposal to hand over the government of Massachusetts, for instance, to such a body of persons as the majority of Mississippi or South Carolina, would fill all the present voters of that State with consternation, and if urged vehemently from the outside as an excellent thing to do, would be fiercely resented. Even the short step in that direction lately taken by Butler roused the fear and indignation of the best portion of the community. Considering what has occurred at the South since 1860, this is not an argument in favor of no greater interest on the part of the North in State legislation at the South than in State legislation at the West or on the Pacific Coast. But it is an argument, and a very strong one, in favor of great moderation, patience, and good temper in discussing Southern affairs, and against treating Southern questions as if names bore the same meaning in the old slave States that they bear here. We cannot be too careful or passionless in urging people to try experiments with their social and material interests of which we ourselves intend to be simply spectators.

On the other hand, Southerners make a tremendous mistake in supposing that their mode of protecting themselves against the rule of ignorant majorities can ever become a matter of indifference to the North. People here, considering the demonstrated dangers with which this rule in certain parts of the South threatens both life and property, will not be disposed to concern themselves much about the use of the ordinary social influences—such as that of employer over the employed, landlord over tenant, and neighbor over neighbor—in order to prevent the perpetuation of the color line in politics. In fact, few thinking men will deny that the agreement of the negroes with the whites on matters of State concern, and in support of all legislation designed to operate on both races equally, will probably be, for the present at least, until they have more political education, the wisest course they can pursue. Whatever the faults of the Wade Hamptons may be, they are better political advisers for a poor and ignorant man than the Smallses and Swailses and Bowens and other rascals who have made South Carolina politics a trade. But attempts to compel this agreement by violence or physical coercion, or to produce the appearance of it where it does not exist, by fraud at the polls or in the counting, concern not only the States in which they take place but the whole country, because, even if

they do not unfairly affect national legislation, they help to bring the whole machinery of popular government into contempt. The men who are sent up to Congress from South Carolina by ballot-stuffing or false counting may be better than or as good as those who would have been sent by a fearless vote and a fair canvass, but it is none the less true that electoral frauds which treat as a farce the process by which the popular will is ascertained, if practised with impunity, help to sap the foundations of our institutions everywhere. The spectacle, even, is mischievous and alarming in New York or Massachusetts, and no rational Southerner can hope for the sympathy of the North in any such mode of effecting his deliverance. Nothing can be either constructed or repaired by fraud. It vitiates everything; it disgusts everybody in the long run, and men who rely on it for salvation are unfit for political fellowship under free institutions.

THE NATIONAL BANKS.

THE excellence of its banking system is one of the most encouraging features of the present material situation of the United States. With all the elements of a solid prosperity which are afforded by cheap labor, abundant crops, vast mineral resources, established industries, unexampled facilities of transportation, and a favorable condition of foreign trade, we have also the most perfect system in the world for gathering and applying the working capital by which alone the machinery of production and distribution can be kept in motion. The skilful handling of this sort of capital has been hitherto asserted to be the chief excellence of Great Britain, a country which has, no doubt, outrun all others in the business of rescuing every penny from idleness and in getting the utmost possible work out of it. Recent events, however, show very plainly that in this excessive parsimony of working capital England has risked too much, and has brought her monetary machinery into such a sensitive condition as seriously to disturb her industries. In a recent article on the Government supervision of banks, we took occasion to point out that the English banking system is radically defective in several important particulars. The annual report of the Comptroller of the Currency of the United States, since published, gives emphasis to these strictures, and brings out into strong relief against the background of recent British failures the superiority of the American banking system.

No country ever went through a more perilous experience than that which the United States has had to encounter in the last twenty years—a protracted civil war entailing enormous losses of accumulated property; the subversion of the social system of nearly one-half the States, and the suspension of their production for a series of years; and, finally, a delusive period of succeeding prosperity built upon the phantasm of irredeemable paper money. By a providential necessity the old and diverse systems of banking and paper money were swept away, and a new, guarded, and homogeneous system established in their places, at an early period of the war. This system was so wisely designed, and has been so carefully and honestly administered, that at the end of fifteen years since its establishment, and after a crisis of unexampled severity and continuance, the entire losses sustained by the public from the operations of more than two thousand banks which have been organized under it have been less than six millions and a half of dollars. This result could not have been realized but for the wise provision of the national law by which, after keeping the capital sound, one-tenth of the net earnings is required to be put aside as a surplus fund. Out of this surplus the banks have been enabled within the last three years to charge off the very large sum of $64,000,000, and still to maintain an aggregate surplus of $118,000,000, being more than 25 per cent. on their paid-up capital. Not a dollar has been lost to bill-holders. In contrast with this result the average annual losses sustained *by bill-holders alone* in the United States from bank failures, under the State system, are said by the Comptroller of the Currency to have amounted to five per cent. on the amount of circulation issued. On the existing circulation of the National Banks (322 millions) a like percentage of loss would amount to more than sixteen millions of dollars annually, being more than double the amount of profit which they derive from the circulation, and two millions a year more than the interest which they receive from national bonds.

There are no means of ascertaining the precise amount of losses to depositors under former systems of banking, but they doubtless exceeded the losses to bill-holders, who were in many cases secured creditors. A single Scottish bank has lately failed with a deficiency of assets amounting to $26,000,000, or more than four times the entire losses sustained from our National Banks during the last fifteen years. From this loss the holder of the notes of the City Bank of Glasgow is not exempt, as he stands in no better position than any other creditor. The state of British banking thus disclosed is in nowise bettered by the fact that the private property of ruined shareholders may possibly make good this enormous loss.

There is another large economy which the country derives from the national banking system—the saving in domestic exchange. Whereas under former systems the rates of exchange between St. Louis, Cincinnati, Chicago, and New York were commonly from ten to fifteen dollars per thousand (1 to 1½ per cent.), they are now frequently at and under par, and do not exceed an average of eighty cents per thousand, or less than one-tenth of one per cent. The Comptroller estimates the annual saving thus derived by the country at from twenty to sixty millions of dollars. The extreme rates of exchange which used occasionally to prevail far exceeded the ordinary averages above given. Thus, in 1860, before the war, exchange at St. Louis and Chicago on New York was at ten per cent.

Those who join in the popular outcry against the National Banks clearly do not understand the advantages which the people have gained from this system. In place of bank-notes which were either unsecured and practically irredeemable, or secured only by doubtful State stocks or local mortgages, and redeemed only at the obscure places of their origin, or at remote local centres—notes which were uncurrent money in the larger part of the country—they have now a currency of notes of uniform appearance and of equal value, prepared by the Federal Government and issued by it to the banks on pledge of the national bonds. These notes are convertible into gold and silver at many convenient centres, and have securities for their redemption such as were never before put behind the paper money of any country. These securities are not merely the Federal bonds deposited against the bank-note issue, but the entire assets of the banks, buttressed by a personal liability of stockholders and the guaranty of the Federal Government to boot. In place of banks created under the laws of more than thirty States, often with fictitious capital, seldom guarded by any vigilant oversight of the State, the fomenters of speculation and the earliest victims of the crises which they helped to precipitate, we have a single homogeneous system, free to all on the same conditions, jealously guarded in all its operations by the Federal Government, and by means of which the disasters of a crisis of unparalleled severity and endurance have been greatly mitigated.

The national banking system belongs to the people. Capitalists did not create it, did not ask for it; the State banks did their utmost, in many States, to resist its adoption. This was notably the case in the State of New York, where the whole influence of the Banking Department was for a time strenuously opposed to it. It was finally forced upon the State banks under the penalty of destructive taxation. The National Banks of New York and of most great cities are to-day indifferent to the continuance of the system. It checks their freedom of action and it diminishes some of their sources of profit. The banks and banking classes of all the Southern States are impatient to get rid of its stringent and protective obligations. Many of the principal Southern cities, through their Chambers of Commerce, are asking for the repeal of the ten per cent. prohibitory tax. Southern Congressmen have favored this repeal in their speeches during the late canvass, and it is likely to come before Congress as a serious measure during the present session. The proposition is insidious, and if adopted it will be destruc-

tion of the national banking system, the whole potency and usefulness of which will be lost when it ceases to be the exclusive issuer of bank-notes.

The circulation is of little value to city banks, being far less in amount than the deposits, which are the principal source of revenue. But it is essential to many country banks, and without it they would cease to exist. They have small deposits, and under State laws would enjoy only a limited circulation. As National Banks, the notes which they issue are as good and in as high credit as those of the Bank of Commerce of New York, however obscure the seat of their business, and however small the amount of their capital. The wide diffusion of bank capital is of the greatest value in developing the resources and in maintaining the industries of all parts of the country. Under the wise and uniform safeguards of a federal system, the small borrowers and the small depositors of a remote country village are as well cared for as the great merchants and rich manufacturers of the largest cities. This would not be the case if the national law were repealed and the people remitted to any system which could be substituted for it by State legislation. The hard, exacting village money-lender would again become the master of the situation, and banks would spring up to oppress and defraud the people, instead of ministering to their necessities and fostering their business.

The popular jealousy of the National Banks is without justification. They are not owned by capitalists, more than one-half of their shareholders owning $1,000 or less each. They are not excessively profitable; "even during the most prosperous years of the system the ratio of annual earnings to the combined capital and surplus of the banks was not greatly in excess of the usual legal rates of interest in the States where they were located, while during the last two years this ratio has been less than six per cent. on the combined capital and surplus." In Great Britain, where the average rate of interest does not exceed half the American average, the profits of bank capital are nearly double those realized in this country. The influence of capital is far greater there than here, and the oversight of the state and the safeguards imposed by law in the interest of all the people far less. If a political crusade is to be begun against the National Banks, it should be met by a wide-spread, unpartisan, popular remonstrance. Let the laborer join with the employer of labor in resisting any attempt to deprive the country of the best friend and ally which American labor ever had, and such a friend and ally as no possible conjunction of national affairs will ever again give it.

"COURT CIRCLES."

THE passionate excitement created in Canada by the arrival of a daughter of the Queen, and the prospect of the establishment of "a court" in Ottawa, which will have the appearance of a real court—that is, a court with blood-royal in it, instead of a court held merely by the Queen's legal representatives—is a phenomenon of considerable interest. It affords a fresh illustration of that growth of reverence for royalty which all the best observers agree has for the last forty years been going on in England, side by side with the growth of democratic feeling and opinion in politics—that is, the sovereign has more than gained as a social personage what she has lost as a political personage. The less she has had to do with the Government the more her drawing-rooms have been crowded, and the more eager have people become for personal marks of her favor. The reason of this is not far to seek. It lies in the enormous increase during that period in the size of the class which is not engaged in that, to the heralds, accursed thing—trade, and has money enough to bear the expense of "a presentation," and of living or trying to live afterwards in the circle of those who might be invited to court, or might meet the Prince of Wales at dinner. The accumulation of fortunes since the Queen's accession has been very great, and they have, however made, come into possession now of a generation which has never been engaged in any occupation frowned on by the Lord Chamberlain, and which owns estates, or at all events possesses all outward marks of gentility, when it has been received by the Queen, and has got into Burke's Dictionary at the end of an interesting though perhaps apocryphal genealogy. This reception is the crown of life's struggle, a sort of certificate that the hero or heroine of it is fit company for anybody in the world. It is, in fact, a social graduation. When you get somebody who is himself a graduate to agree to present you, and the Lord Chamberlain, after examining your card, makes no objection to you, he virtually furnishes you with a sort of diploma which guarantees you against what may be called authorized snubs. People may afterwards decline your invitations on the ground that they do not like you, or that your entertainments bore them, but not on the ground that your social position is inferior to their own. That the struggle for this diploma in a wealthy and large society should be great and increasing is nothing wonderful. The desire for it among the women especially, to whose charge the creation and preservation of "position" are mainly committed, is very deep. It inflames their imagination in a way which makes husbands ready for anything in order to get it, and in fact makes it indispensable to their peace of mind and body that they should get it as soon as their pecuniary fortune seems to put it within their reach. Since the Queen ascended the throne the population has risen from 20,000,000 to 35,000,000, and the number of great fortunes and presentable people has increased in a still greater ratio, and the pressure on the court has grown correspondingly; but there remains after all only one court to gratify the swarm of new applicants. The colonies, too, have of late years contributed largely to swell the tide. Every year London society and the ranks of the landed gentry are reinforced by returned Australians and New-Zealanders and Cape-of-Good-Hopers and China and India merchants, who feel that their hard labors and long exile have left life empty and joyless until they see the names of their wives and daughters in the *Gazette* among the presentations at a drawing-room or levee.

In the colonies, and especially in Canada, where there is so little in the local life to gratify the imagination, the court shines with a splendor which the distance only intensifies. To a certain class of Canadians, who enjoy more frequent opportunities than the inhabitants of the other great colonies of renewing or fortifying their love of the competition of English social life, and of the marks of success in it, the court, as the fountain of honor, apart from all political significance, is an object of almost fierce interest. In England itself the signs of social distinction are not so much prized. This kind of Canadian is, in fact, apt to be rather more of an Englishman than the Englishman himself in all these things. He imitates and cultivates English usages with a passion which takes no account of the restrictions of time or place. At a Canadian watering-place one may see corpulent men of sixty-five scuttling about in the knickerbockers in which English youth equip themselves for the moors and the mountains, reckless of their thin calves and great stomachs. They "dress for dinner" not with the feeling of the Englishman of the upper class, that it is a decorous and clean thing to do, but with the feeling which has been so often remarked in the British "cad," that it is a solemn religious rite, the practice of which raises a man into a higher and purer social atmosphere, and the omission of which would be a moral stain. It is "the thing" too in Canadian society, as in the American colony in Paris, to be much disgusted by the "low Americans" who invade the Dominion in summer; and to feel that even the swells of New York and Boston could achieve much improvement in their manners by faithful observation of the doings in the Toronto and Ottawa drawing-rooms.

As far as admiration of courts and a deep desire for court-life and a belief in the saving grace of contact with royalty can go, therefore, there are Canadians fully prepared for the establishment of a court "in their midst." The society of the province was, in fact, in an inflammable eagerness to kiss hands, and back out from the presence of royalty, and perform the various exercises pertaining to admission to court circles, and in a proper state of Jingo distrust of the wicked Czar and his minions—which in the Colonies is now one of the marks of gentility—when the magician, Lord Beaconsfield, determined to apply the match to it by sending out a real princess. In spite of his contempt for the "flat-nosed Franks," however, he can hardly have been prepared for the response which he elicited. He cannot have designed to make monarchy and royalty seem ridiculous, and yet the articles and addresses and ceremonies with which the new Governor-General and his wife have been received look as if the Minister had determined, before he died, to have the best laugh of his farcical career over the barbarians who have called him in to rule over them. A court is a very delicate thing, and a strong capacity for enjoying it does not of itself make good courtiers. In England the reasons which prevent a man's being received at court—such as active prosecution of the dry-goods business—are a thousand years old; in fact, they may be said to have come down from the ancient world along with the Roman

Law. They have, therefore, a certain natural fitness and force in the eyes of the natives of that country. That is, it seems to "stand to reason" that a trader should not go to court. Moreover, they can be enforced in England and still leave an abundant supply of spotless persons for the purposes of court society. The court-line is drawn along an existing and well-marked social division. In Canada this preparation for court gaieties does not exist. If the persons soiled by commerce were to be excluded from the Princess's presence, she would lead a lonely and dismal life and the court would be substantially a failure. If, on the other hand, the court is to be made up exclusively of rich traders, it will not only excite the fiercest jealousies and bitterness among those who are excluded, but it will be very difficult to provide a rule for passing on claims for presentation when once the line of official position is passed. But, it may be said, why not throw all restrictions aside and admit everybody, as at White House receptions? Nobody will ask this question who has mastered even the rudiments of royalty, and we shall not take the trouble of answering it fully. We are now discussing the question for the benefit of persons of some degree of knowledge. Suffice it to say that any laxity of practice at Ottawa would do a good deal of damage to the monarchical principle itself, which, as Mr. Bagehot has pointed out, owes much of its force and permanence even in England to its hold on the imagination. The Princess cannot go back to England after receiving Tom, Dick, and Harry in Canada without a certain loss of prestige both for herself and her house.

Not the least curious feature of the crisis is the interest the prospect of a Canadian court has excited in this country. Our newspapers know what they are about when they give whole pages to accounts of the voyage and the reception, including a history of the House of Argyll and a brief sketch of the feelings of Captain the Duke of Edinburgh, now on the Halifax Station, over his approaching meeting with his sister. They recognize the existence of a deep and abiding curiosity, at least among the women of our country, about all that relates to royalty and its doings, in spite of the labor expended for nearly a century by orators and editors in showing up the vanity and hollowness of monarchical distinctions. In fact, if the secrets of American hearts could be revealed, we fear it would be found that the material for about a million of each order of nobility, from dukes down, exists among us under quiet republican exteriors, and that if a court circle were set up among us, no earthly power could prevent its assuming unnatural and unmanageable proportions. A prince like the late Emperor Maximilian, whose purse was meagre but whose connection with a reigning house was unquestioned and close, might find worse ways of repairing his fortune than setting up an amateur court in some of the Atlantic cities and charging a moderate fee for presentation, and drawing the line judiciously so as to keep up the distinction without damaging his revenues. To prevent cutting remarks on the members of the circle, however, and too much ridicule of the whole enterprise, he would have to give the editors high places about his person, and provide offices for the reporters in his basement. If the scheme were well organized and did not attempt too much, its value in settling people's "position," and in giving the worthy their proper place without the prolonged struggles they now have sometimes to undergo, would be very great, and it would enable foreign students of our institutions to pursue successfully certain lines of enquiry into our manners and customs in which they are now too often baffled.

THE BEGINNING OF THE SESSION.

WASHINGTON, Dec. 9, 1878.

CONGRESS met last Monday with three months before it in which to transact a very large amount of business. The contrast between the temper in which it meets now and that which it displayed on meeting a year ago, or even at the close of the last session, is very marked. A year ago, although the party majorities in the two houses were very much the same as they are to-day, the Democrats were still flushed with a sense of triumph, derived from a recollection of their overwhelming majority in the previous House, and the heavy popular backing shown by the Presidential returns of 1876. The Senate was within easy grasp, and the complete possession of the Government seemed merely a question of two short years. The same causes which elated the Democrats also elated the inflationists, both of the silver and paper factions. The session opened with a tremendous onslaught upon the Resumption Act, accompanied with a demand for unlimited silver coinage, and the voting in both houses showed that we were apparently on the brink of repudiation. On the other hand, the Republicans were clearly afraid of taking up any strong position on the currency question, and a good many of them showed signs even of going over to the enemy. Towards the end of the session they were given new cause for fears by the opening of the work of the Potter Committee, and by the Oregon election. The latter seemed one more indication of their rapidly-failing popular strength and the other was supposed to foreshadow a bold attack upon the Presidency itself. When Anderson's testimony was given and the Sherman letter produced, last summer, it is not too much to say that great consternation and tribulation were occasioned in the Republican camp. The newspapers tried to make little of the story, but it was hard work. Even as late as last July the future to Democratic eyes was full of hope and inspiration. In March they would be certain of the Senate, and with the Senate and House in their possession the President's hands would be tied, while if it should be discovered by the Potter Committee that he had committed any act which would justify such a proceeding, he might be impeached and removed. For, though the Senate would not be two-thirds Democratic, it would be full of Republican enemies of Mr. Hayes—Blaines and Conklings and Camerons and Howes—who would only be too glad of a chance to help oust the "usurper." Then, if the President could be got rid of, Sherman would have to go too; indeed, the case was stronger against Sherman than against Hayes; and Sherman once removed we should hear no more of resumption.

In five short months what a change has come over the scene! Congress comes back to resume its work a sadder and wiser body. There is still a Democratic majority; there is still a Potter Committee; the Senate will still be Democratic in March; the Dollar of the Fathers is in circulation, or at any rate has been coined, and the date for resumption has not yet arrived. But the Democratic majority is inert, the doings of the Potter Committee have ceased to attract attention, and there are no statesmen who take you by the arm and whisper strange things as to the probable effect of probable discoveries on the title of Mr. Hayes. Stranger than all, the inflationists have decided not to oppose resumption on the first of January.

All this has been accomplished by the fall elections and by the publication of the cipher despatches, and the result is that Congress comes together a dignified convention of statesmen, ready, if not to "rise above party," at any rate to discuss all questions upon their merits, and with a strong disinclination on both sides to go into any political excesses. Of course Congressmen are human, and now and then through the winter bursts of passionate eloquence may be expected on the subject of Southern outrages or the "gold-bugs," but they will not be likely to be more than sporadic and ineffectual. A quiet session is what everybody looks forward to, and if Congress pleases it can undoubtedly have a quiet as easily as a noisy session. But that it should be quiet is a startling proof of the insincerity of American politics. There is really something grotesquely hollow about the opinions and professions of gentlemen who in June are ready to "wipe the debt out as with a sponge," and who in December are perfectly willing to have resumption tried as "an experiment." The Democrats who last summer thought the testimony taken by the Potter Committee was strong enough to call for impeachment must think so still. The Republicans who thought that silver had been demonetized by the Wall Street "gold-sharps," and that without a silver currency, interconvertible with gold, the country would go to the dogs, must hold the same opinions now. Why do they not express them and go down fighting for them to the bitter end? The fact is, and it must be confessed, that Washington is not a place to find opinions (in the sense of settled beliefs) on any question. Opinions and settled beliefs are luxuries which "money-kings" and persons who are placed beyond the reach of the storms and mishaps of popular elections may indulge in; but they are beyond the reach of hard-working politicians elected for two years, and always in danger of losing their seats through the ever-changing opinions of their constituents. If Adam Smith and the *Federalist* could secure your re-election it would be very well to study them; but they cannot, and, worse than that, they may hinder it, for your constituency may find on examination that it does not like Adam Smith and the *Federalist*, and then if you are not in a position to throw Adam Smith and the *Federalist* overboard how are you going to stay in Congress? It is all very well to tell a man to be a statesman; but if you want him to be a statesman you ought to give him an office and a salary (or at any rate a salary) for life. In Washington, consequently, the man of fixed opinions is out of place, and the majority of successful politicians—*i.e.*, those who have risen sufficiently high to get into either house of Congress—are so by skill not in moulding but in allowing themselves to be

moulded by public opinion. Hence any great change of public opinion outside is pretty sure to be reflected at once in the "Halls of Debate," and hence at the present moment it is difficult to know what has become of the silver-men or the paper-men or the Tilden men. They are all here; but they manifest a heartless indifference to the virtues of silver or greenbacks, and as for Mr. Hayes's title, they appear to have become almost capable of "condoning fraud."

Among the Republicans nothing is more noticeable than the subsidence of that rancor which a year ago made the radical wing of the party so bitter against Mr. Hayes. This is, of course, in part due to the fact that he has himself been "studying the will of the people" on Southern questions. Although it would be difficult to find any distinct indication of a change of policy in Mr. Hayes's message, so far as a definite plan of action is concerned, he has, so to speak, made a sentimental concession to the "Stalwarts," and is ready to admit that "the negro must not be deserted," and that the Republican party in the South "must be upheld." This, if I am not very much mistaken, is all that the Radicals care about. They do not want any definite policy, but what they most strenuously object to is that when they are "firing the Northern heart," and waving the "bloody shirt," and denouncing "outrages," the head of their own party should stand calmly by, enquiring what all this disturbance is about, and recommending them to let the South manage its own affairs. The message, then, may be taken as an indication of that *rapprochement* between the two wings of the party which is clearly going on all over the country, and which has already borne fruits in the conciliation of the anti-Conkling faction in New York, and in the disappearance of the "Young Republicans" in Massachusetts. There is no doubt that the party has become a unit again. The President's "policy" may be said to be a success or a failure according to the point of view from which it is regarded. As an attempt to remove the Southern question from practical politics it is a success, for whatever uses may be made of it as a stalking-horse, all attempts at actual government of the South from Washington are over. As an attempt to build up a party, or to carry out a thorough, radical, and effective reform of the civil service, it is a failure. No new party has been brought into existence, and the civil service is not reformed root and branch. Nevertheless, even here the Administration is entitled to a great deal of praise. Although it has not changed the system on which the civil service is managed, and although it has made many bad appointments, the whole tone of the service, as it is seen at headquarters in Washington, is enormously improved since Grant's time. Every one who was here in those days must remember the shocking stories of corruption and intrigue which filled the air; stories which were so frequently when sifted only too well borne out by the facts. This is all over, and the gain is very great. In the management of the departments there may be abuses in the way of assessments of salaries, and a rotten system of appointments and removals, but there is no peculation, no bribery, and no waste. The management is economical and honest. Compare, for instance, the administration of the Attorney-General's office under General Devens with what it was under George H. Williams, or the Navy Department under Mr. Thompson with the same bureau under Robeson. The difference is so radical and wide as to amount to a revolution.

To any one interested in politics as something more than a mere scramble for office the experiment now being tried here in municipal government is an interesting object of study. As you have explained in your columns, Washington is the only city in the United States, perhaps in the world, in which the traditions of the race with regard to city government have been thrown completely overboard, and the whole mediæval machinery of wards, and common councils, and aldermen, and local suffrage and legislation swept away. The government of Washington, a city of 125,000 or 150,000 inhabitants, has been handed over by Congress to a board of three commissioners, one of whom is an officer of the Army detailed for the purpose, and who has charge generally of everything that would come under the head of engineering or public works, paving, lighting, drainage, etc. This officer is responsible to no one but his military superiors, while the two other commissioners are appointed by the President and Senate. The citizens of Washington have no more to do with the selection of the board than the inhabitants of Fiji. The government is not periodically reinvigorated with new blood from either caucuses or primaries. In fact, the city would, if it was anywhere outside of America, be described by the patriot orator as groaning under a despotism; or, better still, under a military despotism. Here, in the very capital, in the citadel of liberty among the nations, have one hundred thousand citizens, for no crime of theirs, and without a hearing, been deprived of their birthright. The strangest part of the whole thing is, however, that they seem to like it. There is no sound of remonstrance or objection, whether among the purse-proud owners of property or the hard-handed sons of toil, and the bolder among them even maintain that they secure better government by it. When you ask them what they mean by this, they will tell you that they mean that they get better streets, better sewers, and better police. And this seems to be the fact. Although during the continuance of the Shepherd régime immense things were done for Washington, and in fact Washington was converted from a half-grown town into a city, it has been found, as might have been expected, that it was done at a frightful cost, which now has to be paid for, and, more than this, that a great deal of it was not well done. The Shepherd pavements, for instance, are already beginning to give out here and there because they were originally laid badly. You know in New York what this means. It has been discovered, too, that asphaltum pavements of the best sort can be laid down by a military despotism at about half their cost under a free government; and such is the character of the Washington citizen, so accustomed has he become to luxury, that he says, as between asphaltum and liberty, for his part he prefers asphaltum. Again, the new government is a success as regards the general finances of the city, and it appears probable that in the course of five or six years, notwithstanding the waste of the past and the taxation, which cannot be called light, there will be a surplus in the treasury. This too pleases the Washingtonians, who in their degradation do not like high taxes, even if they secure freedom. There is apparently no movement on foot for a change in the present method of governing the District, and no chance of its receiving any support were one started. If Mr. John Kelly still retains his interest in the municipal problem, it would be worth his while to pay a visit to Washington and see the new system in full operation.

Correspondence.

MUSIC IN LEIPZIG.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the very instructive account given of "The Wagner Performances in Leipzig," in No. 696 of the *Nation*, the writer says:

"To see the name of Wagner or Liszt on the programme of a Gewandhaus concert would be as extraordinary an event as the reading of a chapter from Schopenhauer at a Methodist prayer-meeting. But I am convinced that the number of converts to the modern school of music in Leipzig during the last three weeks amounts to many thousands."

Lest these words should leave a false impression on the minds of your readers as to the extent of "Leipzig conservatism in musical matters," allow me to state that the Gewandhaus concerts for the past two years have been devoted very largely to the modern school of music. Not only may the names of Wagner and Liszt be seen on the programmes for these two years (though seldom, it is true), but also the names of Volkmann, Jensen, Svendsen, Brahms, Scharwenka, Saint-Saëns, and others, of whom the three last-named conducted their compositions in person on several occasions. The famous "Ritt der Walküren" was performed at a Gewandhaus concert in January, 1877. It was not at the time very favorably received. Even if such a composition could be enjoyed thoroughly apart from the dramatic action to which it belongs, the concert-room of the Gewandhaus is much too small, notwithstanding its fine acoustic properties, to allow the piece its proper effect. Considerations like this would naturally prevent the name of Wagner from appearing very often on the Gewandhaus programmes, especially in a city where there is such ample opportunity for hearing the great composer's music in its legitimate home, the opera house. There are, it is true, among the frequenters of the Gewandhaus few of the class who think that all other music grows pale in the light of Wagner's operas, and that the only name worthy to be mentioned with Wagner is Beethoven. But it has been generally conceded in Leipzig for the past few years, by the large majority of those at all capable of judging Wagner's music, that he is the greatest man who has yet entered the field of musical drama. The crowded houses in 1871–2 at the Wagner operas given here were witness to this. Let me add that before the first performances here of "Rheingold" and "Walküre," which took place last spring, a large portion of the musical public had already become familiar with much of the Nibelung music, through the medium of concerts especially arranged for the purpose, at which in the beginning of the evening the different "Leitmotive" were played on the piano, and such explanations were made as

would enable the audience more readily to understand the composer's ideas.

I was much surprised at the criticism in the same article bestowed upon Frau Marie Wilt, who, not only in Leipzig and Berlin, but also in Vienna, where she was prima donna at the Hofburg Theater previous to her engagement here, is considered a very superior artist. She has in the upper register of the voice a power of crescendo and diminuendo and such beautiful pianissimo notes as are seldom heard. Her execution is faultless. No one could doubt this who heard her sing a few evenings since in Verdi's Requiem. Frau Wilt labors under the disadvantage of being a very corpulent woman, with a face quite unsympathetic, especially when she sings. This may partly account for the disappointment which most persons feel at her performance in the love-scene at the close of "Siegfried." But I believe it is generally yielded that her rendering of the more important and highly dramatic part which *Brünnhilde* plays in the "Götterdämmerung" is so excellent as to cause one entirely to forget the unfavorable impression produced by her first appearance. It would at least, if I may express my own opinion, free her from the charge of being "no sort of an actress." W. S. W.

Leipzig, Nov. 25, 1878.

Notes.

MACMILLAN & CO. will publish a translation of Dr. Moritz Busch's 'Bismarck and the Men about Him during the War with France,' to be made by Mrs. Alexander Napier. More immediately they will bring out a new story by Mrs. Molesworth, called 'Grandmother Dear,' illustrated and bound from designs by Walter Crane.——In connection with T. & T. Clark, of Edinburgh, Charles Scribner's Sons will begin at once the publication of a 'Popular Commentary on the New Testament,' with illustrations of a high order, and maps prepared under the supervision of Dr. Arnold Guyot. The editing will be performed mainly by members of the Anglo-American Bible-Revision Committees, under the general oversight of Dr. Philip Schaff. The work will fill four volumes royal 8vo. Scribner & Co. promise in January a new hymn and tune-book, called 'Spiritual Songs,' selected and arranged by the Rev. Dr. Chas. S. Robinson. ——Henry Holt & Co. will publish this month, in two volumes, 'Roscher's Political Economy,' translated by J. J. Lalor, and enlarged by the author with chapters on Paper Money, International Trade, and the Protective System. They will also publish Thomas Hardy's 'Return of the Native.'——'Famous Stories,' by De Quincey, Hawthorne, Theodore Winthrop, Tom Hood, and others, with illustrations by well-known American artists, is announced by R. Worthington.——Homer Lee & Co. have in press an autobiographical work, 'The Colored Cadet at West Point,' by Henry Ossian Flipper, now Second Lieutenant Tenth United States Cavalry. We have received two interesting steel portraits of the author which will accompany the book. Lieutenant Flipper gave during his career at West Point and has given since proofs of modest worth and good sense which we hope this publication will do nothing but confirm.—— The latest official publication connected with the Centennial Exhibition is that of 'Grounds and Buildings,' edited by Dorsey Gardner, Assistant-Secretary of the United States Centennial Commission (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.) It is a plain statistical account of the disposition of the grounds and of the several structures, illustrated by maps, plans, and perspective views. One might have expected, in so elegantly printed a work, photographic rather than ordinary wood-cut views. ——That admirable translator from Byron and Shakspere, Otto Gildemeister, has been lately engaged on Ariosto's 'Orlando Furioso,' with his usual success. A portion of his version appeared in Hillebrand's *Italia* (iv.), and a further portion from the second and fourth cantos, the episode of Bradamante and Atlas, is given in the *Magazin für die Literatur des Auslandes* for November 16.——*Polybiblion* for November concludes a list of French works which have been translated into Spanish during the past five years (useful knowledge for the students of either language), and begins a bibliography of Christmas Carols, edited by Gustave Brunet from the papers of the late J. M. Quérard.——Karl H. Hermann, of Halle, has just published his 'Bibliotheca Germanica,' a catalogue of all the works on the Old-German language and literature and related subjects that have appeared in Germany between 1830 and the end of 1875.——The first paper in *Unsere Zeit* for November 1 is a long account of "William Cullen Bryant, the North American Poet and Politician," by Rudolf Doehn. It contains numerous extracts from his poems in German verse.——Charavay, in his *L'Amateur d'autographes*, offers for sale some interesting letters of La Pérouse, the celebrated navigator, written whilst serving in this country during the Revolutionary War. The prices demanded are so low that we trust that they may be secured for one of our historical societies' archives. At a recent sale of autographs in Paris the highest price, 2,600 francs, was paid for one of Americus Vespucius'. A Rabelais brought 1,000; Racine, 810; Tasso and Cervantes, each 600 francs.

—A new edition of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' after the lapse of more than a quarter of a century since its first appearance in book form, may almost be called a literary event in itself. Can the generation now on the stage read it with the same interest and the same emotions as did their fathers and mothers? Assuredly not. To them it is a romance of the far past, to be believed, perhaps, but not realized, and which must derive nearly all its effectiveness from its intrinsic merits, like any other historical novel, whether English or foreign. These merits, while they cannot revive the immense popularity of the work, will ensure its being read by whoever begins it; and no one of common sensibility will be likely to finish it with dry eyes. The portrayal of the institution of slavery fell so far below the reality that the time can never come when its pathos will seem that of hyperbole or of strained rhetoric; nor will the world ever lack this example of the uses and of the genius of fiction—that one can read the 'Key to Uncle Tom's Cabin,' we will not say unmoved, but without tears. Mrs. Stowe's contemporaries will find something pathetic, in a joyous sense, in the introduction to the present edition, in which she impersonally narrates the origin of her story and the success it achieved, and gives in their own words the flattering testimonials of many distinguished foreigners. The hopes they expressed that the work would aid powerfully in the overthrow of slavery long ago became prophecies; but only those who have had experience of the events which achieved this seemingly remote conversion can enter into the feelings with which Mrs. Stowe's retrospect was penned. And how many years must pass before in the Southern half of this country 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' will receive the homage due to it for its moderation, its benevolence, and its literary art! Besides the introduction, this edition is distinguished by a bibliography of editions of 'Uncle Tom' in the British Museum, embracing twenty languages, to which two others are to be added, as Mrs. Stowe's correspondents inform her—the Hindu and the Siamese. The publishers (Houghton, Osgood & Co.) have brought out the volume in fine attire, but the *English* illustrations a better judgment would have suppressed.

—A recent number of Sybel's *Historische Zeitschrift* (second *Heft* of vol. xl.) contains an appreciative review, by Prof. von Holst, of Mr. Herbert B. Adams's valuable monograph, read before the Maryland Historical Society, "Maryland's influence in founding a National Commonwealth." He remarks that "the author has given evidence not only of such industry and critical judgment, but also of so calm and correct political insight, that he will be gladly welcomed by all scholars who are at work in the field of American history as a fellow-laborer of much promise." The review, of four pages, gives in a few words the summary of Mr. Adams's most important conclusions. "It had remained unnoticed until the present time," he says, "that this little State was the first to enter the lists for the Union, and especially that by this act it placed itself from the very beginning and with full consciousness upon the national right and the national interest, in opposition to the *particularist* claims and interests of the individual States." This refers to the fact given on page 27 of Mr. Adams's work: the proposition made in Congress by Maryland, Oct. 15, 1777, "exactly one month before the Articles of Confederation were proposed to the legislatures for ratification," giving to Congress the sole right to fix the western boundaries of the States, and to dispose of the land beyond the boundary. No State but Maryland voted for the proposition; but it was a most fruitful germ, for, as Mr. Adams says, "in this motion was suggested that idea of political expansion under the sovereign control of Congress which ultimately prevailed, and constituted, upon grounds of necessity, a truly national Republic." At the close the reviewer remarks that there is only one point in the essay to which he has decided objections—the use of the term "*de facto* sovereign." "There is an entire series of the most important rights of sovereignty which it [the Confederation] is as far from having exercised in point of fact as from having possessed in point of law." But by whom were these rights exercised, and under what authority?

—George Henry Lewes died in London, Sunday, December 1, at the age of sixty-one, very suddenly as it would appear. Although he has of late years been somewhat overshadowed by the greatness of his second

wife, known to the world as George Eliot, he was a man of varied attainments and extraordinary powers, and did valuable work in many departments of thought. He began his career as clerk in a large foreign house, but he soon abandoned money-making for medicine, which he studied both in England and Germany, taking especial interest in physiology. Proficient in many languages, he fixed at length upon literature as a profession, and literature with him included everything worth thinking or writing. From the age of twenty-one until his death his pen was constantly in his hand, and everywhere he was a critic. A mere list of his contributions to the leading reviews would far exceed our space. In 1849 he founded the *Leader*, and in 1864 the *Fortnightly Review*. He wrote three or four novels, now hardly known, although one or two of them still figure in the collections of Harpers and Tauchnitz. Both as critic and dramatist he devoted special attention to the stage. In 1850 "The Noble Heart," a five-act tragedy of his, was produced at the London Olympic, and it was soon followed by nearly a dozen other plays, more or less taken from the French, and more or less successful, under the *nom de plume* of "Slingsby Lawrence." Amongst them was an English version of Balzac's fine play "Mercadet," called by Mr. Lewes "A Game of Speculation," which Charles Mathews used to act very successfully. Before this Mr. Lewes had published an admirable little history of the Spanish classical drama, and in 1875 his 'Actors and the Art of Acting' was printed, and soon after reprinted here, a collection of criticisms mostly upon actors whom he had seen and studied, and perhaps the best work in English on the actor's art. He wrote several biographies, amongst them one of Robespierre, and one which is probably Mr. Lewes's best-known work, that of Goethe, of which a third and final edition was published in London in one volume in 1875. It is an admirable example of what the biography of a great author should be. Ample, but not too extended, exact and appreciative, written in an easy style, full of apt illustrations and references to other literatures, this Life of Goethe is interesting even to those who know nothing of him save his name, and leaves them with the desire to end their ignorance at once. In Germany it is cited as authority, and in France it has achieved the honor of plagiarism. Mr. Lewes's work on the 'Physiology of Common Life' was for many years the best popular work on the subject, and is not yet quite antiquated, notwithstanding the great strides physiology has taken in the last few years.

—It was in philosophy, however, that he attempted most. He brought to its study a mind colored by his scientific training, and he made it his great object to carry into metaphysics the methods of modern physical research, seeking to solve some of the abstrusest problems of thought by the positive analysis and negative synthesis of his materialism, for materialist he certainly was. His first important philosophical work, his 'Biographical History,' was published in 1845. Eight years later appeared his work on Comte's 'Philosophy of the Sciences,' no mere translation, but a re-examination of the subject in the light Comte had thrown upon it. He never followed the Frenchman in his dogmatic vagaries, and later in life he passed more completely out of his power, though, like Mr. Mill, he was always considerably influenced by Comte's methods of analysis. His most elaborate philosophical work, on the 'Problems of Life and Mind' (both volumes of which were fully reviewed in the *Nation*), was an attempt to extend to a portion of metaphysics methods which both the positive and idealist schools had held inapplicable to it, and he considered that he had redeemed to accurate thought much that had been too hastily given over to speculation. And in a measure he did do so, but his work was injured by the extent to which he carried his German notion of unifying all relative terms; and his death left his work unfinished, with hardly the preliminary excavations completed for the foundation of the new creed he proposed to erect. His ability was so well recognized that he was an acknowledged leader of his school in England. His religious views were very radical, and very negative in their character. Their principal interest comes from the profound influence he exerted over the great novelist. The bald faith that satisfied the vigorous brain of her husband, while it compelled her acquiescence, never satisfied her woman's soul. Perhaps, too, the fading of her romantic sentiment, and her growing habit of didactic philosophizing, are to be attributed in part to her husband's influence; but it would be very unfair to place upon him the burden of her faults without also crediting him with something of the development of her virtues. Without saying anything as to the other aspects of their relation, we must admit that he surrounded her sensitive genius with an atmosphere in which it throve steadily and grew to be England's chiefest artistic glory; and perhaps he may be better known for this in the years to come than for his own original work. Yet he has not only given to the world works upon dramatic art and organic science, upon history and metaphysics, which, by common consent, rank among the best of their kind, but he poured out for nearly two-score years a flood of essays that were never thrown aside unread. His style was clear and often eloquent, though he gained the clearness sometimes at the expense of completeness, and his eloquence was not the compulsion of passion. His insight was keen, if it did not fathom the profoundest depths. His critical taste was keen and delicate, but it was the intellectual more than the æsthetic side that appealed to him. Extraordinarily prolific as he was as a writer, he was never dull or weak or commonplace, never obscure or cowardly or false. He was a characteristic man of our time, and literature loses much by his death.

—High up in the top of one of the side semi-circular pavilions of the magnificent Opéra of Paris, six or seven stories above the level of the surrounding streets, are the ample apartments set aside for the archives and the library. After the daring visitor has entered the stage door and mounted the seemingly interminable steps, he comes out into long corridors lined with presses in which are stored the many precious musical MSS. of the Opéra acquired during its two hundred years of existence; in glazed cases on the top of these presses are exposed certain of the more curious autographs. The musical MSS., and all the music in fact, printed or engraved, are under the care of M. Théodore de Lajarte, and he it is who has prepared the 'Catalogue de la Bibliothèque Musicale du Théâtre de l'Opéra,' noticed by us on a former occasion and now at last completed by the recent publication of the seventh and eighth parts. It forms two stout volumes of over seven hundred pages in all, made doubly useful by an index of forty pages to all works brought out at the Opéra. The seventh part, covering the time from the first performance of the "Prophète," in 1849, to the middle of 1876, is in many respects the most interesting. In it we are reminded that M. Émile Augier once wrote an opera-libretto, "Sapho," for which M. Gounod composed the music, and it was a failure; we note that M. Offenbach in 1860 wrote the music of a ballet, "Le Papillon," for which the celebrated dancer, Marie Taglioni, composed the dancing, and it too was a failure. Apropos of ballets it is with some surprise that the name of Théophile Gautier is seen so often as the author of ballet-librettos; his beautiful "Giselle," for which Adolphe Adam composed the music, is an excellent example of the skill with which, catching at a suggestion of Hoffmann's, he could put a fanciful and fantastic subject on the stage. Among the opera-librettists the name of M. Got, the great comedian of the Comédie-Française, is twice to be found. M. Lajarte's mention of Wagner's "Tannhäuser," which had three noisy performances in 1861, shows that the French are beginning to get over their extreme dislike for the German composer's work: "We ought to confess that his score contains beauties of the first rank in the midst of ridiculous insanities. The summary justice inflicted on it by the Parisian public is, consequently, a fault we shall not try to excuse." To the seven parts before the last are prefixed portraits, etched by M. de Rat, and at times a little thin and hard, of the seven typical musicians of the two centuries of French opera—Lully, Campra, Rameau, Gluck, Spontini, Rossini, and Meyerbeer. The eighth part has an etching, also by M. de Rat, of the ample oval room, at the top of the pavilion, in which is now ranged the dramatic, operatic, terpsichorean, and generally theatrical library of the Opéra, under the care of M. Nuitter, the archivist. This collection is perhaps the best theatrical library in Paris, and it is rapidly growing. Both English and German drama and dramatic biography are well represented in it, and it is generally more cosmopolitan than French collections usually are. M. Nuitter himself is our authority for saying that, as soon as he has filled a few more vacancies, he proposes issuing a catalogue, which will certainly be one of the most important in its class. We are also informed that he is desirous of receiving all American publications in his line, and we happen to know by experience that both M. Nuitter and M. Lajarte are cordial in their welcome to Americans.

—The monastery of Monte Casino has received at the Paris Exposition a gold medal for the arrangement, method, and materials of the higher instruction, and a bronze medal for specimens of printing. There has probably been no time since its foundation by St. Benedict in 529 that it has not been noted for its devotion to education and literature. Exempted by the Italian Government from the secularization which befell the other religious establishments of Italy, its monks, now reduced to twenty, are unwearied in their efforts to sustain the centuries-old reputation of their order. In addition to their educational work, in 1865 they edited and printed by their own unassisted labor a fac-simile of the

splendid manuscript of Dante. Since then they have printed two volumes of a catalogue of the manuscripts contained in their library, which is one of the richest in the department of charters and archives in the world. In the excellence of the typography and the beauty of the numerous fac-similes of illuminated manuscripts these volumes fall but little below the best productions of the French press.

BATEMAN ON DARWINISM.*

DR. BATEMAN'S argument against Darwinism is based upon a fallacy which is quite commonly shared by those who have failed to comprehend the doctrine of evolution. This is the fallacy of supposing that the Darwinian theory can be overthrown simply by insisting upon the obvious fact that the intelligence and acquirements of man are enormously—almost incommensurably—greater than the intelligence and acquirements of the highest apes. As urged in the case of language, Dr. Bateman's argument is not original with him, as he seems to suppose; it has already been urged by Max Müller, a writer far more distinguished for brilliancy of expression than for profundity of thought. In substance it consists of three propositions: "1. That articulate speech is a distinctive attribute of man, and that the ape and lower animals do not possess a trace of it. 2. That articulate speech is a universal attribute of man, that all races have a language, or the capacity of acquiring it. 3. The immateriality of the faculty of speech." It is perhaps hardly correct to call this last point a "proposition," nor is it easy to determine precisely its purport or its relevance. We are told farther on that although "a certain normal and healthy state of cerebral tissue is necessary for the exterior manifestation of the faculty of speech," it by no means follows that speech is located in a particular portion of the brain, or is the "result of a certain definite molecular condition of the cerebral organ." Of course it does not follow; but the conclusion, however interesting to phrenologists and materialists, is irrelevant to the discussion of the Darwinian theory or to that of the origin of language. In such enquiries all that any one needs to know is that the faculty of speech implies, among other things, the presence of a brain, and whether this "faculty" is to be called "immaterial" or not is quite beside the question.

Our author's argumentation, it will be rightly inferred, is more or less rambling in character. Returning to the two propositions which really make up his argument, it is an obvious criticism that every sensible Darwinian will concede them both without a moment's hesitation. There is not the slightest evidence of the existence of a race of men destitute of articulate speech; and if apes or any other animals do possess the slightest trace of such an acquisition, it may safely be neglected on the principle of *de minimis non curat lex*. It is only Dr. Bateman's imaginary Darwinian who finds it difficult to admit these plain facts. The actual supporters of this "dangerous heresy" have never gone out of their way to detect an historical substratum for Reynard or Æsop, or to hunt from its obscurity the Leibnitzian story of the Latin-speaking dog; there are some of them, we fear, who would even, on general grounds, cast discredit on the story of Balaam. But if this be really the Darwinian state of mind, then Dr. Bateman's work is plainly a case of *ignoratio elenchi*, or what is otherwise called "barking up the wrong tree."

As regards the process, psychological and physiological, by which the faculty of articulate speech was acquired by mankind, no thorough explanation has yet been offered, either upon the Darwinian or upon any other theory. The so-called "bow-wow" or onomatopoetic theory is no doubt correct, so far as it goes, as a description of facts which have attended the acquisition of speech; but it hardly goes to the root of the matter. The power of enunciating sounds so as to communicate ideas and feelings is certainly an art, as much as the later-acquired powers of writing or drawing. For the original acquisition of such an art two conditions were requisite—the physiological capacity of the vocal organs for producing articulate sounds, and the psychological capacity of abstraction implied in the conception of a sign or symbol. There must also have been required—as underlying the last-named capacity—the possession of a certain amount of mental flexibility, or inventiveness, or capability of framing new combinations of ideas. This sort of mental flexibility is found among animals in man alone, and in his case it is the accompaniment, and probably the result, of an exceptionally long period of infancy. The significance of infancy, psychologically, is that it is a period during which a great number of all-important nervous combinations are formed after birth under the influence of outward circumstances which slightly vary from generation to generation. Where there is no infancy all the most important nervous combinations are established before birth, and under the unmodified influence of the powerful conservative tendency of heredity. Where there is an infancy, many important nervous combinations are not formed until after birth, and the strictly conservative tendency of heredity is liable to be modified by the fact that the experience of the offspring amid environing circumstances is not likely to be precisely the same as that of the parent. The prolongation of infancy, therefore, increases the opportunities for the production of a mental type more plastic than that which is witnessed in the lower animals; it paves the way for inventiveness and for progress. It is, furthermore, the increased variety of experience resulting from this increased mental plasticity that leads to the power of abstraction and generalization—the power of marking out and isolating in thought the element that is common to different groups of phenomena.

Now, in the first employment of articulated words by inchoate man, who had hitherto only grunted or howled, the main point to be interpreted psychologically is the inventive turn of mind which could establish an association between a number of vocal sounds and a corresponding number of objects, and which could appreciate the utility of such an association in facilitating concerted action with one's fellow-creatures; though, as to the last point, the utility would be so enormous that the maintenance of the device, when once conceived, could never be in doubt. In the origination of language it is but the first costly step that requires consideration; but this step obviously involved no superhuman mystery. It was but an instance—though the greatest of all in its consequences—of that general psychical plasticity which characterizes the only animal which begins life with a considerable proportion of its nervous combinations undetermined.

It is not pretended that such considerations solve the problem of the origin of speech. They nevertheless go far toward putting it into its proper position, and indicating the class of enquiries with which it must be grouped if it is to be treated in that broad philosophical way which can alone connect its solution with the fortunes of the Darwinian theory. The existence of language is not, as Max Müller's *dicta* imply, a fact in the universe that is isolated or *sui generis* in being incapable of scientific explanation. Immense as the fabric of human speech has grown to be, it is undoubtedly based on sundry acts of discovery or invention—not necessarily very conspicuous at the outset—among primeval semi-human savages. The inventive acts which led to the systematic use of vocal sounds for the interchange of ideas, like the inventive acts which resulted in bows and arrows and in cookery, are to be regarded simply as instances of the general increase in psychical plasticity which has been the fundamental fact in the genesis of man intellectually. In other words, the existence of language is a fact no more wonderful than the general superiority of human over simian intelligence; and when it shall have been shown how the rigid mind of an ape might acquire plasticity, the problem of the origin of language, along with many other problems, will have been, *ipso facto*, more than half solved.

A great step in this direction was taken by Mr. Wallace, when he pointed out that when variations in intelligence have become, on the whole, more useful to a race of animals than variations in physical constitution, then natural selection must seize upon the former to the relative neglect of the latter. This conclusion follows inevitably from the theory of natural selection as conceived by Mr. Darwin; and it further follows, with equal cogency, that when this point is reached an entirely new chapter is opened in the history of the evolution of life. A race which maintains itself by psychical variations can never, by natural selection, give rise to a race specifically different from itself in a zoölogical sense. It may go on adding increments to its intelligence until it evolves Newtons and Beethovens, while its physical structure will undergo but slight and secondary modifications. Obviously the first beginning of such a race of creatures, though but a slight affair zoölogically, was, in the history of the world, an event quite incomparable in importance with any other instance of specific genesis that ever occurred. It constituted a new departure, so to speak, not inferior in value to the first beginning of organic life. From Mr. Spencer's researches into the organization of correspondences in the nervous system it follows that the general increase of intelligence cannot be carried much farther than it has reached in the average higher mammalia without necessitating the genesis of infancy. The amount of work to be done by the developing nervous system of the offspring, in reproducing the various combinations achieved by the parental nervous system, becomes so considerable that it cannot all be performed before birth. A considerable and increasing number of combina-

* 'Darwinism Tested by Language. By Frederic Bateman, M.D. With a Preface by E. M. Goulburn, D.D., Dean of Norwich.' London. New York: Scribner & Welford. 12mo, pp. xxi. 224.

tions have to be adjusted after birth; and thus arise the phenomena of infancy. Among mammalia the point at which this change becomes observable lies between the true monkeys and the man-like apes. The orang-outang is unable to walk until a month old, and its period of babyhood lasts considerably longer.

The establishment of infancy is the most important among the series of events which resulted in the genesis of man. For, on the one hand, the prolongation of this period of immaturity had for its direct effect the liberation of intelligence from the shackles of rigid conservatism by which the unchecked influence of heredity had hitherto confined it. On the other hand, as its indirect effect, the prolongation of the period of helplessness served to inaugurate social life by establishing the family, and thus prepared the way for the development of the moral sense. It is by following out this line of enquiry that we shall elucidate the question of the causes of man's enormous intellectual superiority over his nearest zoölogical congeners. Meanwhile, and until further light shall have been thrown upon such incidental questions as the inventiveness displayed in the origin of language, the Darwinian is in nowise debarred, by any logical necessity of his position, from fully recognizing the fact of this enormous superiority. Writers like Dr. Bateman argue as if they supposed Darwinians to be in the habit of depicting the human race as a parcel of naked, howling troglodytes. They "point with pride" to Parthenons and Iliads, and ask us to produce from his African forests some gorilla who can perform the like. These worthy critics should first try to grasp the meaning of the contrast, that while zoölogically man presents differences from the higher catarrhine apes that are barely of generic value, on the other hand the psychological difference is so great as, in Mr. Mivart's emphatic language, to transcend the difference between an ape and a blade of grass. After duly reflecting on this, with the aid to be derived from Mr. Wallace's suggestion above cited, they will perhaps be able to comprehend how it is that the Darwinian, without ignoring the immensity of this difference, seeks, nevertheless, by working hypotheses to bring it out of the region of barren mystery into that of scientific interpretation. When they have once got this through their heads such trash as Dr. Bateman's will no longer get published.

A MODEL HISTORY.*

THE author of this work says in his preface that "if there be room for one more history of the United States for schools, it must differ in character from those now before the public." We do not always know ourselves. If there be a weak point in this book, it is that it does not differ quite enough from those now before the public, as a few extracts from the early pages will show:

"They [the Indians] were not equal to Europeans in bodily strength, but they had wonderful endurance. They were very light of foot, and their best racers could run eighty miles a day. They used skins as clothing, which they prepared by smoking instead of tanning. When white men came they obtained blankets, which they decorated with feathers, beads, shells, and trinkets. In summer they wore but little clothing, and the early settlers said it was hard to fight with an Indian, because there was 'nothing to hold on by except his hair, and not much of that.'"—'*Model History*,' page 19.

[It will be observed that these last five words are here given as a part of the remark quoted, though they do not belong to it, but are Higginson's addition.]

"The Indians were not commonly equal to the Europeans in bodily strength. . . . But, on the other hand, their endurance was wonderful. They were very light of foot, and their best runners could run seventy or eighty miles in a day. . . . When the colonists first arrived they found the Indians dressed chiefly in the skins of animals, which they prepared by smoking instead of by tanning, as is now the practice. But they soon obtained blankets from the colonists, and decorated them with beads, and shells, and feathers. . . . In summer they went about almost naked, and one of the first white settlers complained that it was hard fighting hand-to-hand with an Indian, because there was 'nothing to hold on by except his hair,' and not much of that."—*Higginson's 'Young Folks' United States*,' pp. 14-6.

"They made stone axes and arrow-heads, and these are often found in the ground to this day. Iron was unknown to them. Their most ingenious inventions were the birch canoe and the snow-shoe. The canoes were sometimes thirty feet long, and would carry a dozen Indians. An Indian could travel forty miles a day upon snow-shoes, and could overtake the deer and moose, whose pointed hoofs cut through the snow. These shoes are still much used in Canada."—'*Model History*,' page 20.

"They made stone axes and arrow-heads, and these are often found in the ground to this day. . . . But the most ingenious inventions of the Indians were the snow-shoe and the birch canoe. . . . The largest of these canoes were thirty feet long, and would carry ten or twelve Indians. . . . An Indian could travel forty miles a day upon show-shoes, and could easily overtake the deer and moose, whose pointed hoofs cut through the crust . . . The birch canoe and the snow-shoe are still much in use, not only among Indians, but among white men in the northern parts of the United States and in Canada."—*Higginson*, pp. 16-8.

"Their [the Indians'] success was mainly owing to their silent approaches, patient watchings, and cunning stratagems. They thought it honorable to kill an unarmed enemy, and praised treachery and deceit. To fight a pitched battle was evidence of rashness or want of skill. They were very brave, but saw no shame in running away when there was no chance of success."—'*Model History*,' page 21.

"Much of their skill consisted in these silent approaches, and in surprises and stratagems, and long and patient watchings. They attached no shame to killing an unarmed enemy, or to private deceit and treachery, though to their public treaties they were always faithful. They were desperately brave, and yet they saw no disgrace in running away when there was no chance of success."—*Higginson*, page 23.

"The Spaniard went for gold and precious stones; the Portuguese to capture Indians and reduce them to slavery; the French for the sake of fishing; and the English and Dutch to find a passage to India. Even the learned supposed for a long time that the new lands were a series of islands called 'Florida,' 'Hispaniola,' and 'America.' The geographers thought China and Japan lay just west of these islands, and they eagerly sought a passage thence."—'*Model History*,' page 35.

"The Spaniards generally went for gold; the Portuguese for slaves; and the French and English for the sake of fishing. . . . But the more learned people—the geographers and those that made the maps—now thought that these new lands were not a part of India, but were a series of islands called 'Cuba,' 'Florida,' 'America,' and so on; and they expected to find among these islands a passage that would lead to China and Japan."—*Higginson*, page 47.

"The Spaniards wished to own all the lands they had seen or sailed near. So did the English. So did the French. So did the Dutch. But none of them were willing to stay there and keep possession."—'*Model History*,' page 35.

"The Spaniards wished to own all they had explored; so did the French; so did the English; but nobody liked very well to stay there and keep possession."—*Higginson*, page 50.

"Within the church, the old men sat in one place, the young men in another, and the children in another. The boys sat on the stairs or in the gallery, guarded by an elder, who carried a long light rod with a hare's foot on one end and a hare's tail on the other. 'If a woman went to sleep, he touched her on the forehead with the hare's tail; if a boy nodded, he received a rap with the other end. We can imagine the rod was often needed, for the service was from three to six hours in length, the sexton turning the hour-glass on the pulpit at the end of every hour.' There were no organs, choirs, or hymns, but the music consisted of singing by the entire congregation from a poetical version of the Psalms. The whole number of tunes did not exceed ten, and few congregations could sing more than five."—'*Model History*,' pp. 67, 68.

"In those days the old men sat together in one place in the church, the young men in another, the young women in another. The boys all sat on the pulpit-stairs and gallery-stairs, guarded by constables. Each of these constables had a wand, with a hare's foot on one end and a hare's tail on the other. These were to keep people awake. If any woman went to sleep, the constable touched her on the forehead with the hare's tail; but if a small boy nodded, he was rapped with the other end, not quite so gently. No doubt the wand was often used, for the services were sometimes three and four hours long, the sexton turning the hour-glass before the minister at the end of every hour. The only music consisted of singing by the congregation from a metrical portion of the Psalms, called the 'Bay Psalm Book.' The whole number of tunes known to the people did not exceed ten, and few congregations could go beyond five."—*Higginson*, pp. 75-6.

[It will be observed that some sentences of this passage are in quotation marks. It is difficult to see why, as the coincidence is not more complete than in many other passages.]

"But on great occasions, and on the Sabbath, the young men wore gold and silver buttons and showy belts; and the young women silken hoods, lace handkerchiefs, and embroidered caps. All persons were required by law to dress within their means. Alice Flynt was accused of wearing a silk hood, but the complaint was dropped when she showed that she was worth a thousand dollars! Jonas Fairbanks was arrested for wearing 'great boots,' but he was acquitted of the crime for want of sufficient evidence."—'*Model History*,' page 72.

"We should find the young men, on public occasions, wearing showy belts, gold and silver buttons, and great boots rolled over at the top. We should find the young women wearing plain and homespun clothing when about their work, but appearing on Sundays in silk hoods, lace handkerchiefs, slashed sleeves, and embroidered caps. But the law required that they should dress according to their means. . . . Alice Flynt was accused of wearing a silk hood; but when she proved before court that she was worth two hundred pounds in money the complaint was dropped. Jonas Fairbanks, about the same time, was prosecuted for wearing 'great boots'; but the evidence was not sufficient to convict him, and he was happily acquitted."—*Higginson*, page 78.

"People in all stations made their morning and evening meal of mush and milk. The standard dinner was of pork and beans or beef and peas. Tea and coffee were not yet used, but home-made beer and cider were largely taken as drinks. . . . Bread was commonly made of rye and corn-meal, rather than of flour. . . . There were few amusements; dancing and the theatre were not tolerated; and no one was allowed to carry cards or dice. . . . The standard of morality was very high."—'*Model History*,' pp. 72-3.

"People of all stations made their morning and evening meal of boiled corn-meal and milk, or of pork and beans, or pork and peas. Tea and coffee were not yet introduced; but home-made beer and cider were largely employed. Bread was commonly made of 'rye and Indian,' rather than of flour. There were few amusements; dancing and the theatre were prohibited; musical instruments were rare; and no one was allowed even to possess cards or dice. In their desire to promote virtue, the Puritans, no doubt, were too austere in their way of living; yet the standard of morality among them was certainly very high."—*Higginson*, p. 85.

But it is needless to carry these parallel passages beyond the first quarter of Mr. Taylor's book. A celebrated Englishman once defined an independent statesman as a statesman not to be depended on; and this work may be said to be "a model history" in the sense of being a history based on a model, and adhering to it pretty closely.

Record of a Girlhood. By Frances Anne Kemble. (London: Bentley. 1878.)—Of this work Americans have had the foretaste, under another title, in the *Atlantic Monthly*. To the series which there appeared, a good deal has now been added; by no means enough, however, to console the reader for his regret that the author should not have prolonged her chronicle and carried it into her riper years. The book is so charming, so entertaining, so stamped with the impress of a strong, remarkable, various nature, that we feel almost tormented in being treated to a view only of the youthful phases of the character. Like most of the novels that we read, or don't read, these volumes are the history of a young lady's entrance into life. Mrs. Kemble's young lady is a very brilliant and charming one, and our only complaint is that we part com-

* 'The Model History. A Brief Account of the American People; for Schools. By Edward Taylor, A M.' Chicago: George Sherwood & Co.

pany with her too soon. It is a pity that her easy, natural, forcible descriptive powers, her vivid memory of detail, her spontaneous pathos and humor, should not have exercised themselves upon a larger experience. What we have here, however, is excellent reading, and as the author is always tolerably definite in her characterizations of people she has met, discretion perhaps justified her in confining herself to subjects not strictly contemporaneous. Mrs. Kemble's part in these volumes is admirably done ; she is naturally a writer, she has a style of her own which is full of those felicities of expression that indicate the literary sense. But as regards the publication of her work she has evidently been irresponsible, and the publishers might have done better. It has received the very minimum of editing (by which we do not mean retouching or redistributing, but simply the material conversion of a MS. into a book). There are no headings to the pages or to the chapters, and anything in the nature of a table of contents or an index is conspicuous by its absence. The work has been brought out, in short, like a three-volume novel. Its substance, of course, is very theatrical, but by no means exclusively so. On the contrary, nothing is more striking than the fact that Fanny Kemble, in the midst of her youthful triumph, led a life entirely independent of the stage, and had personal and intellectual interests that were quite distinct from her art. Has any young actress, before or since, ever written such letters as those addressed to Miss H. S., of which a large part of these volumes is composed ? As an actress, Miss Fanny Kemble had many a confidant upon the stage ; but she had the good fortune also to have one off it, to whom she poured out a thousand daily impressions and opinions, emotions and reflections of character. Taken together, these things make a very remarkable portrait—a portrait doubly remarkable when we remember that this original, positive, interrogative, reflective, generous, cultivated young girl, interested in books, in questions, in public matters, in art and nature and philosophy, was at the same time a young lady of the footlights and pursuing in this situation an extraordinarily brilliant career.

The serious side of the young actress's mind and the complete absence of any touch of Bohemianism in her personal situation make of the charming heroine of these pages a very original figure in the history of the stage. To produce such a figure certain influences were needed which are not likely soon to recur. Mrs. Kemble had the good fortune to issue from a remarkable race—a race each of whose members appears to have had some striking or charming gift, were it only the personal beauty which was their most universal characteristic. She summed up in herself most of their salient qualities—she came into the world with a great hereditary impetus. And then the English theatre at that time was a very different affair from now ; it enjoyed a different sort of consideration. Actors and actresses took themselves seriously, and the public took them in the same fashion. The two great play-houses, Drury Lane and Covent Garden, enjoyed, in virtue of their "patents," a monopoly of the Shaksperean and classical drama, and to this end they were able to concentrate all the available talent and experience of the time. It is probable, therefore, that at these theatres the plays of the old repertory were acted with a general perfection of which, in our own time, we can form no idea. Charles Kemble was great as *Mercutio;* who in our own day is great as *Mercutio?* Who, even, can deliver the enchanting poetry of the part with tolerable spirit and grace ? Mrs. Kemble's reminiscences bring back to us this happier time, as well as a great many other agreeable things; though it can hardly be said that they make it seem nearer. It seems not fifty but a hundred years ago that she renewed the popularity of Otway and Massinger, of *Mrs. Beverley* and *Lady Townley.* All that is the old, the very old, world, and we have travelled very fast since then.

We may add that this record is particularly interesting from what one may call a psychological point of view, on account of the singular anomaly it points out. Mrs. Kemble, during the years of her early histrionic triumphs, took no pleasure in the exercise of her genius. She went upon the stage from extrinsic considerations, and she never overcame a strong aversion to it. The talent, and the sort of activity that the talent involved, remained mutually unsympathetic. Given, in Mrs. Kemble's case, the remarkable proportions of the talent, the fact appears to be without precedent, though, if we are not mistaken, something akin to it is pointed out in the Memoirs of Macready. There have been people who could not act by many degrees so well as Mrs. Kemble who have had an incorrigible passion for the footlights ; but we doubt whether there has been any one who, possessing so strongly the dramatic instinct, has had so little taste for the stage. The contradiction is interesting, and leads one to ask whether it takes a distinctly inferior mind to content itself with the dramatic profession. The thing is possible, though one hesitates to affirm it. We venture to say no more than that it is probable Miss Fanny Kemble would have been a more contented and ambitious actress, a more complete and business-like artist, if she had not been so generally intelligent and accomplished a young lady. She would have been happier if she could have been more "professional." But this contradiction is only a detail in the portrait of a very interesting character.

Canada under the Administration of Lord Dufferin. By George Stewart, jr. (Toronto: Rose-Belford Publishing Company. 1878.)—This handsome volume of nearly seven hundred pages gives a full view of the administration of Lord Dufferin from his arrival in 1872 to his departure in the present year, and includes nearly all the speeches which he delivered on occasions festive or political during his term of office. When he came to Canada the Confederation was in its incipient stage ; its extreme western and eastern members were restive under the new order of things, and one of them openly threatened secession. Conflicts of parties, races, and creeds agitated the new nationality. Ugly questions had come up touching the honor and honesty of its highest functionaries, and the Dominion Ministry was attacked with charges of gross corruption. Never was there a happier choice than that which, at this troubled time, sent Lord Dufferin to represent his sovereign in Canada. The spirit of his administration may be described as one of dignified conciliation. Placed above the conflicting elements, he was in a position to moderate and reconcile them—a task for which his character and talents remarkably fitted him. It is hardly too much to say that his popularity was universal. He became a Canadian among Canadians, and entered even into the national amusements with a sympathetic zest that was entirely genuine. He was the host or the guest of his subjects with equal kindliness and equal grace ; and his innumerable speeches, in English and French, and sometimes, on academic occasions, in Greek or Latin, were all suited to the occasion and the audience, and yet were marked as much by sincerity as by tact. Sometimes, no doubt, he tinged his words with rose color, but it was because his eyes turned instinctively to the bright side. He knew well how to uphold the vice-regal dignity ; but he felt himself the head of a free people, and the royal prerogative was never an occasion of offence in his hands. If the old thirteen colonies had been governed in the same spirit the American Revolution would have been long postponed, and would have been bloodless. The Canadians have learned to love the crown in the person of the Viceroy.

One of the ablest of Lord Dufferin's speeches was that delivered at Victoria in 1876, when he had the hard task of conciliating the population of British Columbia, exasperated by the non-fulfilment of the terms on which they had agreed to join the Confederation. This and the other chief troubles of his Administration rose out of causes anterior to his arrival in Canada. The premier, Sir John Macdonald, always lavish of promises, had pledged his Government to build a railway to the Pacific within a short specified time. The promise could not be kept. Then a compromise was made on terms recommended by Lord Carnarvon. These terms also proved difficult of fulfilment, and a party in the aggrieved province was ready for secession. In connection with this state of things an incident occurred, trifling enough in itself, but serving to illustrate the readiness and tact as well as other qualities of the Viceroy. He was expected to pass in procession under a number of arches which had been raised over the main street of Victoria. When the procession was about to move he was told that one of these arches bore the secession motto, "Carnarvon Terms or Separation." He replied : "Send the committee to me." When they appeared he said with a smile : "Gentlemen, I will go under your arch on one condition : I merely ask you to change one letter in your motto—turn the S into R ; make it 'Carnarvon Terms or Reparation' and I will pass under it gladly." The committee declined, and to their great vexation the procession was ordered to pass down a side street.

It was this projected railway to the Pacific that gave occasion to those charges against the chief minister of the Dominion which caused such bitter party strife in Canada. Under the difficulties and embarrassments in which this affair placed Lord Dufferin there may have been a question whether he did not adhere too closely to the technicalities of his position, but there could be none whatever as to the conscientious anxiety with which he set himself to fulfil its duties. If the course of his eminently successful administration gave little opportunity to the highest qualities of statesmanship, it exacted often and in a high degree the exercise of judgment, firmness, and address.

Mr. Stewart has done his work exceedingly well. The ceremonial and

festive occasions which are a conspicuous feature of the book are described with good taste. Political questions and events are presented clearly and faithfully, while the speeches of Lord Dufferin, of which all the more important are given in full, have the advantage of his own supervision.

Art in the House; Historical, Critical, and Æsthetical Studies on the Decoration and Furnishing of the Dwelling. By Jacob Von Falke, Vice-Director of the Austrian Museum of Art and Industry at Vienna. Authorized American edition translated from the third German edition. Edited with notes by Charles C. Perkins, M.A. Illustrated by Chromo-lithographs, Albertotypes, and Typographic Etchings. (Boston: L Prang & Co. Large 4to, pp. xxvii. 356. 1878.)—This large book is divided under a few principal headings into parts which may be described and considered separately. There are ten chapters of the original work and an Editor's Preface, which constitutes another chapter by itself. Taking first this last-named division it appears from it that, while Dr. Von Falke thought best to begin his work with a description of "the Greco-Roman house" (for which, by the way, he gives his reasons in his "Introduction"), Mr. Perkins thought it right to preface that beginning with such an account as twenty-five pages would contain of the Egyptian and the Assyrian dwelling. This chapter, or preface, is very interesting, although, in the natural wish to treat of many parts of the subject, of dress and festivities, jewelry and decorative fabrics, pottery and painted ceilings, the chance to point out what is most suitable for modern study has perhaps been lost. The illustrations to this part of the book are seventeen pictures in the text, looking like not very delicate wood-cuts, but probably "typographic etchings," which certainly are not etchings at all; and with these two large plates—one a chromo-lithograph of an Egyptian interior, accredited to M. Viollet-le-Duc, and apparently enlarged with added color and details from the plate in that author's 'Histoire de l'Habitation Humaine,' though it is not impossible that a large lithograph of the subject is to be found among his excellent lecture-illustrations prepared for the *École Centrale d'Architecture.*

With chapter i. begins the work proper, with the examination and analysis of the "Greco-Roman" house and its furnishing, and the life led within it. This chapter is fully illustrated, and gives, perhaps, as good an account of the Pompeian interior and of Roman domestic life as could be got into its forty-five pages, so long as it was thought necessary to reproduce the old anecdotes and to indulge in the old comments. And, no doubt, a more rigidly analytical examination of the subject would have been thought unreadable. At the same time, when we consider the unequalled fitness and beauty of the utensils of classical times, and the simplicity and obvious nature of the principles of design which guided their makers; when, furthermore, it would be so easy to talk plainly, and to discriminate at once between what was excellent and of permanent value (of value, therefore, to us), and what was mere fashion and Roman pomposity, it does seem a pity that one more parlor-table picture-book be offered us, full of true things, of course, but not likely to fix the attention of those who most need to study, nor to impart either accurate knowledge of what has been nor a clear perception of what should be.

The second chapter deals with the mediæval house, and here again it appears that the picturesque exteriors of mediæval buildings, and the necessities of defence in the homes of the nobles, occupy space in the text that might better have been devoted to a more consecutive and minute consideration of what the people of the Middle Ages did best in the way of floor and wall decoration, movable and stationary wood-work, and the use of textile fabrics as curtains, floor-cloths, and wall-coverings. We have a pleasant essay, and, to the careful reader of it who is otherwise uninformed on the subject, it may be of value. Our complaint is merely that, while this same general knowledge is easily accessible elsewhere, the student does not know where to go for more carefully arranged and classified information, except to expensive and extensive works not always within his reach, nor known to him.

Two more chapters are devoted, the one to the house of the sixteenth century and the other to the house of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and then begins the discussion of the general topic of modern house-decoration, which is divided into five chapters. This latter part of the book is much more valuable than that which has been spoken of before. References to the past are so frequent, necessarily so frequent, as to suggest the reducing of the previous historical chapters to additional illustrative matter for these chapters, which treat of "The Floor and the Wall" and "Furniture." The point of view is necessarily German, the recent German fashions give the key-note for many remarks hardly intelligible here, and a comical desire to find fault with what is French will not be excused here so readily as in Vienna. These are slight failings in what is very generally just and sound as criticism, and, if not very suggestive, at least good as a check on some evil tendencies of the day.

The book winds up with a chapter on "Woman's Æsthetic Mission," which contains a discussion of what the women of a family can do to beautify its home. It seems to us that no discussion on that subject is of much value which does not take account of the one great disturbing element, the evil influence which prevents women from doing anything great to help in the artistic movement—their life-long subjection to the rule of fashion. Changing fashions affect men as well, and so far as to prevent any good thing coming out of even the best workshops; but still there are men who are indifferent to *la mode.* Are there any women who can say as much as that of themselves?

Pleasant Spots around Oxford. By Alfred Rimmer. Illustrated. (Cassell, Petter & Galpin. 1878.)—Mr. Rimmer, as readers of his 'Ancient Streets and Homesteads of England' are aware, is an amiable pedestrian, of architectural tastes and probable training, a gentle antiquarian, a lover of the picturesque, fairly skilful with his pencil—in short, possessed of all the traits that make companionship in the open air delightful, but lacking those which go to the telling of a story or the making of a book. What an interminable sentence, for instance, and barely intelligible, is this on p. 3 of the present volume:

"Now, Isaac Walton could not only write this at three-score years, but nearly a quarter of a century after this he showed how keen his love of nature was, in a letter he wrote to his friend Mr. Cotton, on sending him a copy of 'irregular stanzas,' as he terms them, upon retirement, that had been originally given him by his friend, and which speak in quaint old rhyme of 'valleys and mountains,' 'groves and fountains,' but he says that if this offends Mr. Cotton—though he has only added it as a preface to his work, that his friend's excellence may be better known, 'and any reader that is blessed with a generous soul may love you the better'—yet he declares that if he is at all aggrieved with waking up their old pleasant days, he will, 'so far commute for my offence, that though I be more than a hundred miles from you, and in the eighty-third year of my age, yet I will forget both, and next month begin a pilgrimage to beg your pardon, for I would die in your favor.'"

Mr. Rimmer's rambling disorder is still characteristic of him, and so are the frequent repetitions of thought and phrase. We turn the leaf of pp. 9 and 10 when we read: "Like all other colleges, it [Magdalen] has a list of notable men among its scholars," and before p. 10 is ended we are told that "Like all the colleges, this can boast of a long list of distinguished names, from Wolsey's downwards." So, p. 13: "Little is known of the history or origin of Iffley Church. John Britton, a very painstaking authority—almost a final one, some would say—declares that, after much research, he cannot arrive at any conclusion regarding the founder"; and, p. 14: "Britton, in speaking of Iffley, mentions some curious circumstances. He cannot, as he says, after much care and research, discover its true origin." Of English landscape, p. 22: "There is a pearly grey that belongs to it alone"; p. 74: "The Berkshire hills . . . have the pearly grey look that cannot be seen out of England . . . the grey pearly tint pertains to England." And for a final (though not the only remaining) example: "Abingdon is an extremely pleasant town, and a favorite holiday resort of Oxonians" (p. 23). "Abingdon is a favorite resort of Oxford men" (p. 33).

These extracts show how incorrigible our author is, from want of method, but they do not fairly describe his book. Discursiveness is not *per se* a fault, and Mr. Rimmer has much pleasant gossip, historical, biographical, architectural, piscatorial, entomological, etc. He tells how to make ink and how not to clean fish. By several allusions he shows that he has been in America, but we should doubt if he ever left Canada. Blenheim receives more attention in these pages than any other topic. The book is beautifully made, with a holiday aspect.

Recollections of Writers. By Charles and Mary Cowden Clarke. With letters of Charles Lamb, Leigh Hunt, Douglas Jerrold, and Charles Dickens; and a preface by Mary Cowden Clarke. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.)—This little volume contains much agreeable reading, though the reader who glances over it hastily may be daunted at a first inspection. Mrs. Clarke is capable of a formidable amount of sentimental expression, and sentimental expression is not to the taste of the reader of the present day. In her preface she is not content with referring to herself and her deceased husband as the "author-couple," to him as "one of the wedded pair," and again as "her lost other self," but gravely declares

that "Charles and Mary Cowden Clarke may with truth be held in tender remembrance by their readers as among the happiest of married lovers, for more than forty-eight years writing together, reading together, working together, enjoying together the perfection of loving literary consociation." After such a preface it might be expected that the style of the "Recollections" themselves would not be altogether severe; and they are unquestionably marred by a florid luxuriance which is ill-adapted to the writing of reminiscences. When we are told of Coleridge that "here he spread the sail-broad vans of his wonderful imagination, and soared away with an eagle-flight, and with an eagle-eye too, compassing the effulgence of his great argument, ever and anon stooping within my own sparrow's range, and then glancing away again, and careering through the trackless fields of ethereal metaphysics," we cannot feel positively certain that we understand the peculiar traits of Coleridge's method of conversation much better than we did before. Nevertheless, the general tone of the book is not as inflated as this, and here and there occur little passages of description of well-known people which make up for a good deal of rhetoric. For instance, at page 45 there is an account of Leigh Hunt's manner in conversation and story-telling that wants nothing for vividness and point. So, too, the recollections of Charles Lamb and his sister Mary are particularly good. Lamb was intimate with the Clarkes (it is to his acquaintance with the musician Vincent Novello, the father of Mrs. Clarke, that we owe the "Chapter on Ears"), and here we have him in his most eccentric and familiar moods—amusing his friends with a story of a walking match between himself and a dog, in which he tires the dog out, and leaves the animal under a hedge exhausted; opening his street-door to admit a stray donkey to the enjoyment of a strip of grass in his garden; condoling with a shop-keeper, of whom his sister is making purchases, on the falling off of trade; declaring that his habit was to give away gifts, part with presents, and sell keepsakes, and asserting that he always called his sister Moll before the servants, Mary when with friends, and Maria when alone with her. But the best thing relating to Lamb in the book is the musical letter (p. 165) to Novello on the marriage of his daughter, containing a "Serenata for two voices." This is as good as anything in the "Essays," and would have warranted the publication of the book had it contained nothing else worth preservation. The musical composition is supposed to contain an "Air" for the "first voice," for which Lamb furnishes the following inspired lines:

> "The listening Muses all around her
> Think 'tis Phœbus' strain they hear,
> And Cupid, drawing near to wound her,
> Drops his bow and stands to hear."

Apropos of which the author gives the following directions to the musical father of the bride:

"Your exquisite taste will prevent your falling into the error of Purcell, who at a passage similar to that in my first air—

> "'Drops his bow and stands to hear,'—

directed the first violin thus:

> "'Here the first violin must drop his bow.'

But besides the absurdity of disarming his principal performer of so necessary an adjunct to his instrument, in such an emphatic part of the composition too, which must have had a droll effect at the time, all such minutiæ of adaptation are at this time of day very properly exploded, and Jackson of Exeter very fairly ranks them under the head of puns."

The chapters on Dickens, Douglas Jerrold, and Leigh Hunt are all very good and contain a great deal of correspondence worth preservation. With regard to Jerrold's repartees, the following remarks are very interesting. As to whether they are more or less than fair is a question about which there might be two opinions:

"Jerrold would perceive the germ of a retort before you had well begun to form your sentence, and would bring it forth in full blossom the instant you had done speaking. He had a way of looking straight in the face of one to whom he dealt a repartee, and with an expression of eye that seemed to ask appreciation of the point of the thing he was going to say, thus depriving it of personality or ill-nature. It was as if he called upon its object to enjoy it with him, rather than to resent its sharpness. . . . When an acquaintance came up to him and said: 'Why, Jerrold, I hear you said my nose was like the ace of clubs!' Jerrold returned: 'No, I didn't; but now I look at it I see it is very like.' The question of the actual resemblance was far less present to his mind than the neatness of his own turn upon the complainant."

This is an explanation such as a man fond of being witty at other people's expense might be glad to have his friends make for him (and it should be said that the reminiscences in this volume are nothing if not friendly). It might, by the way, be worth the while of the next person who undertakes to define the difference between wit and humor to institute a comparison between the sayings and writings of Charles Lamb and Douglas Jerrold, one confessedly a humorist and the other a wit. Those who believe the difference to be fundamental could not have a better case in point. One of the stories told here of Jerrold is that in which the publisher of *Bentley's Miscellany* tells him of his doubts as to the name of the magazine, adding that he "thought at one time of calling it *The Wits' Miscellany*." Jerrold says in reply: "Well, but you needn't have gone to the other extremity." This is certainly no more unsparing than Charles Lamb's saying to Burney, when playing cards: "Martin, if dirt were trumps, what hands you would hold!" But one is distinctly wit, and the other as distinctly humor. We must leave the analysis to be made, however, by others.

L'Art. Tome xiv. (Paris: A. Ballue; New York: J. W. Bouton.)—The illustrated journals charged to prepare notices of art-work at the Exposition must feel themselves at a disadvantage, one would think, as compared with mere literary journals; both have to summarize their old opinions, expressed when the contributions were first brought out, whether at the Salon, the Royal Academy, or where not; but whereas the printed reports of the literary journal can be abridged, or trimmed, or shaken up together at the convenience of the writer, for the new occasion, the artistic reports, in the form of illustrations, cannot be used over again. This would be an excuse for any seeming triviality in the illustrations of the Exposition by *L'Art;* but we do not find that any excuse is particularly needed. It gives us etchings, in the amplitude of its folio page, of such striking contributions as Bonnat's portrait of Don Carlos; Bertrand's "Virginia"; Bernier's "January in Brittany"; Doré's mammoth vase, "La Vigne"; a great Erard piano, whose exterior, thanks to the style of decoration, is quite frankly a cabinet of pictures; and Mme. Henriette Brown's "Coptic Poet." By the last artist there is also the "Portrait of Mme. P.," represented in a large, fine wood-cut, the whole treatment amounting to an instance and demonstration of the beautiful family reverence of the French for sheltered old age. This more than maternal figure, who seems to be patronizing a regiment of deeply-impressed grandchildren, who is wrapped in lace and not suffered to lose either glasses or handkerchief or wedding-ring or châtelaine, whom decrepit age endows with the surer position and authority, is certainly at the greatest possible extreme from the burial alive of Tahiti, and is a fairly selected standard of the refinement of civilization among the French. Mme. Brown's portrait, as we observed, is copied in wood-cut; and there are other full-page illustrations of the Exposition on boxwood, such as Pagliano's "Examining the Legacy," and Pasini's "Hawking in Syria," of which the latter at least (as well as such Salon copies as Guillon's "Evening" and Loir's "Puteaux") goes to show that wood-engraving may better repeat the melting gradations of oil, and better deliver the full velvety impasto of printer's ink, than either etching or line.

The Exposition criticisms are written by Véron, Viollet-le-Duc, A. de Champeaux, E. Soldi, E. St.-Raymond, T. Chasrel, A. Pougin, Adolphe Piat, and Charles Tardieu; they range in style from the professional rigor of Viollet-le-Duc and the official suavity of Véron to the practised ease and studio-familiarity of Tardieu. Altogether, the Exposition finds this wide-eyed chronicler of art-news in a state of preparedness, and the staff seems to have been full-handed enough to take it up not as an interruption, but as an occasion. The editor continues with spirit and wit his Parthian enmity towards the retiring figure of M. de Chennavières, the superseded Minister of Fine Arts, introducing large etchings from Ziem and Dupré, not so much for those painters' sake as to plant remorse in the bosom of the official who neglected to represent them in the Champ de Mars. M. Piat continues his strictures on the large and pompous catalogue, instancing the United States department, where the 165 actual numbers are reduced to 156 (still in this peccant third edition), and where an ungallant printer has been allowed to change the sex of every lady exhibiting, for which he commiserates by name Miss Cassatt, Miss Dodson, Miss Gardiner, Mrs. Greatorex, Miss Odenheimer, and Miss Tompkins. He might have added that our best engraver, Marsh, a small, unwarlike man, is given a bellicose aspect as "Mars." Another graceful piece of championship towards American art, in a different department, occurs in the Salon notice, where the Venetian scenes of one of our most promising painters, Mr. W. G. Bunce, are very warmly and feelingly praised as "of surprising delicacy and depth." As for the Salon, it naturally, the season considered, shares attention with the Exposition in volume xiv. It is illustrated by the pens of MM. Véron, De Baudot, and L. Ménard in the course of whose articles occur numerous fac-similes of drawings by the contributors themselves, a vigorous and demonstrable style of copy-work

as compared with the smooth but necessarily false wood-cuts of old time. Large etchings of Salon pictures are those from "L'Accouchée" of Duez, the "Magdalen" of Henner, and a lady's portrait by Flameng. The two last are remarkable. Henner's "Magdalen" is a surprise to the eyesight, imposing on the view with a deceptive imitation of the aspects of human flesh, its softness, firmness, elasticity, and weight, and the warm vitality which stirs it by means of the circulation; it is, in short, a good definition of the term *morbidezza*. The portrait by F. Fleming, etched by the skilled hand of Léopold Fleming, is a hard, careful imitation of the famous portraits by Ingres. The subject-model is reduced to its essentials, almost in the generalizing way of an Egyptian statue; the face, seen exactly in front, so that just as much of one ear-lobe is given as of the other, seems—in this inexorable reproduction of its lowered black eyes and ivory skin—like a type of that penetrating Gaulish character which can never sympathize with the Saxon character; and which is fit to be either the prioress of a school of Druidesses, or the Countess Zicka of a Russian embassy, or the lady of a Paris counter, or the hostess of a salon, but which both lacks too much and has too much ever to learn the English word "home."

To conclude our notice, the present volume of *L'Art* bears honorable testimony to the generous zeal of its founders in setting on foot two important enterprises: one is the Museum of Decorative Art, in the Pavilion of Flora, first proposed in *L'Art* in August, 1876; the other is the Prize of Florence, founded by itself, maintaining a sculptor for two years in Florence, and just awarded to M. Beylard. To these may perhaps be added its generous support of the caricaturist Daumier, whom it has brought into prominence with pen and pencil, and whose pension, doubtless partly from this publicity, has been raised from 1,200 to 2,400 francs. These benefits, in addition to the grand prize invented by *L'Art* and awarded to Corot, form a handsome record of the public spirit shown by the journal during its comparatively short existence. As to the advance or decline of the journal in enterprise and merit, while we cannot say that it has improved of late, or even kept up the pace it held some time back, we can well bear testimony to its advanced position among modern periodicals of its kind.

German Classics, for American Students. Goethe's 'Faust.' Part I. Edited by J. M. Hart. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1878.)—This is the fourth volume of the series. The first was Goethe's 'Hermann und Dorothea,' the second Schiller's 'Piccolomini,' the third Goethe's 'Prose.' The first volume was open to a good deal of criticism; the second was a great improvement in its notes; the third was excellent, and this one leaves hardly anything to be wished for. The first part of 'Faust' is not read much in our colleges, to say nothing of Part II. The reason is, 'Faust' needs very careful and judicious editing, and this it has not had hitherto. Neither teacher nor scholar has had the means to interpret and appreciate 'Faust'; but we are getting here a series with which only Dr. Buchheim's in England, published by Macmillan, can compete.

Prof. Hart's introduction is very appropriate, and, considering the extent of Faust literature, it is to his credit that he did not make it longer than it is, and has crowded within about twenty-five pages the best and latest results of the investigations on the subject, down to Grimm's lectures on Goethe, and Düntzer's commentary (third edition), published only last year. This introduction, we venture to assert, will attract every reader of 'Faust' outside of the narrow circle of students. More than that, it ought to increase the number of Faust readers.

The text is Von Loeper's, from Hempel's German classics, and the best yet prepared. The continuous marginal numbering is a happy thought of the editor's. No German ever thought of it, and yet what can be more convenient in the classroom or out of it for citation? Two changes in spelling have been introduced, which are decided improvements. "Todt" is printed "tot," as it used to be and ought to be now. The two spellings "wohl" and "wol" the editor has made serve a good purpose, viz.: to distinguish meanings. When the word means 'well,' he prints "wohl"; when it means 'indeed, truly, perhaps,' he prints "wol." Though this distinction is not made by Germans, it would be an aid even to them, and certainly will be of great service to the foreigner, who finds much trouble in rendering the force of this adverb. The German "Dehnungs-h" is such an absurd letter that if any excuse can be found for retaining it the distinction here made certainly is one. We wish Mr. Hart had dropped the *h* after *t* all through this volume, as many novelists do.

The notes are as excellent as the introduction. Of course grammatical references and explanations, which are missed so much in 'Hermann und Dorothea,' no reader need expect to find. Any one who needs them in 'Faust' had better read Grimm's *Mährchen*. But archaisms, colloquialisms, certain licenses of speech and obscure allusions, receive full attention. The brief introductory remarks to each new scene are no small aids to "Orientirung." The reader of 'Faust' is dazzled by the diversity and contrast of scenes and characters, and these hints as to what may be expected are exceedingly welcome.

Thanatopsis. By William Cullen Bryant. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1878.)—The charm of "Thanatopsis" is as strong now as when it first became known to the world. Editions of it in all sorts of forms may be looked for to succeed one another in the market for small gift-books. This one, carefully printed on very heavy paper, and accompanied by wood-cuts (designed and engraved by W. J. Linton, with acknowledged indebtedness to David Scott, William Blake, and Isaac Taylor), with a pretty cover in brown and gold, will do as well as another. But the illustrations are so far inferior to what one expects of the well-known artist whose name is announced as their author that it seems there must be some unapparent difficulty in the way, some break in the chain of communication between the designer's mind and the disappointed beholder. The selection of quaint and weird compositions from the works of Scott and Blake has proved unfortunate, as might indeed have been anticipated, for the modifying of such out-of-the-way designs as these must generally fail. Given an art which is only redeemed from the charge of offensive oddity by a transcendental power within it, and any alteration of its productions tends to spoil them, the subtile element which makes their only value flying off, and nothing but the affectation, the want of simplicity, the rugged ugliness remaining. There is a pleasant sense of the twinkling of leaves in the cut bearing the inscription "Resolved to Earth again," and the little tail-piece at the close of the volume is graceful and pretty. There are evidences of a feeling for beauty of design in black and white, of great skill in the technical part of wood engraving, and of a certain facility in drawing; but, in spite of the readiness we may feel to find good in the book, the general result is feeble. It has to be relegated to the list of illustrated books of which no positive criticism is possible; a holiday picture-book and nothing more.

The Rag Fair and other Reveries. By L. Clarkson, author of 'Violet' and 'Gathering of the Lilies.' With illustrations by the Author. (Philadelphia: F. W. Robinson & Co. 1879.)—This is larger and more showy than most of the holiday books of the present year. It contains about forty quarto-sized leaves of thick paper printed on one side, many of the pages having text and designs mingled together, and printed on a gray tint. The opening lines of the first and longest poem may serve as a specimen of the whole:

> "I have read somewhere of a marvellous 'Rag Fair'
> For Spiritual Garments, to be found
> In some far, unknown region, on the bound
> Of this angel-forsaken Eden, where
> Our fall hath shamed our souls from standing bare
> Before the god of Self, wise in their sin;
> And so, for decency, we clothe them in
> Vestments of Earth which time filches away
> And keeps in hiding till some better day."

Perhaps worse passages than that might be selected. The verses called "Hades," being in simpler metre, may be less bad. The designs match the verses in being boundless in their scope, lofty in their aim, and absolutely *nil* in result. Nothing feebler is to be found away from the illustrated titles of popular songs; and this feebleness is employed in representing the mysteries and in dealing with the most solemn thoughts of life and of death. In most of the books of the holiday season there is something interesting and clever in the illustrations; it is worth while to compare one with another, and carefully, even the slighter and more ephemeral of them. But such comparison can only result in placing this book, considered as a body of art, in the lowest of all classes—that of the poor and pretentious.

A Hand-book of Nursing for Family and General Use. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1879. 12mo, pp. 266.)—This is a serviceable manual, published under direction of the Connecticut Training School for Nurses at New Haven. It comprises three parts; the first, on medical and surgical nursing, describes the more general duties of the nurse in the sick-room, with notes on the special features in the management of the fevers, of pneumonia, and of several of the more common diseases; the seventh chapter, in particular, on disinfection and communicable diseases, shows that the anonymous author is acquainted with the latest researches upon zymosis. The second part is a very full and lucid

series of "Directions for Monthly Nursing." The third is a brief résumé of the modern scientific doctrine respecting "Family Hygiene." The book is written in a singularly clear and direct style. Its fault is one which is almost inseparable from books of practical hygiene, namely, that the multiplication of rules declared vitally important—often, indeed, actually so—must prove almost intimidating to the nurse who has not an education in medicine. That will be, however, the defect of the education rather than of the book, which will serve a good purpose among both professional and amateur nurses.

La Tragédie Grecque. Par E. Ad. Chaignet. (Paris: Didier & Cie; New York: F. W. Christern. 1877. 12mo, pp. xliv. 372.)—M. Chaignet's book occupies intermediate ground between the text-book and the purely literary essay. As was to be expected from a professor at Poitiers and a correspondent of the Institute, what he undertakes to do he does well. He traces logically and lucidly the rise of the Greek drama, describes the Greek theatre and discusses the origin and use of the chorus—ground which has been preoccupied in English by Donaldson's 'Theatre of the Greeks,' but the difference in treatment and some new matter make the present volume a valuable auxiliary to that work. It contains three distinct divisions: 1. A history of Greek Tragedy, especially at Athens; 2. Chapters on Greek Tragedy in general, and its dramaturgy; 3. An interesting analysis of three typical characters—the Clytemnestra of Æschylus, the Antigone of Sophocles, and the Phædra of Euripides—which shows a keen and thoughtful mind of considerable range and freedom and a larger acquaintance with foreign drama than one might expect. It is worth while to note that M. Chaignet finds the Phèdre of Racine more pagan than the Phædra of Euripides. "Racine," he says, "is in art a pagan: Port Royal was not in error; if one wishes for Christian heroes it is in Corneille that they must be sought" (p. 358). It is interesting to observe the evidence he affords of the growth of the Shakspere cult in France. Some time ago M. Paul Lacroix declared that Molière was at least the equal of Shakspere, but many of his colleagues have already taken a more just view. Indeed one member of the Academy, M. Mezières, owes his elevation, if we mistake not, mainly to his studies of Shakspere and the Elizabethan writers. M. Chaignet cites Shakspere again and again to illustrate the great tragedy he is discussing, by contrasting the situations and characters. He finds, for example, somewhat fancifully and superficially we cannot help thinking, an analogy between the first scenes of "Hamlet" and the "Agamemnon," and compares the character of *Clytemnestra* at the end of the latter play with the character of *Macbeth* after he has ascended the throne. The utility of the book is increased by a chronological table of Greek tragedy, both in years B.C. and by Olympiads, and by a full index.

Children's Books.—'Kidnapping in the Pacific' (Routledge) will not enhance Mr. W. H. G. Kingston's reputation as a story-teller. In fact, the book has scarcely more title to be called a story than the returns of a Parliamentary inquest. It is instructive, no doubt, but it has neither plot nor action, and Boas Ringdon, the retired kidnapper, who describes the horrors of his late business, and even supplies most of the moralizing on his own infamy, is a poor disguise for a humanitarian statistical tract, based on the reports of H. M. cruisers in the South Seas. The tale is a dismal one, and no one will offer it to a child with a view to giving pleasure.

We are not altogether sure of the moral of 'Angelo, the Circus Boy,' by Frank Sewall (Philadelphia: Lippincott). At first we thought it was going to be the dangers of country life; afterwards it seemed to be: Abandon your mother at the point of death, run away and join a circus, with the encouragement of your future brother-in-law, and you will marry his long-lost sister and prosper. But it is not quite that, nor is it quite the moral of Dickens's 'Hard Times.' The circus is on the whole painted black enough to deter youthful readers from seeking ease or fame or a pure life in the ring; and, with a few exceptions, the story may be commended as well written, dramatic, and wholesome, and not violently improbable. Master Fred Caroline may be grudged the easy success accorded his coarse smartness, and the hero, Robbie Wildmay, will by good judges be thought incapable of having said at the age of fourteen or fifteen: "I have the legal right to apply to any court for protection against abuse, and to demand dissolution of the compact which binds me here."

The sombreness of "Edward Garrett's" 'Magic Flower-pot, and Other Stories' (Cassell, Petter & Galpin) prevents our recommending the book to happy households. The authoress has a favorite way of making her characters "found dead" the next morning, and when that has been tried three times, a fourth victim is left to die on a doorstep. The mania for moralizing has seldom been more strikingly exemplified than in 'The Last of the Corans,' which is built upon the old story of the waylaid traveller who puts the highwayman off his guard by pretending to see a confederate behind him. In the present case the squire kills his young grandson, who was trying his courage. Great stress is laid on the lie by which the former saved himself, as he supposed, but nothing is said of the lie acted by the counterfeit highwayman, and visited with a just penalty. The opening story, the "Magic Flower-pot," is skilful and effective, but a fine vestibule does not make a fine house.

Pictures from real life rather than stories compose the little volume by Mary Esther Miller called 'Brother Ben, and the Bird Summer' (Boston: Congregational Publishing Society). The scene in both narratives is the valley of the Connecticut near Northampton, and there are some excellent descriptions of country pleasures and excitement in that favored part of the world. The 'Bird Summer' aims to stimulate young readers to "name all the birds without a gun," and the instruction conveyed is pleasantly mingled with apt poetical selections. Emerson, Thoreau, Flagg, Burroughs, Wilson, Audubon, and other lovers of nature are among the desirable acquaintances thus made. We need say no more in praise of these unaffected pages.

The idea of 'Prang's Natural History Series for Children' (Boston) is a good one, and each of the six limp-covered parts before us is calculated to attract the eye and fix the mind of the boy or girl to whom it is offered. There is an order to them, but it is not indicated except in the text, so we name at random the Wading Birds, Swimming Birds, Scratching Birds, Birds of Prey, Cat Family, and Cow Family. The plan is to put one or more colored-lithographic figures on a page, and to describe them in story form, as if a family of children and their elders were actually inspecting them. The text is by Mr. Norman A. Calkins and Mrs. A. M. Diaz; the latter, we suppose, furnishing the "specific levity" which keeps up the interest. Readable it certainly is. The pictures are rather feebly drawn, but are fairly characteristic.

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Phelps (Prof. A.), Studies of the Old Testament	" " 1 25
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Thomson (J.), The Seasons	(Jas. Miller)
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Wilson (A.), Leisure-Time Studies	(R. Worthington) 3 50
Winter (W.), Edwin Booth's Prompt-books; Fool's Revenge; Katharine and Petruchio.	(Lee & Shepard) 50

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 19, 1878.

The Week.

THE short session has had at least the good effect of hastening the appropriation bills. To those already passed by the House the Pension Bill was added on Thursday, and the Postal-Car Deficiency Bill on Tuesday, while the Senate has passed with amendments the Military Academy and the Fortification and Diplomatic appropriation bills. On Wednesday week the House passed by 139 to 101 Mr. Reagan's bill to regulate inter-State commerce. More than three-fourths of the yeas came from Southern and Western members; but parties and sections were both divided on this vote. On Thursday and again on Saturday the Geneva Award Bill was discussed. On Friday Fernando Wood succeeded in getting passed a resolution of enquiry into the alleged outrages committed in this city by Commissioner Davenport at the late election by illegal arrests, imprisonments, "indignity, insult, and intimidation." On Monday Mr. Chalmers, Representative of the river district of Mississippi, failed to suspend the rules in order to pass a vaguely-worded bill punishing Federal officers for interfering with the election of members of Congress or of President by bribery, or "by use or abuse of official privilege, or by threats, *influence*, etc."! Mr. Blaine's speech on his resolution of enquiry into the Southern electoral outrages was tamely delivered on Wednesday week, and could not excite an even interesting debate then or on Tuesday, when the resolution was passed with important extensions and modifications, and with a transfer from the Judiciary Committee to a select committee—a sensible move, of Mr. Conkling's proposing, who has no idea of serving in the investigation; but, for that matter, neither has Mr. Blaine, who makes haste to waive the chairmanship, by duty his as well as by usage, and so adds the finishing touch to the humor of his "great effort." The Edmunds Electoral-Count Bill passed the Senate on Friday by 35 to 26, the yeas including Judge Davis, and three Southerners and Democrats, Senators Bayard, of Delaware; Merrimon, of North Carolina; and Morgan, of Alabama.

Mr. Blaine's speech was generally disappointing. The audience, which was large, had assembled in expectation of a burst of impassioned invective, to be probably followed by an old-fashioned row with the Southerners, and were treated to a short essay not unlike, both in substance and dimensions, an average editorial article on the South in a country paper, and which he read aloud. His thesis was that the failure of the Constitutional Amendments to give the negro vote to the Republicans is an unendurable wrong. The efforts of the *Times* and *Tribune*, and particularly of the former, to make the delivery of the speech appear a great occasion, have been a curious display of journalistic energy. The speech only occupied two columns of the *Times*, but the introductory description of the scene in the Senate occupied just as much, and was modelled on Macaulay's account of the opening of the Warren Hastings trial. The quality of the rhetoric and the spirit in which the subject was treated may be inferred from the passage in which Mr. Blaine compares the Southern negro "to those unhappy captives in the East who, deprived of their birthright, are compelled to yield their strength to the upbuilding of the monarch from whose tyrannies they have most to fear, and to fight against the power from which alone deliverance might have been expected." Unless we are greatly mistaken, no human power will induce Mr. Blaine to say who are "the unhappy captives" in the East, and who the brutal monarch.

The speech has apparently fallen very flat, and is praised by the "Stalwart" press in a very hollow, perfunctory way. The *Times* mentions with unconscious humor that Mr. Blaine "barely noticed the rudimentary facts of the case"—the "rudimentary facts" being really the whole case. Without them there is nothing left but rudimentary fustian, and it was a great mistake not to give his whole time to them. The story that Messrs. Edmunds and Conkling purposely avoided listening to him, the latter's pen "going scratch, scratch, scratch" the whole time, has been indignantly contradicted by those gentlemen. If Mr. Conkling had not been correcting a proof he would have drunk in every word. The replies of Messrs. Thurman and Lamar did not rise much above the level of the attack, and there was one bout of repartee between Mr. Thurman and Mr. Blaine which was at least not worthy of the Senate.

Mr. Edmunds's Electoral-Count Bill was passed in the Senate on Friday by a fair majority, after an able speech in its favor by Mr. Bayard. Doubts are entertained, however, whether it will be equally fortunate in the House, owing to Democratic opposition, though why the Democrats should oppose it, seeing that they will have the control in both Houses under any circumstances, it would puzzle the keenest observer to explain. The most probable hypothesis is that as they know they will have the power in their own hands at the next election, they prefer not to tie themselves up by any hard-and-fast rule, and to take the chances of any scrimmage that may arise. Among a great many of the baser sort, too, there is a strong desire for revenge for the "eight-to-seven" catastrophe, and they are not only not particular how they get it, but would, on the whole, like to get it through a smart dodge of some kind. The feeling of having been frequently "euchred" of late indeed pervades the whole party, and has not had a strengthening effect on its morals any more than a sweetening effect on its temper. The Brooklyn *Eagle* confirms this view by declaring that the bill will fail in the House because it proposes to provide remedies for evils which grew out of an abnormal political situation—that is, the carpet-bag régime at the South—and as this has passed away there is no need of the remedies. The majority in the House will not adopt it because they think "a redress of the fraud of two years ago first in order"—whatever this may mean.

Mr. Reagan's bill to regulate inter-state commerce is, except Mr. Edmunds's Electoral Bill, the most important measure now before Congress, and will, if enacted, have, whether for good or ill, a very marked effect both on trade and transportation. On Wednesday week Mr. Reagan introduced a substitute for his original bill, containing several important changes, and the main question was ordered on it, one hour being allowed for debate. Most of this hour was filled by Mr. Reagan himself, and he then allowed *three* minutes to Mr. Potter, of New York, to state his objections to it. Thirty minutes more were subsequently conceded for the discussion, and then the vote was taken. After this it will hardly be believed, but is nevertheless true, that the bill prohibits railroads engaged in transportation from one State or Territory to or through another, or to a foreign country, from making "special rates" for freight to any person whatsoever, and from carrying goods for a long distance at any less rate than for a short distance, or carrying one hundred car-loads at any less rate than one car-load. The effect of this would be, first, to take away from the States an important part of their control over their respective railroads; secondly, to make a beginning by Congress of interference with the manner of carrying on a huge branch of the national industry, and this after ninety minutes' debate; thirdly, to deprive the Western producers of the cheap access to their principal market which they now enjoy; fourthly, to make it impossible for the railroads to adapt their rates from time to time to the prices of produce in Liverpool and London; and fifthly, to bring all the lobbying powers of the corporations to bear

on Congress to bring about fresh regulation every session, adding one more to the existing sources of "influence" and corruption. There are plenty of abuses in the management of the great freight lines which need correction, and some of them are within the reach of legislation; but they can only be properly dealt with after careful enquiry and by a body of experts.

Mr. Buckner's heroic treatment of the silver difficulty is in striking contrast with that proposed by M. Cernuschi, of which account is given in another part of this paper. The American statesman (chairman of the Banking and Currency Committee) proposes to raise the level of silver by draining off the European surplus—to coin silver without restriction in America till its equivalence with gold is restored. His bill for that purpose lately introduced into Congress will give great comfort to Mr. Goschen and the India Board, and will rejoice the heart of M. Léon Say. Like the giant who attempted to reduce his enemy's castle by drinking the moat dry, he may burst in the attempt, but his heroism will certainly entitle him to a martyr's crown—of silver. This is one of the cases where extreme measures meet: M. Cernuschi proposing to starve England into submission, by drawing away her gold and by refusing to take any of her silver, and Mr. Buckner aiming to accomplish the same result of practical bi-metallism by taking all her silver and giving her all our gold. M. Cernuschi's plan looks to the ultimate forcing of his favorite panacea upon all nations. Mr. Buckner's might possibly accomplish Mr. Goschen's ideal of a community of states each adopting a single standard, but part of them gold and part of them silver, the one to balance the other. M. de Laveleye has lately pointed out a fatal weakness in Mr. Goschen's plan, in that it leaves no meeting ground or point of exchange between silver and gold. France used to furnish such a meeting ground, and the Paris mint turned silver into gold or gold into silver as the exigencies of commerce might require. Under the new Latin Treaty, however, its crucibles will be idle for that purpose for seven years to come, unless again set at work by the common consent of the treaty powers. So long as M. Frère-Orban remains Prime Minister of Belgium, and M. Feer-Herzog continues to represent Switzerland in the conferences, that consent is not likely to be obtained.

The Silver Commission have made their report. It relates that only three delegations, and these not representing populous states, advocated mono-metallism in the sense of the Conference of 1867; that the position of England was peculiar, inasmuch as the chairman of her delegation declared that universal gold mono-metallism was utopian, and that the rejection of silver by every state would prove disastrous in its consequences. Switzerland and Belgium were hostile to bi-metallism, and the attitude of Belgium, which has hitherto been bi-metallic, was "disappointing" to the Commission, and its defection proved a serious obstacle in their way, both by its direct vote and its influence on France, which was afraid to drive any member of the Latin Union into revolt. The Commission express in strong terms their condemnation of any scheme for increasing the pressure of existing debts by diminishing the amount of the precious metals in which they may be paid, and maintain that the resumption of specie payments by the countries now in suspension would be greatly facilitated by the retention of silver. They confess that they were placed at a disadvantage in the Conference by the belief of the other delegates that the United States had silver to sell, and they conclude by acknowledging that they did not find much support in the other delegations for the theory of the practicability of "a concurrent circulation of the two metals in the same country," or find any of them willing to recommend the experiment to their own governments. The fact is, we presume, that there was a great deal of human nature in the Conference, and each country wanted its neighbors to take the silver and let it have the gold; but then this was well known and freely pointed out before the Commission was created, but there was so much shouting and vituperation that the voice of reason and common sense could not make itself heard.

The situation, so far as the resumption of specie payments by the Treasury is concerned, has greatly improved during the week. Gold sold on Tuesday at 100. The speculators in Wall Street who had bought, according to common understanding, about $10,000,000 of gold, have been selling it out again, having failed to find banks that would give them the necessary facilities for handling the gold. As the only trouble that was expected outside of Congress, which is soon to adjourn until after the day for resumption, was from these speculators, their apparent abandonment of their purpose has done much to give confidence where it was needed. It is true that a considerable amount of foreign capital has been invested in bills on London, and will remain in these bills, or in some other form in London, during the first few weeks of specie payments here. These purchases of bills have advanced the rates for sterling until demand drafts are within a point and a half of the specie-exporting point. Bankers here show no concern about this advance, and do not think that exchange on London will advance to the specie-exporting point. It may be said that the financial condition of our Treasury, the condition of our foreign trade, the attitude of the banks, and public opinion are all in favor of the successful beginning of specie-payments, and of their maintenance until enough silver dollars are coined and put into circulation to create a difference in the market between the gold dollar and the silver dollar. This will probably be months hence, but is likely to occur before the end of the year 1879. The market for silver bullion has been heavy during the week; the closing price in London was 50*d.* per oz., and the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar here at the close of the week was $0.8469.

The conflict between the British Ministry and the Opposition continues to be unusually fierce and bitter. As usual, the Liberals have been beaten in both Houses, though in the Commons by a reduced majority; but for this they were prepared, as since the passage of the Reform Bill there has been no such compact and impervious majority as the Cabinet holds in the Commons. The war is accordingly carried on with great violence in the newspapers, and Lord Northbrook, the late Viceroy of India, and the Duke of Argyll have both published in the morning papers attacks on Lord Cranbrook's late despatch, giving a résumé of the relations of the Indian Government with the Amir of Afghanistan since 1863. The Duke of Argyll denounces it in almost unmeasured language, and in a roundabout way makes the charge of falsehood which has so often been brought against the Beaconsfield Cabinet. The *Economist* confesses that it is only too well founded, and it begins to be said, even by cool men, that if the Ministers do not restrain themselves the reputation of English public men for common truthfulness will be frittered away. The precise point against Lord Cranbrook is that he slurs over a telegram of Lord Northbrook's and a despatch of the Gladstone Ministry in such a way as to make it appear that when the Amir applied for protection against Russia after the fall of Khiva it was flatly denied him, whereas the despatch and the Viceroy's subsequent reply show that it was promised him, with the reservation that the British Government would itself judge whether the time had come to afford him armed assistance.

In the debate in the Lords, Lord Cranbrook was assailed by Lord Northbrook himself in a cruel manner, and almost made to confess that he had been guilty of perversion. But the exposure of the Marquis of Salisbury was something worse still, worse even than the equivocation about the Shuvaloff Memorandum. Lord Northbrook asked him how he came to say in June, 1877, that there had been no change in the Afghan policy of the Government, and none in its relations with the Amir, and no "reason for any apprehension as to a change of policy," when, as the papers showed, a rupture with the Amir had at that moment actually occurred. To this Lord Salisbury replied that what he meant was that the relations of the Government with the little Khanate of Khelat were unchanged. This appears to be generally acknowledged to be worse than anything that has yet occurred in the history of this singular Minis-

try, and has led the usually decorous *Spectator* to accuse the Foreign Secretary of "fibbing."

At this writing the Commons are debating the resolution of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, charging the cost of the war, $100,000,000 probably, to India, which is already on the verge of bankruptcy. This is a crucial matter with the Ministry, because they dare not face English constituencies with fresh burdens in the present condition of trade and industry, and the Liberals resist on the ground mainly that to allow them to charge India with the cost of a war entered on without consulting Parliament would be virtually to release their foreign policy from parliamentary control altogether. They might fight in Asia Minor in defence of their friends the Turks, and charge it to India. Notice was given of a motion for a grant in aid of the Mussulman refugees in the Rhodope district, but this was withdrawn in view of the Liberal opposition. The report of the Commission about these refugees is believed to be of questionable accuracy, and to have been compiled in the Turkish interest, and then it is felt that there would be a great deal of mockery of a cruel kind in voting money for Turkish fugitives in the present condition of English operatives. A curious prophecy of the late Mr. Bagehot, written in 1874, has been published, in which he predicts a long tenure of office for the Conservatives, owing to the entrance on the scene of a generation which does not know all the Liberals have done for the country, and wants to rest and enjoy its wealth. But he did not believe that the Conservatives would be led by Lord Beaconsfield, for whom he expresses the feeling of contempt current with regard to that personage before the Turco-Russian war, holding him to be an elderly novelist with no capacity for business, or for anything else but the manufacture of stinging epigrams.

In Afghanistan nothing notable has occurred, but the early occupation of Jalalabad is assured by an embassy of officials from that city to Dakka offering their persons and services to General Browne, and, as is reported, urging him to go to Cabul and quell the anarchy there by setting up a new government. The Amir is said to be craving peace through Major Cavagnari at the same time that Candahar is being reinforced from Herat and by Turcoman cavalry. General Roberts has made a gratifying reconnoissance to the Shutargardan Pass, which he found undefended and the country friendly. Surmounting this he would be able to cut the communication between Cabul and Ghazni. He is still fortifying the Peiwar Camp, however, and had trouble in his rear on Sunday, when a convoy was attacked with some loss by "a predatory tribe."

Since the assembling of the Austrian and Hungarian delegations at Pesth, almost simultaneously with the opening of the new Hungarian Diet, Count Andrássy has been passing through a double parliamentary ordeal. In the Diet the brunt of the attacks on his policy has been borne by the President of the Hungarian Ministry, M. Tisza, who, with his associates, has had to combat not only various proposed addresses to the Crown, severely censuring the action of both the Hungarian and the Common Cabinet in reference to the Bosnian campaign and what preceded it, but also to face a proposed resolution of impeachment for illegal support given to that unpopular enterprise. In the Delegations Andrássy himself has had to explain and defend what, to his embarrassment, can be explained only with great diplomatic reserve, and defended only on the plea of fatality. This unpleasant kind of work he has done with wonted dexterity, repeatedly speaking in both delegations. On the situation in general we shall comment at length next week. Its latest phase, as shown by telegrams of December 15, is still indicative of contest, the Austrian delegation, unlike the Hungarian, stubbornly opposing almost every further step suggested by the Government in matters connected with the army. Fortunately for Andrássy, the adverse majority in the Austrian delegation is much smaller than the favorable one in the Hungarian; the Vienna Reichsrath is momentarily inactive, Bosnia pacified, a part of the army of occupation withdrawn, and an Austro-Turkish convention—as M. Waddington has just declared in the French Senate—on the point of being concluded.

The Italian Parliament opened on the 21st of November, while the feeling excited by the attempted assassination of the King was still fresh. Signor Cairoli was prevented by his wound from attending, and the opening address was made by his colleague, Zanardelli. His brief remarks, in spite of their allusions to the King's narrow escape, were greeted with the utmost coldness, while the President of the House received by pointed contrast the most lively applause for his allusions to the same event. It was clear that the days of the Ministry were numbered. By adjournment and delays, due to the reluctance of the Minister of the Interior to meet interpellations alone without his chief, the crisis was put off till Wednesday of last week, when the House rejected an order of the day expressing the confidence of Parliament in the Ministry's ability to maintain order with liberty. The majority was heavy, 257 to 185. The King, partly from personal liking, as would appear, and partly from gratitude to his late rescuer, endeavored to persuade Cairoli to reform his Cabinet, but Cairoli declined, and the latest news is that a new Ministry has been undertaken by Signor Depretis, the most moderate of the three leaders of the Left.

The Republicans in France are apparently suffering from one of the not infrequent consequences of a complete victory. The courts are largely filled with judges who were appointed under the Empire, or by the Conservatives since 1870, and whose political sympathies are not with the Republic, and this in France is a more serious matter than it would be here, as the judicial discretion is wide, and the public is used to considering the judge a semi-executive officer. The spectacle of Government defeats in the courts is, therefore, not uncommon, and to the more hot-headed Republicans looks scandalous. They have, therefore, been for some time pressing for a thorough purging of the bench, and the relegation of its Conservative members to "disponibilité." This would, however, do so much to alarm the quiet people in the provinces, by the support it would give to the Conservative theory that the Republic is only the first stage on the road to the guillotine and anarchy, that M. Dufaure, who is an old and shrewd politician as well as able lawyer, has been strenuously resisting it, and pursuing the policy of making the required changes slowly and carefully. It is now reported from Paris, however, that the Left is disposed to overrule him, and that he will be compelled to resign, and will be followed by M. Waddington, who lost some credit by the Treaty of Berlin, and does not take an active enough part in home politics to please the managers. There is some prospect of trouble between the Assembly and the Senate, the latter having added to the appropriations $40,000 for aged priests, which the Assembly had struck out.

The situation is aggravated, if not created, by the anomalous management of the Republican party. If M. Dufaure were, as he ought to be and as the Constitution assumes that he is, the leader of the party, all would be plain sailing, for he would be able to impose his judgment on his followers, and they would have to submit to it on pain of total disorganization and loss of power. But the real leader is M. Gambetta, who holds no office at all and to whom the rank and file look for guidance, and who—and this is the worst of it—dares not take office as yet, even if the President were willing to accept of him, because the country is not yet prepared for him. The consequence is that the Cabinet act in some sort as Gambetta's deputies, and are forced to obey him and dare not appeal to the country against him; and he, in spite of the remarkable moderation he has shown since the war, is not a patient or altogether prudent man, as his quarrel with M. Fourtou shows. His feelings toward the authors of the late reactionary attempts, and towards their judicial abettors too, are naturally bitter. Dufaure's resignation would certainly rouse the hopes of the Monarchists once more.

MR. BLAINE'S GRIEVANCE.

MR. BLAINE'S speech on Wednesday week in the Senate had at least the merit of bringing out the true nature of the Southern difficulty as it lies in the mind of that section of the Republican party known as "Stalwarts." He was not able to say how much cheating or intimidating there had been at the South, or whether the repetition of it was preventable, or if it was, by what means. The resolutions he moved called for enquiry on these subjects, showing that he had no facts, or not sufficient facts, at his command to warrant any definite proposal or suggestion. He therefore addressed himself to a matter on which there could be no difference of opinion, namely, the circumstance that the Republican party derives little or no support at the polls from the votes of the Southern negroes, or, as he puts it, that although the South has received an accession of thirty-five representatives in Congress, owing to the addition of the enfranchised negroes to the basis of representation, no benefit has accrued to the Republican party; the Democrats and the Democrats only are the stronger for the change. In the presence of this fact, which to him, as to all Republican politicians, is, of course, most exasperating, no improvement in the material or moral condition of the blacks at the South apparently has much value. Arguing from the premise that every negro is a Republican, and considers the opportunity of voting the Republican ticket the dearest of earthly blessings, he concludes that the non-appearance of Republican members of Congress from the South indicates a vast body of silent mental suffering among the black population for which no security of person or property can compensate. He assumes, too, that it was in some manner understood in the compact by which the Southern States were restored to their places in the Union that the negroes should always vote the Republican ticket, and that their failure to do so is evidence of a breach of faith on the part of the whites toward their Northern brethren which calls for constant protest and censure. It is this view which has for some years really prompted and supported the denunciations of the South in which a portion of the Republican party has indulged, but it was covered up by that profession of anxiety about the negro's personal safety which is known as "waving the bloody shirt." Since Mr. Hayes's election the outrages which furnished the materials for the "bloody-shirt" agitation, and which the carpet-baggers in part furnished by failing to execute the laws, have ceased; and the signs of the rapid social advancement of the colored population can no longer be denied. Mr. Blaine has thus been forced to take the bull by the horns, and confess that in his opinion, and that of his followers, the chief object of the Constitutional Amendments and the Reconstruction Acts was not so much the elevation of the black race as the maintenance of the Republican party in power.

Now, the truth is that the original object of the bestowal of the suffrage on the blacks as a condition of reconstruction was the protection of their persons and property against local aggression. This feature of reconstruction was devised as the best practical mode of meeting schemes like the Black Code and Labor Acts of South Carolina and Mississippi, by which the negro would have been reduced to a condition of serfdom, and by which the North was justly alarmed at the close of the war. It was intended, in other words, to give the freedmen an opportunity to make their first step in civilization, by securing to them, in default of a Federal police, the equal protection of the local laws. As such it was strenuously supported in these columns. The notion that it was also intended to secure a perpetual negro vote for the Republican party, and to keep the two races arrayed in hostile political camps for an indefinite period, was a later invention of a lower type of politicians than those who brought about emancipation. The aim of the authors of the suffrage plan was a very noble and legitimate one; and, dangerous as it seemed at the time, it has more than fulfilled their expectations. It has given the negroes what they hoped it would give them, peace and security, freedom of locomotion and of contract, education for their children, and the chance of acquiring property by industry. No one can deny this. The condition of the South to-day is, to any one who can recall the anticipations of 1866, a wonderful spectacle, a prodigious conquest of civilization over barbarism. Had an educational test been attached to the franchise—something for which we also contended at the time—the experiment would have been saved some serious derangements, such as the descent of the carpet-baggers on the ignorant voters, and the resulting sullen resistance of the whites, known as the "Ku-klux" operations. But even this has done no permanent damage, and the great venture has succeeded in a way over which all honest and patriotic men must rejoice and give thanks.

In proof and illustration of this view of the object of the Reconstruction Act, and of the anticipations of the sober portion of the Republican party as to the probable political results of the acquisition of the franchise by the negroes, we may be allowed to quote from the leading article in the *Nation* of November 29, 1866:

"While acknowledging, however, that the bestowal of the franchise on the blacks, ignorant or degraded though many of them may be, would provide them with that security which is the basis of all progress and civilization, we think the notion that it would of itself do much more than this—that it would protect our Government or our credit against assaults in the forum at the hands of those whom we have defeated on the field—is a delusion; and we are satisfied that, if acted on in settling the question of reconstruction, our children's children will find abundant reason to mourn over it. Long advocacy of the claims of the negro to the common rights of humanity, and long resistance to the base attempts which have been made for centuries, and are still made, to place him not only lowest in the scale of humanity, but even below it altogether, have not unnaturally begotten in the minds of many of his friends a tendency to rate him even higher than the average of other races, to treat him as an exception to the rules by which other races are governed, and to affirm his ability to resist influences under which white men have succumbed. We see this now in some of the arguments put forward in defence of negro suffrage. The franchise is constantly spoken of as if, in the hands of the negro, it would possess an occult power of some kind, like a talisman, that would enable the most ignorant and benighted black to do with it what no ignorant or benighted white has ever succeeded in doing. It is treated, in short, to use a well-known simile, as if, in the hands of the blacks, it would be a crossbow from which the weakest can send a bolt as far as the strongest, while it is acknowledged in the same breath that in the hands of a man of any other race it is an ordinary bow, from which the flight of the arrow is regulated by the strength of the arm that has pulled the string.

"Now, we maintain that the ballot will do for the negro what it does for the poor, ignorant Irishman, or German, or Englishman, but no more. It will secure him against flagrant class legislation, or cruel or unusual punishments, and against all oppression which is on its face oppressive. It will do more than this; it will cause politicians and public men—sheriffs, policemen, and the whole race of functionaries, actual and expectant—to treat him with civility, even with deference. It will put a stop to outrages and assaults of various kinds on negroes, and to all open expressions of contempt for them or dislike of them. They would have it in their power to inflict so much injury on their open enemies, in one way or another, that it would become the habit even of good society to be careful about reviling them. And it would have the effect of raising them in their own estimation, of giving them a sense of their manhood, of their importance as members of civilized society; and although we admit that they would not for some time possess this sense in a very high degree, they would acquire it, and in acquiring it make an immense step in advance along the path of civilization.

"But more than this the ballot will not do for the negro. It will not make him a good judge of the value or importance of measures not bearing directly and patently on his personal comfort or convenience; it will not enable him to tell the difference between statesmen and demagogues, between honest public men and knavish public men, between his own real friends and his real enemies; to distinguish laws contrived by scoundrels for his spoliation, under a show of immediate benefit, and schemes contrived by statesmen for his permanent advantage, though entailing temporary inconvenience; and it will give him no sense whatever of the importance of the public credit or of the sacredness of national pledges. This sense is one of the last results of political and moral training. Moreover, to maintain that the ballot alone would do all these things for him, would be not simply to fly in the face of all history, of all our own experience of human nature, but of the very doctrine which has been preached from the earliest period down to the year 1864 as the very foundation of our political system—the doctrine that democratic institutions must rest on education. The doctrine of the all-sufficiency of the ballot was invented last year, and until we hear something better in its defence than mere declamation, we must regard 'universal suffrage and universal amnesty' as a mere quack remedy, most of the virtue of which, like some of the popular 'bitters' and pills, lies in the sound of the name. 'Universal suffrage' has been tried at the North, we think, with eminent success; but it has nowhere produced the effects which some people expect it to produce at the South unless when coupled with education. The interest of the poor whites of the slave States has always been opposed to that of the great planters, and there was not a very cordial feeling between them either, and yet that did not prevent the slaveholders from dragging the poor whites to the polls, year after year, to vote for their

own degradation, and from finally dragging them into a bloody war for the maintenance of an institution in which they had no sort of interest. We all acknowledged, until very recently, that in this instance, at least, the ballot of itself did not preserve men even of our own race—the only race, be it remembered, which has long succeeded in maintaining popular institutions—from being made the instrument of their own oppression."

. . . . . .

"In short, we might go over the whole Union, county by county, and show that the ballot in the hands of an untaught population furnishes no protection whatever even against the worst enemies of the electors, those who make a trade of cheating them with flattery and falsehood. It secures voters against personal outrage, but it does not always secure them even the means of learning—schools were almost forced upon the ignorant counties of Pennsylvania—and it does not secure them against the wiles of demagogues.

"Now, if we absolve the Southern leaders from all their sins, and arm the blacks with the ballot, the first result will be that the persecution of the freedmen will instantly cease. So far, so good. But at the same time the Southern politicians will go to work diligently to cultivate the good-will of the negroes—to practise on their prejudices, on their ignorance, on their weaknesses of all kinds. At this game they will certainly beat all competitors. They will be on the spot, at every tavern, at every cross-road, on every plantation, bringing to bear on a population bound to them by various sorts of ties all the arts of the most adroit and accomplished canvassers. They have the leisure, the training, and the experience necessary for the work, and will do it thoroughly. Our orators will not go down to contend with them. Probably their lives would not be safe if they did. By way of counteracting their schemes and keeping alive the fidelity of the freedmen to the Union and to liberty we shall deliver lectures at lyceums in New England and the Northwest, stirring harangues at the Cooper Institute, New York, and publish ardent editorials in the *Tribune* and *Independent*, which half a million of Northern whites will read, but never a Southern black. Does any calm and candid observer suppose that after five years of this sort of régime we should not have completely lost the new constituency we are now calling into existence, that the negroes would not be driven into the Southern net just as completely as the ignorant whites of the South and the ignorant Irish of the North have been?"

There remains only one thing more to be said, but it addresses itself to those Southerners who are now so much impressed with the danger and disgrace of the rule of ignorant majorities that they are ready to wink even at crime as a means of escape from it. We can say it with the better grace because we were, we believe, the first Northern journal to call attention to the nature of the yoke imposed on them at the close of the war, and have never failed, during the last ten eventful years, to protest against the policy of using their social system as a *corpus vile* for the trial of experiments which no community at the North would tolerate for an hour. If Southerners are afraid of ignorant majorities, as they say they are, and as in their condition in some States they have reason to be, nothing can be more short-sighted or inconsistent than trying to restrict the suffrage by such weapons of barbarism as fraud and violence. If the intelligent and property-owning class in that region has the power to protect itself in this way it has the power also to protect itself in a more excellent way, and at the same time help to hold up the hands of the friends of pure government all over the country, by imposing tests which the dangerous class could not meet, and the operation of which would every year diminish its numbers. We mean the exaction either of a tax-paying or an educational qualification. The Constitutional Amendments do not prohibit this, and in the Southern States there is now an opportunity of resorting to it which does not exist in any other part of the country, and it would be no more likely to entail a restriction of representation there than it is in Massachusetts. This mode of keeping society on its base would have the sympathy, secret or open, of a large body of persons at the North, who already share the Southern dread of the working of a civilized government by the agents or leaders of an ignorant majority, and it would operate as a stimulus of the most powerful kind in bringing the negroes into the arena of real politics—that is, in destroying the brute vote, a vote which is cast, canine fashion, under the influence of mere fear or hate, or for an immediate reward. Such scenes as occurred at the municipal election in Augusta, Georgia, the other day, when negro voters were bought up at the polls "at prices varying from a glass of whiskey to fifty cents," nobody in any part of the country is interested in perpetuating; but, on the other hand, every man who cares for the country or the Government is interested in seeing that the escape from such evils is effected by thoughtful legislation, and not by opposing corruption to corruption, and ruffianism to ruffianism.

EUROPE'S REBUFF TO THE SILVER PARTY.

THE silver legislation of last winter is reaping its fruits as rapidly as the most ardent opponent of the double standard could desire. Only a few millions of the new silver dollars have been coined, and they are already discredited and find their way back to the Treasury as fast as they are issued. The measures adopted by the banks of the city of New York to prevent an accumulation of them in their vaults have already been discussed in these columns. Precisely what has happened was predicted before the Silver Bill passed. It was an attempt, by the independent action of the United States, to force a result which, if attainable at all, could only be reached by the concurrent action of many leading commercial states. The *Nation* has steadily avowed its want of faith in the possibility of establishing a bi-metallic system which should be capable of holding silver and gold in a permanent relation to each other. Whether right or wrong in this assumption, the truth is being rapidly established that no one nation can do it, and that the United States, in its arrogant attempt to set itself up as an independent monetary power, and to ignore the influence of foreign countries and of their monetary systems upon its own, is certain to be the victim of its own folly.

The best friends of the bi-metallic system protested, from first to last, against committing this country to the remonetization of silver until terms had been made with European nations by which they should bind themselves to a common monetary policy. The United States occupied the vantage ground. It had not resumed specie payments, but it had pledged itself to do so, and had the resources at command which rendered resumption possible. When the Italian Chambers, in 1874, instructed Signor Minghetti to bring in a bill for the resumption of specie payments, that sagacious minister replied that it needed something more than legislation to bring a nation which could not balance its budget back from irredeemable paper money to a currency based on the precious metals. In like manner, Max Wirth, the economist and journalist of Vienna, in an article on the finances of Austria, in 1876, spoke of the enviable position of the United States—a country which, in contrast with Austria and Italy, had a surplus revenue by means of which it might, whenever it pleased, bridge the gulf between legal-tender paper and gold.

Standing on this commanding ground, the United States had its choice of monetary systems. A favorable balance of trade gave it the power to draw capital from Europe, and made it certain that within a short period the stock of its Federal obligations held there would be exhausted, and it might thereafter draw gold, which was then its standard money. It was well understood that England deprecated and feared any new demand for gold. The *Economist*, in January, 1875, in reviewing the subject of gold supply, had stated that "the supply has been obviously stinted everywhere, and there can be no stock in any quarter to draw upon." Estimating the available annual increase at only £15,000,000, it showed that England, France, and other countries which England coins for, required annually £18,000,000. "How is the amount to be supplied, even without an extra demand for Germany, and without any resumption of specie payment in the United States? At some point or other, we venture to say, the pressure in the money market must again become severe, or one of the great gold-using countries must abandon its standard, or the supply from the mines must be increased; and the chances, we fear, are altogether against the concurrence of either of the two latter alternatives." What Mr. Bagehot, in short, predicted was, that if the United States resumed on a gold basis either a new and prolonged crisis would occur, with the shrinkage of prices and aggravation of debts which a gold famine would necessarily cause, or the abandonment of its standard by one of the great gold-using countries. There are but two such countries in Europe—England and Germany—and the *Economist* justly feared that neither of these would willingly abandon its standard.

In a very recent number, in speaking of the gold discoveries in India, the *Economist* said:

"There is, no doubt, at present a gold scarcity. The world's gold produce has not been increasing of late, while the demand for gold has become much greater in consequence of currency changes. Any fresh discovery of gold in quantities sufficient to influence the relations between the supply and demand must, therefore, have an important and, on the whole, beneficial influence on the money markets of the world."

Knowing these facts, the United States was in a position to dictate a policy to Europe. Opinions will widely differ as to what that policy should have been. Those who believe that a gold standard should be maintained at all hazards will say the United States should not have legislated at all, but have rested on the Coinage Act of 1873; those, on the other hand, who only desire that the United States shall use the common money of civilized nations, but are indifferent whether that money be composed of one metal of unlimited tender, or of two, would have been content with any international agreement which embraced the principal commercial countries. If a conference had been invited before the Silver Bill passed, the United States might have said: "We are now prepared to resume specie payments; we have the gold standard, but very few coins; if we resume on that standard we shall demand and take our share of the gold of the world; you have expressed fears that there is not gold enough to supply our wants in addition to those of Germany; it may prove to be so; if, therefore, you desire to make a greater use of silver in order to relieve the scarcity of gold, we are ready to listen to any suggestions looking to a common agreement in that direction." The American Commissioners might have said this and no more, leaving France and the Latin Union to advocate their bi-metallic system; leaving Italy and Austria to point out the added difficulties which those countries would have to encounter in returning to metallic money on a gold standard; leaving Holland to reiterate the often-expressed conviction of her legislature and of her great bankers, that silver ought not to be demonetized; or they might have openly and safely avowed a preference for the bi-metallic system. As the largest producer of silver, they had a distinct and legitimate interest in so doing.

This priceless opportunity has been thrown away, and Europe is making the best use it can of the American mistake. The International Conference has been held, and the American Commissioners have just rendered to Congress a report of their fruitless embassy. Prof. Walker and Mr. Dana Horton presented, no doubt with characteristic learning and ability, the arguments in favor of bi-metallic money. They were listened to politely, but they made no impression; they appeared as advocates at the bar, and not as members of a deliberative assembly. The United States had finished its deliberations and recorded its decision. When the time came for the invited nations to deliberate, they did not ask the American Commissioners to join them. They retired alone and agreed upon their answer. M. Cernuschi is indignant at this seeming discourtesy. "Strange procedure!" he says. "From 1865 to 1876 five monetary conferences have been held at Paris; one international in 1867, four special ones for the Latin Union in 1865, 1874, 1875, and 1876. In all these conferences the states represented have always voted all together, and the authors of the propositions submitted to vote were never deprived of the right of voting on them." But was it, after all, a discourtesy? In the other cases mentioned the countries represented had not decided first and invited a conference afterwards. The precipitate action of the United States was met just as might have been expected, and as had been predicted by those who desired an antecedent conference. This country had restored silver (we may fairly say, had adopted the silver standard), and had thus relieved the European situation. England was relieved, for there would now be *some* market for Indian rupees. France and the Latin Union were relieved, for the United States had opened its mints to German thalers. There was, therefore, no occasion on their part to do anything immediately; a new sluice-way had been opened to drain off the silver inundation; Europe could afford to wait.

The last scene of this drama, on the European stage, is the late Conference of the Latin Union, which terminated at Paris on the 5th of November. M. Léon Say has laid before the Chamber of Deputies a bill to ratify the new treaty, but the particulars of his allocution have not yet reached us. Meanwhile the *Journal des Débats* has published a long article on the treaty from the pen of Baron de Reinach, the next friend and confidential adviser of the Finance Minister. We learn from this that the treaty is renewed on new conditions till January 1, 1886, and "that the coinage of silver five-franc pieces is provisionally suspended, and cannot be resumed except by the unanimous agreement of the contracting states. A declaration has also been made applying the same clause to the year 1879" (during which the old treaty is still in force). M. de Reinach is a prominent bi-metallist, and has often advocated that cause in the *Journal des Débats*. He says that "France (also) is bi-metallist; but, before pronouncing on the expediency of continuing the coinage of silver five-franc pieces, which is, however, reserved in the treaty, *she desires to know the results of the monetary legislation lately adopted in America.*" Thus we are made to understand that the United States, the only country which a year ago was absolutely untrammelled, has taken upon itself the burden of solving the difficult problem of the future of silver.

M. Cernuschi, in his new collection of articles from the *Siècle*, entitled "La Diplomatie monétaire," accuses France of having needlessly truckled to England in the International Conference, and, though writing before the meeting of the Latin Union, or at least before its results were known, he seems to have anticipated them correctly. But though France has been cowardly, England (always the "perfidious Albion") has been crafty, and upon her vengeance is to be pronounced: *Delenda Carthago!* And it is from the United States that the vengeance is to come:

"The United States have a great revenge to take of England. It is England which has made the Conference a failure. Let the United States coin no more silver; let them repeal the Bland Bill. England will be in consternation at it. The United States will not hesitate, they will do what the Latin Union after four years of sad experience has done; like it they will suspend all purchases of silver, and, until a new departure, will not coin a single piece of that metal. *In hoc signo vinces.* . . From the moment that the United States ceases to spend the millions which it is now spending every month in the purchase of silver, the price of that metal will experience such a terrible crisis, the rupee will become so much depreciated, that England, weary of the warfare, and to save the value of her silver, will sue for a negotiation on the basis of international bi-metallism. . . On the day when no single particle of silver shall be longer coined, either in Europe or the United States, mono-metallism will sink to the ground in impotence, and in the cradle of its birth, on the banks of the Thames, will breathe its last sigh."

BUTTER AND MILK.

WHATEVER we may think of our ancient ruler, King Cotton, there is no question as to the allegiance we owe to Queen Cow. Every one of our agricultural products, with the single exception of Indian corn, is surpassed in value by our dairy yield. The value of the cows, and of the land especially devoted to their support, is reckoned at $1,300,000,000. The annual production of cheese is estimated at 350,000,000 pounds, and that of butter at 1,500,000,000 pounds. Their combined value—estimated at $350,000,000—is only one-fifth less than that of the corn crop. The production has increased thirty-three per cent. within the past year, and since the introduction of the American factory system in the manufacture of them, they have become important objects of export, the foreign sale amounting during the last season to $13,000,000 for butter and $14,000,000 for cheese. The exportations this year have paid more than $1,000,000 freight, or enough to support a weekly line of steamers to Europe. They have paid $5,000,000 freight to the railroads of the country, and milk pays nearly as much more.

Dairying is a quiet industry, which is so dispersed among the great majority of farms in all parts of the country that we fail to realize its aggregate importance. As a money-producing industry it is, under the combined influence of the factory system for cheese-making and of the introduction of improved methods of butter-making, rapidly extending in every direction. One of the very best butter-making regions of the

country, both in quantity and in quality of product, is Northern Illinois and the adjoining parts of the States to the north and west of it. A few years ago it was believed that good butter could not be made in the Southern States. There are now important butter districts in all parts of the South, and there are indications that the Northern cities will soon be supplied with fresh grass-butter throughout the whole winter from Mississippi, Tennessee, and other regions, where, before the war, the profitable growth of grass was regarded as an impossibility. No single influence has had more to do with the increased attention given to butter-making in these new districts than the introduction and wide distribution of the cattle of the Island of Jersey. These were formerly the "Alderneys" of the lawns and paddocks of the rich; they are now the practical butter-producing animals of the best dairy-farms throughout the country. The favor with which they are regarded from an industrial point of view is based upon the physiological fact that, having been bred for centuries by the small farmers of Jersey, with whom the sale of butter has always been an important object, their butter-secretion has been, by artificial selection, more completely developed than has that of any other breed. Not only is the quantity of butter greater in proportion to the amount of food consumed, but the butter-globules of the milk are larger and richer, developing more readily in the churn and working into a firmer product. This excellence has been recognized for half a century among those who sought to produce butter of finer quality for "fancy" use. It is now fast becoming known to those with whom butter-making is a business industry, and the extension of the knowledge promises to make the production of butter for export a much greater source of national wealth than it has hitherto been.

The large dealers in dairy products and the manufacturers of dairy apparatus have recently combined for the holding of a fair in New York City. As an exhibition of popular interest—measured by the beggarly two thousand a day who visited it—this fair was only a modified success. Huge stacks of cheeses, of all sizes and kinds, and pyramids of tubs of butter, hardly excite great popular enthusiasm; neither is a display of pans and cans, churns and cheese-vats, the sort of array for which the pleasure-seekers of a large city are wont to spend their money and their time. What the show lacked in popular interest was, however, fully made up for in the instruction it afforded to those really interested in the subject, many of whom came from distant States to study its details. Those who came with the expectation of finding even a creditable show of dairy-cattle were disappointed. There has rarely been gathered even at a county fair a more meagre and unsatisfactory lot of cows. To one who has watched the recent progress of dairy processes, the collection of implements and appliances was the most interesting that we have had. The American system of co-operative factories has already given us a prominent and favored place in the great cheese-markets of the world. So much has been published during recent years concerning the methods of these factories that those who have cared for such matters have been fully informed concerning them. But there has taken place, within less than ten years, such a complete revolution in the processes of butter-making that few, even among ordinary farmers, have any conception of the present best state of the art. Until very recently it was the universal custom to set milk for the raising of cream in shallow pans of tin or earthenware, in a cool room in summer and in a warm room in winter. In many limestone regions, where springs were abundant and constant, the pans were in summer-time set in troughs of cool water. The theory prevailed that exposure to the air and to ample ventilation was necessary for the removal of "animal odor." The early *but not too rapid* removal of the "animal heat" was equally insisted upon. It was believed that cream rose most readily and completely at a temperature of about 60°, and that its entire separation required a period of about thirty-six hours—a period during which the milk invariably became sour, and in warm weather curdled. Churning was very much a matter of the most fickle luck, occupying a long or a short time according to temperature, to the degree of acidity, and to conditions which always remained inscrutable. The quality of the product was far from being assured. In winter the butter might be lumpy, or in summer oily, and it was always a matter of congratulation—by no means a matter of course—that the churning turned out well. With the more intelligent and painstaking dairy-men the chances and drawbacks were very much reduced, but every one failed at times, and quality always depended largely upon the individual skill of the dairy-maid. The scalding, airing, and sunning of the pans, to remove the taint of the sour and curdled milk they had contained, added much to the labor and annoyance of the business.

The extent to which these conditions have been set aside is quite remarkable, considering its rapidity and the conservative class among whom it has taken place. About a dozen years ago a Swedish dairyman, named Schwartz, tried the experiment of setting his milk in *cans* twenty inches deep and twelve inches in diameter, covering them with ventilated lids, and floating them in ice-water. The reports of his success attracted much attention. A little later at Ogden Farm, and in several creameries, experiments were made with a modification of the system, spring-water at a temperature of about 50° being used instead of ice-water at 35° to 37°. Experiments were tried elsewhere, often with unfavorable results owing to unfavorable conditions, and the discussion waxed hot between the champions and the opponents of the new process. Little by little the opposition gave way, and by 1875 the deep-can system had gained the approval of the leading dairy-men of the country. A Western inventor devised a refrigerator to be used without water, the cans standing in the drip of ice contained in an upper chamber. This was in some respects an advance. Two years later the spring-water system and the refrigerator system were met, and have since been overcome, by a further improvement which seems to combine every requirement of the simplest and most uniform work. This is the Cooley system introduced by the Vermont Farm Machine Co., who exhibited it in complete working at the Fair. Considering its cheapness and its adaptability to the largest and the smallest dairies, it seems to us to have been the most important object shown there—at least among those which have stood the test of sufficient trial.

The Cooley system disregards nearly everything that was deemed inseparable to success in the former method of setting milk in shallow pans. A closed box, like a refrigerator, of a size to accommodate sufficient cans to hold the whole product of the morning or evening milking, is packed full with cans twenty inches deep and eight inches in diameter. Into these the milk is strained the moment it is brought from the stable. Each can is covered with a small inverted pan, like a milk-pan, and these are held firmly in place by slats wedged above them. The box is then filled with cold water so as to cover pan and all, the pans keeping the water out of the milk on the principle of the diving-bell. If a sufficiently cold spring is available (temperature less than 50°) a constant stream enters the box and passes out through an overflow. In the absence of such a spring, ice is used to keep the water down to from 40° to 50°. It is found that all of the cream rises within twelve hours, so that it may be taken off and the cans emptied in time to receive the product of the next milking. No account is made of "animal odor," but *atmospheric* odors are absolutely excluded by the complete immersion in water. Owing to the low temperature at which it has been kept, the skimmed milk is perfectly sweet and useful for cheese-making and other purposes. By an ingenious device the skimmed milk is drawn off below the cream and the cream is poured from the cans. Owing to the low temperature also, which prevents incipient decomposition, the cans are kept so sweet that it is not found necessary to scald them oftener than once a week. The whole care of the milk and the utensils is safely entrusted to common farm-hands. The old-fashioned milk-room is no longer necessary. The Cooley box, occupying but little room, may stand in a passage-way, in a cellar, or under a shed. The exhibitors showed one of their cans filled to a depth of seventeen inches with milk from a herd of Jerseys which had, in twelve hours, thrown up six and a quarter inches of cream.

The modern churning of the cream is as different from the old method with which we are all familiar as Cooley's box is from the old milk-room. Dashers, cleats, and beaters are done away with. The cream is put into an oblong box, which is arranged to vibrate longitudinally, the cream being dashed first against one end and then against the other. There were several forms of churn working on this principle shown at the Fair, the oldest of them, Bullard's, being as good as any. There is no material difference in the time required for the butter to "come" in these churns and in the old ones; but these have the marked advantage that the swash of the cream keeps the walls of the churn always washed down so that the entire contents are subjected to a uniform agitation. With the dasher and beater churns, when the cream begins to thicken, much of it adheres to the walls like a paste, and causes a considerable amount of half-churned cream to become mixed with the butter. By the new process this is obviated, to the great advantage of the product.

In butter-workers there was nothing strikingly new, but the invention of Cooley's creameries and the Bullard churn probably marks a more important advance in an enormous and universally diffused industry than has ever been seen before within a single decade. The mower and reaper were longer in coming into general use and had much more influence in modifying our general system of agriculture; but the Jersey cow and

these two utensils have an aggregate importance hardly inferior to that of those implements.

We made the reservation, above, that Cooley's exhibit was the most important that had stood the test of trial. The reservation was made in favor of Durand's cow-milking machine. The only serious limitation to which a dairy-man is subjected, supposing him to have ample land and money, lies in the difficulty of securing a sufficient number of good milkers and of finding profitable employment for them throughout the day. This limitation being removed, the number of cows may be greatly increased with decided benefit to the land, and with direct profit to the farmer. A machine which would milk the cow dry; which would communicate to her bag the movement incident to hand-milking or sucking; which could be adjusted to teats of different size; and which could milk a three-teated cow, or, in an emergency, a single teat, has long been sought. Numerous promising inventions have proved failures, and many a good herd has been ruined in the experiment. The English agricultural papers are just now considering the difficulties of the case, and are clamoring for a machine which will meet all the requirements. We do not venture to say that Durand has solved the problem, but he certainly seems to have overcome all the difficulties found in the earlier inventions.

It has been our purpose to indicate the more strikingly important features of this exhibition, and we have omitted much detail of which the agricultural press will take due account. Its impression upon the city spectators must have been rather curious than instructive, and in nowise particularly engaging. It will have served a sufficient purpose if a hundred prominent dairy-men from different parts of the country carry home to their own communities a proper appreciation of the great and important progress which it has illustrated. Having the interests of English agriculture very much at heart, we especially regret that those who attended the trial of butter-making implements at the Royal Agricultural Society's Show at Bristol in July and regarded it as the measure of modern success in this industry, could not have been here to see the marked superiority of these simpler and more efficient devices.

DE BROGLIE'S 'SECRET DU ROI.'

PARIS, November 29, 1878.

IT would be difficult to relate in an abridged form the diplomatic difficulties of the Comte de Broglie in Poland. He was placed in the strangest position: he had secret instructions from the Prince de Conti, from Louis XV.; he had official instructions from the Foreign Office; he had formed on the spot his own ideas, which did not quite agree with any of these. I have said that he had formed the plan of uniting Saxony and Poland in a great kingdom. He was thus not only serving the interests of the Prince de Conti and of the House of Saxony (the French Dauphiness was a Saxon princess), he was thinking of the interests of Europe, and wished to oppose a barrier to the ambition of Russia and of Frederic. But Frederic was always on the alert; he took the offensive. He has said in his Memoirs that an alliance was forming against him between the two empresses of Austria and of Russia; that Saxony had adhered to it. He was obliged, he says, to strike a great blow. This theory is still admitted in Germany; but the diplomatic documents show that there was nothing but uncertainty at St. Petersburg, at Dresden, at Versailles. Vienna alone was awake; at Vienna there was a determined woman, Maria Theresa; the conspiracy against Frederic was in her brain alone.

At any rate, historically speaking, Frederic did well to defeat the plans of Vienna, and to break the circle before it was quite solid. He invaded Saxony, and, at the head of his army, asked permission to enter Bohemia. In vain did the poor king protest; Frederic asked that the Saxon army should be incorporated in his own. The king fled with his family and took refuge at Pirna, in the midst of his army. Broglie gave him this advice; he had marked the position of Pirna as the strongest that could be found. This was not enough; he wrote to his court that the time had now come to change the Electorate of Saxony into a kingdom. Augustus III. was old, but he would still have time to form a sort of union between Poland, where he was king, and an increased kingdom of Saxony. Maria Theresa was bound to help Augustus and put her armies in motion. Broglie was expecting orders from his court with a feverish impatience, but Louis XV. was slow to take a decision; Conti was not very impatient to leave the Temple. Broglie offered his resignation; he resolved to make an *éclat*, and asked permission to carry a letter of Louis XV. to Augustus in his camp. He was arrested and not allowed to proceed on his journey. All went wrong for the Saxons; Augustus left his position of Pirna and his army had to sign a capitulation. While Augustus was shut up at Königstein his soldiers received Prussian uniforms, and his officers went home. The Comte de Broglie returned to France. He was received with enthusiasm; he had defended against Frederic the mother of the Dauphiness; he alone had shown some spirit, and he was looked upon as the man who could speak boldly to Frederic. He was anxious to be sent to Vienna, feeling that at Vienna only could he do any good; but he was not quite in favor with Madame de Pompadour and with the Abbé de Bernis; he was too proud, too self-sufficient; he was not made to be the favorite of a favorite. He was sent back to Warsaw.

Bohemia, meanwhile, had been invaded, Prague was besieged, and the Comte de Broglie found Vienna in great alarm. Maria Theresa alone was calm; she consulted Broglie on the means of delivering Prague (he was son of the Broglie who had taken this town by surprise, and who had been besieged in it). She even offered him a chance to join old Daun, who was sent against Frederic. The battle of Kolin, one of the bloodiest of the time, obliged Frederic to retire:

"Fortune," wrote Frederic to Field-Marshal Keith, "is a woman, and I am not lovable. She has declared herself for the ladies who are carrying on the war against me. . . . But what do you think of this alliance against the Margrave of Brandenburg? How surprised would not Fritz-Wilhelm be if he saw his great-grandson fighting with the Russians, the Austrians, nearly the whole of Germany, and 100,000 Frenchmen! I don't know whether defeat will be a great humiliation for me, but I know that there will not be much glory for those who defeat me."

The old Margrave of Brandenburg would be, perhaps, even more surprised now if he saw one of his descendants ruling in Metz and Strasbourg and wearing the crown of Charlemagne!

Broglie was received with open arms in Warsaw; if he had been his own master he would have saved Poland, and he would have sent the feeble Augustus as king to Saxony, put a French prince on the throne of Poland, and placed both Saxony and Poland under the patronage of France. He stood resolutely against the Russian occupation, which looked very much like a Russian conquest, but he was not supported much at home. The Treaty of Versailles had completely changed the state of Europe and altered the basis of the Treaty of Westphalia. The equilibrium of the world was unsettled, but the men who were undoing the work of Richelieu and of Mazarin were men like Bernis, who were always afraid of falling from power, and who had not the eagle-eye of genius. Bernis was intelligent, and his correspondence, which has recently been published, shows that he was worth more than his reputation; but he was not the man to compete with Frederic the Great. The history of the campaign of 1757 is well known; Frederic faced all his enemies; the French army lost all the benefit of the victory of Halberstadt by the capitulation of Closterseven, accepted by the frivolous general who bore the great name of Richelieu; the French army was divided, and this division allowed Frederic to win the battle of Rossbach. How could Broglie meet the Russians at Warsaw after such disasters? He felt that all hope of avoiding the partition was already lost; he knew that France was resigned, and would see Poland sacrificed without saying a word. The ardent Count scolded Bernis in all his despatches, and Bernis only tried to soothe him. Broglie wrote despairing letters to the King himself; but the King had the Olympian indifference of a despot and the heartless resignation of a debauchee. The Comte de Broglie, feeling that all his efforts were vain, asked leave to return to France. He had spent nearly seven years in Poland. He had well understood that the marches and countermarches of the Russian armies in Poland were but the preface of a conquest. He was not an enemy of Russia. He knew that Russia was less anxious for the partition of Poland than Prussia, and even than Austria; but he saw that she would prefer a share in the spoils to a war with her neighbors. He came back to France convinced that nothing could avert the danger, and he said in his heart, "Finis Poloniæ."

The secret diplomacy of Louis XV. had lost its object; still, it was maintained. It seems as if the King wanted his secret correspondence as a mere amusement. Broglie was not well received by the Cardinal de Bernis nor by Madame de Pompadour. He was too ambitious, too intractable. The King was more lenient, and kept up a sort of secret friendship with him. But Broglie had the mortification of seeing Bernis replaced by the Duc de Choiseul, and Choiseul absolutely abandoned Poland. He suspected the secret relations of the King with Broglie and with Tercier, who was then the first clerk (*premier commis*) of the Foreign Office, the man who was the real minister, and who had in his hands all the complicated threads of our diplomacy; an honest and hard-working patriot, as were all the first clerks of our Foreign Office—men who lived out of sight and

who courted obscurity as others court fame, in order to be all the more useful.

You will find in the 'Secret du Roi' a good delineation of the character of the Duc de Choiseul. Both he and the Comte de Broglie were intimate friends of the Prince de Conti; of Madame de Boufflers, called the "idol of the Temple," and the Maréchales de Beauvan, de Mirepoix, de Luxembourg, so often mentioned in the letters of Walpole and in the letters of Madame du Deffand. Their two wives were both granddaughters of the famous financier Crozat, who first colonized Louisiana, and who had acquired an immense fortune. But Choiseul was as indolent as Broglie was ardent. He was a patriot; but if his plans were not adopted he consoled himself with the greatest facility. He was gay, he liked to shine; he was always under somebody's influence; he did not like to go counter to anybody; he was fond of popularity.

"Without any tenacity of purpose or true firmness in his character, he succeeded, by the mere effect of his graceful manner, in remaining in power for twelve years, under a versatile king and in a court agitated by all sorts of intrigues. Notwithstanding a disastrous war and a humiliating peace, he made himself liked by the populace, and was celebrated in public opinion at a time when contempt of authority was at once a system and a fashion, the pretension of philosophers and the amusement of the world. In fact, without having left anything behind him, he has seduced even posterity."

The secret of this success is to be found in the relations of Choiseul with the philosophers. Choiseul was a courtier of Voltaire, as well as of Madame de Pompadour, and, remarks rather pointedly the Duc de Broglie, "Philosophy was not less sensible to flattery than the *courtisane* with whom we know that she always lived on good terms." If Madame de Pompadour could not make a great general of Soubise, Philosophy succeeded in making of Choiseul a great minister. Choiseul did absolutely nothing to save Poland. On the contrary, it can be said that he led the victim to the altar and adorned it with his own hands for the sacrifice. If we remember how many times Poland rose in arms against her masters, what terrible wars she carried on in order to reconquer her independence; if we see, even now, after a century, how much vitality she has preserved, we can hardly conceive the fate of such a country in the last century, at a time when philosophy was spreading its light in Europe. This Polish question is, after all, the great interest of the 'Secret du Roi.' Many others will be found in the entertaining work of the Duc de Broglie. There is an amusing account of the missions of the once famous Chevalier d'Éon, who sometimes passed for a man and sometimes for a woman. A diplomat of my acquaintance, after having gone through the two volumes, said: "Well, the 'Secret du Roi' is a catching title, but the true title ought to have been 'La Maison de Broglie et la Famille de Bourbon.'"

Correspondence.

LORD DUFFERIN'S ADMINISTRATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I trust you will not be angry if I say that I saw with surprise, in your notice of a Canadian book, language which appeared to indicate sympathy on your part with the adulation (for I can call it nothing else) of Lord Dufferin.

What has Lord Dufferin done but labor, in his vocation as an emissary of the British aristocracy, to stimulate anti-republican sentiment in Canada, to intensify her political antagonism to the United States, and thus to sow the seeds of future trouble among the inhabitants of this continent? If he has done anything more it has been to cultivate popularity for himself, as the means of his advancement, by flattering speeches which have filled the minds of the Canadian people with false notions, by lavish entertainments which have done mischief to society, fostered habits of extravagance, and, as the consequence, brought distress into not a few Canadian homes.

As to his administrative success, it is a pure fiction. In the crucial instance of the Pacific Railway scandal he decided that he was bound simply to follow the advice of his ministers on every occasion; and he did not perform a single administrative act of the slightest consequence during the whole time that he was Governor-General. The question of British Columbia, which he is credited with settling, stands exactly where it was.

Toadyism is rampant; and, I am afraid, on both sides of the line. But in the *Nation* we hope always to find the antidote, not the bane.

Yours, faithfully, Verax.

Canada, December 14.

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO. have in press three noteworthy translations, viz., Eugène Véron's 'Æsthetics' and André Lefèvre's 'Philosophy' (belonging to the Contemporary Science Series), and Prof. Würtz's 'Elements of Modern Chemistry.'——D. Appleton & Co. have just issued in their Collection of Foreign Authors 'The Diary of a Woman,' from the French of Octave Feuillet. They have also brought out a novel and very useful work called 'The Geologist's Travelling Hand-book: an American Geological Railway Guide,' edited by James Macfarlane with the co-operation of leading geologists in the various States of the Union. The originality of the conception lies in the attempt to show "the geological formation at every railroad station." The arrangement is by States, the geological formations being enumerated at the head of the section, and the railroads following with the local indications. The distances along the lines are also set down. An introduction briefly elucidates the system of geology, and an appendix gives the chronology of the older railroad extensions. Tourists by rail, pedestrians, even intending settlers, can find their profit in this book as well as students of geology.——The Rose-Belford Publishing Co., Toronto, send us 'The Tariff Hand-book,' compiled by John Maclean, which, though intended for use in the approaching economic struggle across the border, has its value for us against whom the proposed tariff changes are aimed. It exhibits all of the Canadian protective tariffs, the United States tariff in full, the British tariff (two pages to our thirty), portions of Continental tariffs, the Reciprocity Draft Treaty of 1874, etc., etc. Mr. Maclean avows himself a protectionist, in sympathy with the dominant party in Canada, but unbiassed in his collection of statistics.——Until Christmas the rooms of the Society of Decorative Art, No. 34 East Nineteenth Street, will remain open in the evening. The Society's organ, *Art Interchange*, has been enlarged and otherwise improved.——We regret to have to chronicle the death of Stephen H. Carpenter, Professor of Logic and English Literature in the University of Wisconsin, in the 48th year of his age. He graduated at the University of Rochester in 1852, and was called to his late chair in 1868. He was a frequent contributor to the religious and educational periodicals of the country, and ten of his educational addresses have been published. His published works embrace 'Lectures on the Evidences of Christianity,' 'English of the XIVth Century,' and 'Introduction to the Study of Anglo-Saxon.' He had just ready for the press a translation of A.-S. 'Beowulf,' with notes.——The Boston Society of Natural History have begun the issue of tiny 'Guides for Science-Teaching,' designed to supplement the lectures given by the society to the teachers in the public schools of that city. They are not meant for text-books. No. 1 is 'About Pebbles,' by Alpheus Hyatt.——A gift-book that comes to us among the later arrivals—'Caledonia, described by Scott, Burns, and Ramsay' (R. Worthington)—is to be praised for its comeliness in moderation, if we may so express our meaning. Paper and print are all that should be desired, for use at least, and the best of Mr. Macwhirter's picturesque illustrations are excellent indeed.——Cassell, Petter & Galpin have now ready for distribution the three maps of London in 1560, 1720, and at the present day which accompany their 'Old and New London' just completed. The first two embrace the territory from Westminster to Wapping; the last from Hammersmith to Greenwich. In that of 1560, which is in two sheets, the modern quarters, as yet only fields and woods, are indicated by a special lettering. The series is most interesting.——A fortnight ago we noticed the miniature edition of the 'Divina Commedia' published at Padua by the Salmin Bros. B. Westermann & Co. have received a single copy of this remarkable work, of which but a thousand copies have been printed. It seems hardly possible that the type could ever have been cast, let alone its being set up, and to read it is as trying as to read the photographic fac-simile reductions with which we are familiar. The courageous proof-reader has not been left in obscurity: "L. Busato *corresse*" appears on the back of the title.——Hermann Wunderlich & Co. send us their catalogue of prints in stock and for sale. This is remarkable among dealers' catalogues for the care that seems to have been taken with its preparation. It is divided into three parts: the first consists of the titles of prints by the earlier painter-engravers, Dürer and his school, Rembrandt and the etchers, Lucas van Leyden and Goltzius, Marc-Antonio and his followers. The second division deals with the engravers in line and in mezzotint of the middle time—those who made it their business to reproduce the work of painters of renown. The third division includes the work of the recent and still living etchers, and such work as can be got under that head;

even the 'Liber Studiorum' mezzotints, properly enough, for modern original (painter-engraver's) work is almost exclusively done in etching, and the few exceptions must needs go with the rest. There are a few errors we have noted, errors of spelling artists' names or of giving titles to prints; but in almost every case these are the errors of somebody to whom English is not a mother-tongue, trying to put into English, French, and German technical names, and the like. This kind of blunder reaches its climax when Dürer's well-known print is called "The Coat of Arms with the Rooster." The catalogue is a good one to have at hand; all the prices are given, and on this account it has its value for reference.—The latest literary surprise is the announcement that hereafter the *North American Review*, beginning with the January number, will appear monthly.

—The January *Harper's* is a thoroughly characteristic number in all respects, "Porte Crayon" serving as a connecting link between the older and the newer traditions, both literary and pictorial, of the magazine. His domestic confidences under the title "Home" may be taken to have some value as illustrating self-reconstruction at the South in the best spirit, under at least ordinary difficulties. Mr. Rideing's opening paper on Liverpool is well ordered and instructive, and is markedly superior in these points and in interest to Mr. Benjamin's "Rambles in the South of France," a little further on. Between them, Mrs. Mary Treat discourses on red and black ants with the authority of a patient and accurate observer, and with the aid of magnified portraits and diagrams of the "slave-makers" and their haunts. Miss Jennie J. Young contributes a short paper on cloisonné enamel. In the "Meeting of the 'Royal' on Durdham Down" Colonel Waring describes with his usual clearness and effectiveness an English agricultural show held last summer, and candidly compares it with the best of our own. The attendance he found noticeable only on account of the amount of beer and spirits sold within the enclosure, and drunk by men and women without that effect on decorum which the toleration of such practices among us would surely produce. Among the agricultural implements he highly praises the ploughs, and especially the steam-plough, which he believes will in time be frankly adopted in our own larger cultivation. The horse-show proved captivating, but the farm-horses seemed to him too heavy, clumsy, and slow in their movements. The short-horn cattle and the Devons, and even the Jerseys, were disappointing, the good qualities of the last having been sacrificed to "color." The most curious paper is Mrs. Zabel B. Gustafson's "Maria del Occidente." This is an attempt at literary restitution which will be judged more or less successful according to the reader's respect for the writer's critical capacity, the weight he attaches to certain encomiums by Southey and Lamb, and, lastly, the impression made by the samples of Mrs. Maria Gowan Brooks's poetry. The fashion of our day is averse to long-winded poetizing, and what might be gained for Mrs. Brooks if we could read the whole of "Zophiël" instead of these fragments—gained, we mean, in just appreciation of her merit—would perhaps be in danger of being neutralized by the fatigue of reading to the end. Mrs. Gustafson does not hesitate to challenge comparison with Tennyson, Byron, and Swinburne, and even Dante and Sappho. We will go as far as any one in the homage due to Massachusetts, but in the case of this Medford poetess (whose personal history is so romantic) we feel compelled to draw the line a little short of Mrs. Gustafson's.

—First deserving of mention in the January *Scribner's* is Mr. Clarence Cook's "Leonardo da Vinci," a condensed account of the career of a genius whose grand trait, in the writer's view, was originality. The article is skilfully illustrated with fac-similes of Leonardo's mechanical drawings embodying the inventions of his practical mind, and with copies of his masterpieces with the brush. Readable, also, are Mr. Frank B. Mayer's "Old Maryland Manners"; Mr. C. C. Buel's "At the Old Bull's Head," in which a broken-down Wall Street gambler figures historically; and Mr. John Muir's "Mountain Lakes of California." Not much is to be said for the text, as literature, of "The Tile-Club at Work," but the basis of fact is interesting, and one may reasonably expect good work from the informal association here described. A number of the tiles produced at the regular gatherings have been engraved for this number, and more are promised as the result of an excursion last summer to Long Island. The chief poetical feature of this number is Mr. Bayard Taylor's "Epicedium" on the late W. C. Bryant.

—The London *Times* lately published, in three instalments, a series of copious extracts from a publication which has excited no little attention in Germany—'Graf Bismarck und seine Leute während des Krieges mit Frankreich. Nach Tagebuchsblättern, von Dr. Moritz Busch.' M. Émile de Laveleye, in the December *Fortnightly*, devotes an entertaining article to the same record, which we shall see before long in an English translation. The book is only just out in Germany, where it has produced no small agitation and scandal; and while we await a more complete acquaintance with it we may find some profit in the specimens with which we have already been furnished. Dr. Moritz Busch, who appears to be a veritable Teutonic Boswell, was a practised journalist, in the employ of the Berlin Foreign Office, when he accompanied the great Chancellor, in the summer of 1870, to the seat of war. It may be added that his name figures as the translator of those American tales (by Messrs. Bret Harte, Howells, Aldrich, H. James, jr., etc.) which have lately been introduced in such profusion to German readers. He appears to have noted down, indefatigably, the conversation of his illustrious chief, and his book offers an almost complete record of Prince Bismarck's table-talk and small-talk during the momentous months of the Franco-German war. The result is an extraordinary portrait, which, whether pleasing or not, has evidently the merit of minute fidelity. The Chancellor, in fact, paints himself, and his devoted diarist has done nothing but suspend the picture. It has presumably been given to the world with Prince Bismarck's own sanction, and this proceeding is only the conclusive, crowning instance of that tremendous audacity which is the most salient feature in the personality of the model. As regards everything and every one, Prince Bismarck is unsparingly, exhaustively, brutally frank. His opinion of the French nation is of the lowest; he speaks lightly even of M. Thiers:

"He is a clever, attractive gentleman, witty, spirited, intellectual, but without talent for diplomacy. He is far too sentimental for the profession. Though more manly and dignified than M. Favre, he is altogether unfit for the trade. He came to me as a negotiator when he had not gumption enough to know how to set about selling a horse. He is easily staggered, and he shows it."

Elsewhere, however, he is reported as having said to M. Thiers: "It is a pleasure to talk with so civilized a human being as you." In regard to the French love of phrases he says: "You may lay twenty-five lashes on a Frenchman's back with impunity, if only delivering the while a speech upon liberty and the dignity of mankind; the imaginative victim will not know he is being flogged." And the world will be interested to learn that, for every defect of the French, the Germans have a corresponding merit: "I am quite sure that the expression *politesse de cœur* is not French, but a translation from the German. This is a peculiar sort of politeness which I have met nowhere but in Germany. . . . The French certainly know nothing of the kind, being polite only from hatred or envy." One may be pardoned for wondering whether it was from *politesse de cœur* (even in the German original) that, as the Chancellor relates, the Princess Bismarck, in the autumn of 1870, "would have the French exterminated root and branch, only excepting the little children, who cannot be held responsible for having such atrocious parents." This edifying wish is one of those numerous passages for which it is almost inconceivable that Prince Bismarck should have desired the honors of publicity.

—A great many of Dr. Busch's notes are autobiographic and relate to the Prince's personal idiosyncrasies and physical exploits—his duels, his bouts of beer-drinking, his endurance of fatigue, his extraordinary capacity for work. His physical endowments are evidently quite on the same grand scale as his intellectual, and his iron will has had at its service a temperament of iron. Dr. Busch, like a faithful Boswell, represents his capacity of consuming food as Johnsonian, and quotes the Prince's own assertion that "the German nation is determined to have a corpulent Chancellor." It would appear that in all these details there was, on the Chancellor's part, a sort of bravado, of grossness, and animalism. And yet he is also represented as extremely spiritual, and he affirms on several occasions the intensity of his religious belief. "A plain, God-fearing man"—that old-fashioned phrase is about Prince Bismarck's description of himself.

"If I ceased to be a Christian, I should not remain at my post another hour. . . . If I had not been rigorously orthodox the German nation would never have had its present Chancellor. . . . How willingly would I go away! I love the life of the fields, of woods, of nature. Take away from me my belief in God, and to-morrow morning I pack my portmanteau and set off for Varzin to grow my corn."

Of course there are great numbers of political judgments, many of which are very curious—some for their striking felicity, some for what may be fairly called their absurdity. (We may mention in this latter class the Prince's prophecy that France would shortly be decomposed into various states, under Legitimist, Republican, Radical, and Imperialist governments respectively.) He points out with cruel definiteness what Napo-

leon III., had he been a wiser man, *might* have done with certain success in 1866:

"At the beginning of hostilities against Austria he ought to have seized what he wished to obtain by the Benedetti treaty [a projected treaty for the freedom, as far as Prussia was concerned, to lay Bonapartist hands on Belgium, granted in exchange for the cession of Landau, Saarbrück, etc., and withdrawal from the duchy of Luxembourg] and to have kept it as a pledge against future events. We could not have stopped him, and it is not very likely that England would have done so. In any case he could have awaited her with a firm foot. If we proved victorious he ought to have led us to push on our advantages even to excess. But he has never been anything but a dreamer."

It is highly displeasing, at any rate, to perceive how perpetually the late Emperor of the French dreamed of doing violence to Belgium. In the case of so formidable a personage as the Chancellor it is agreeable for us to learn, under date of September 12, 1870, that "Prince Bismarck has long been well disposed towards the Americans." He is very frank as regards the ideal form of political power. "After all, a benevolent, rational absolutism is the best form of government. Unless strengthened by some of this salutary tonic any government must fall to pieces. But, alas! we have no real absolutists left; the race has died out." The violently repressive measures now taking place in Germany would seem to disprove this last clause, though perhaps even Prince Bismarck himself would hardly pretend that the strong military régime at Berlin is a "benevolent, rational" absolutism.

—A correspondent writes from London under date of December 4:

"The London public is never left for many days without a *cause célèbre* of some kind. The latest novelty in this line has been the suit for damages brought against Mr. Ruskin by Mr. James Whistler, the American painter, and decided last week. Mr. Whistler is very well known in the London world, and his conspicuity, combined with the renown of the defendant and the nature of the case, made the affair the talk of the moment. All the newspapers have had leading articles upon it, and people have differed for a few hours more positively than it had come to be supposed that they could differ about anything save the character of the statesmanship of Lord Beaconsfield. The injury suffered by Mr. Whistler resides in a paragraph published more than a year ago in that strange monthly manifesto called *Fors Clavigera*, which Mr. Ruskin had for a long time addressed to a partly edified, partly irritated, and greatly amused public. Mr. Ruskin spoke at some length of the pictures at the Grosvenor Gallery, and, falling foul of Mr. Whistler, he alluded to him in these terms:

"'For Mr Whistler's own sake, no less than for the protection of the purchaser, Sir Coutts Lindsay ought not to have admitted works into the gallery in which the ill-educated conceit of the artist so nearly approached the aspect of wilful imposture. I have seen and heard much of cockney impudence before now, but never expected to hear a coxcomb ask 200 guineas for flinging a pot of paint in the public's face.'

"Mr. Whistler alleged that these words were libellous, and that, coming from a critic of Mr. Ruskin's eminence, they had done him, professionally, serious injury; and he asked for £1,000 damage. The case had a two days' hearing, and it was a singular and most regrettable exhibition. If it had taken place in some Western American town, it would have been called provincial and barbarous; it would have been cited as an incident of a low civilization. Beneath the stately towers of Westminster it hardly wore a higher aspect. A British jury of ordinary tax-payers was appealed to to decide whether Mr. Whistler's pictures belonged to a high order of art, and what degree of 'finish' was required to render a picture satisfactory. The painter's singular canvases were handed about in court, and the counsel for the defence, holding one of them up, called upon the jury to pronounce whether it was an 'accurate representation' of Battersea Bridge. Witnesses were summoned on either side to testify to the value of Mr. Whistler's productions, and Mr. Ruskin had the honor of having his estimate of them substantiated by Mr. Frith. The weightiest testimony, the most intelligently, and apparently the most reluctantly, delivered, was that of Mr. Burne Jones, who appeared to appreciate the ridiculous character of the process to which he had been summoned (by the defence) to contribute, and who spoke of Mr. Whistler's performances as only in a partial sense of the word pictures—as being beautiful in color, and indicating an extraordinary power of representing the atmosphere, but as being also hardly more than beginnings, and fatally deficient in finish. For the rest, the crudity and levity of the whole affair were decidedly painful, and few things, I think, have lately done more to vulgarize the public sense of the character of artistic production. The jury gave Mr. Whistler nominal damages. The opinion of the newspapers seems to be that he has got at least all he deserved—that anything more would have been a blow at the liberty of criticism. I confess to thinking it hard to decide what Mr. Whistler ought properly to have done, while—putting aside the degree of one's appreciation of his works—I quite understand his resentment. Mr. Ruskin's language quite transgresses the decencies of criticism, and he has been laying about him for some years past with such promiscuous violence that it gratifies one's sense of justice to see him brought up as a disorderly character. On the other hand, he is a chartered libertine—he has possessed himself by prescription of the function of a general scold. His literary bad manners are recognized, and many of his contemporaries have suffered from them without complaining. It would very possibly, therefore, have been much wiser on Mr. Whistler's part to feign indifference. Unfortunately, Mr. Whistler's productions are so very eccentric and imperfect (I speak here of his paintings only; his etchings are quite another affair, and altogether admirable) that his critic's denunciation could by no means fall to the ground of itself. I wonder that before a British jury they had any chance whatever; they must have been a terrible puzzle. The verdict, of course, satisfies neither party: Mr. Ruskin is formally condemned, but the plaintiff is not compensated. Mr. Ruskin too, doubtless, is not gratified at finding that the fullest weight of his disapproval is thought to be represented by the sum of one farthing."

—In No. 646 of the *Nation* we noticed the opening parts of Rüstow's history of the late war in Turkey. The work is now complete, forming an octavo volume of seven hundred pages, with twenty-four small maps, and bears the title, 'Der Orientalische Krieg in den Jahren 1877 und 1878' (Zürich). The last chapter is marked, "Abgeschlossen am 29. Mai 1878." A few months later the author's life also came to a close. Tired of cares, bodily sufferings, and inadequately rewarded labors, he shot himself at Riesbach, near Zürich, on August 14. Since 1870 he had held the rank of colonel in the service of the Swiss Confederation, but he received pay only for days of active employment, and was lately refused a professorship of military science at the polytechnic school at Zürich, and in his death considered himself a victim of ingratitude and intrigue. His last papers breathe bitter contempt of the ruling powers in Switzerland. He was a native of Prussia, being born in Brandenburg in 1821, was second lieutenant in the royal corps of engineers, but during the revolutionary movements in 1848 assumed a hostile attitude towards the Prussian "Militärstaat," denounced it in a pamphlet, was tried, and in 1850 fled to Switzerland, of which he became a citizen and, in 1856, a military officer. The most brilliant period of his life was the time of his active co-operation with Garibaldi in Sicily and Naples in 1860, where he greatly contributed to the victories on the Volturno and elsewhere, which were followed by the downfall of the Bourbon throne. The rest of Wilhelm Rüstow's riper years were spent in the elaboration of a vast number of military works, chiefly military histories, all of uncommon merit. Among them are: 'Der Krieg gegen Russland' (1855–6), 'Die Feldherrnkunst des 19. Jahrhunderts' (1857), 'Geschichte der Infanterie' (1857–8), 'Militärisches Handwörterbuch' (1859), 'Der Deutsch-Dänische Krieg von 1864' (1864), 'Der Krieg von 1866 in Deutschland und Italien' (1866), 'Die ersten Feldzüge Napoleon Bonaparte's in Italien und Deutschland' (1868), 'Der Krieg um die Rheingrenze' (1871), 'Der Krieg in der Türkei von 1876' (1876), and works on the military historians of the ancients, the war of 1805, the Italian campaigns of 1848–9, 1850, and 1860, the war in Hungary in 1848–9, the organization of armies, modern tactics, the war of sieges, and partisan warfare. Wilhelm Rüstow was the oldest of three brothers, of whom the two younger, Alexander and Cäsar, both military writers of merit and majors in the Prussian service, met their death in the war of 1866, the former dying of a wound received in the battle of Sadowa, July 3, and the latter falling in an engagement with the Bavarians, July 4. Their bravery in the contest for Prussian supremacy in Germany was no less conspicuous than Wilhelm's under the revolutionary banner of Garibaldi.

—Another military writer and revolutionary commander, less distinguished in the former capacity but more widely known in the latter than Wilhelm Rüstow, the Polish general Ludwik Mieroslawski, died last month. Born in France, but educated in Poland, he left the latter country on the fall of Warsaw in 1831, having fought bravely against the Russians at the age of seventeen, and in Paris devoted himself with passionate ardor to the study of military science. He attached himself to the democratic branch of the Polish emigration, and, admired as the author of a 'Histoire de la Révolution de Pologne' (1837), and of 'A Course of the Art of War; or, A Critical Examination of the Campaign of 1831,' in Polish, became the designated chief of the next insurrection in Poland. This was prepared by a vast conspiracy, but its outbreak in February, 1846, was a disastrous failure. Mieroslawski, before unsheathing his sword, was arrested in Posen, tried in Berlin, and, after a bold defence of his cause, kept in prison under sentence of death. Delivered by the revolution of March, 1848, he fought against the Prussians at the head of Polish bands hastily collected in Posen, won a fruitless victory, and retired. In 1849 he successively commanded the insurrectionary forces of the Sicilians and the Badenese; but in Sicily he was disabled by a wound, and in Germany he achieved only momentary advantages. After the surrender of the fortress of Rastadt he again lived in France. The last of his brief campaigns took place during the Polish insurrection of 1863, when he was overwhelmed by the Russians. He was a man of great powers and extensive knowledge, but impetuous and arrogant, and was as vehement in denouncing his aristocratic opponents within the Polish camp as he was reckless in fighting the enemies of Poland.

—Julius Lessing's 'Altorientalische Teppichmuster,' lately completed in Germany, is now obtainable here. It is a collection of patterns of Oriental rugs and carpets, drawn for the most part from the paintings of Italian, Flemish, and German masters—Bellini, Carpaccio, Ghirlandajo, Van Eyck, Holbein, and others, with a few Italian examples of tarsia-work (wood inlay) and of marble and stone wall-diapering from Italy and from Assyria. The plates are large and handsome, the treatment being scientific rather than pictorial; the local colors are given with as much accuracy as German eyes aided by the crude art of the chromo-lithographer can compass, and the outline of the patterns is strongly defined, a result neither aimed at nor accomplished, as every one knows, in the fabrics themselves. Still, the knowledge gained by bringing all these examples together is valuable, and one must be grateful to the author for the ingenuity of his design and for the persevering patience with which he has worked it out. A companion work is Friedrich Fishbach's 'Ornamente der Gewebe,' a collection of patterns of stuffs all of mediæval or early Renaissance designs, and of Italian, Spanish, German, Flemish, French, and Oriental—that is, Indian, Persian, and Saracenic—designs. No such rich and varied collection of these designs, nor in such numbers, has ever, we believe, been offered to the public, and they will be found of great use to the modern designer and architect. The colors are well given, and gold and silver are employed whenever the original design calls for them.

—These works are expensive, or, at least, are beyond the reach of ordinary purses. Intended for a more popular audience, and not only very attractive and interesting to the student of design, but one of the cheapest publications we know, is the 'Treasury of Renaissance Design' (*Der Formenschatz der Renaissance*), published by George Hirth in Munich. It is now complete in two volumes. Each volume was published in ten small parts, each containing from twelve to sixteen plates, and selling at 40 cents a part, or $4 currency for the volume. The first volume contains 132 plates, the second 120, and the names of the artists represented in these 252 designs are the most famous in their several departments. The plates are reproduced by heliotype or some kindred process from original drawings and prints, and the compiler has in all cases had access to the best impressions, so that, although the heliotype process leaves much to be desired in clearness and brilliancy, yet so far as accuracy is concerned these plates are sufficient for the purpose they are meant to serve. The field of design covered by this popular publication includes many things outside the usual list of subjects. Here are the arabesques of Flötner, De Bry, Lucas van Leyden, Holbein, Virgil Solis, and others, with designs for jewelry, goldsmiths' work, book-covers, ornamental borders, printers' marks, head and tail pieces, etc., etc., and besides these are many interesting and valuable reproductions of woodcuts by Dürer, Burgkmaier, Holbein, and others, with copies of prints from Mantegna, from the 'Polifilo,' attributed to Gianbellini, and so on, the whole forming a most curious and suggestive collection, which any one may study with profit. Among other things we note in passing are some charming capital letters, one page of Greek letters designed by Geoffrey de Tory, with others by Italian and French artists. Here for eight dollars is capital material for a school of design, where boys and girls, under the lead of an intelligent master, might be indoctrinated in good science of the subject, and if in some cases (but only a few) taught what to avoid, in the greater part shown clearly what is the path to solid and enduring excellence.

RECENT NOVELS.*

IT is a great relief for a critic to be allowed now and then to leave the balancing of pro and con., the search for unapparent excellence, and the effort to reach a sympathetic stand-point which may alter all the manifest false perspectives in a poor book, and to resume a natural mental attitude, with a comfortable play of muscle and re-establishment of normal circulation, on seeing a book which may be honestly praised; which is neither crude nor coarse, nor even ill-bred; which does not aim at the destruction nor even the reconstruction of society, but which leads one with a gentle interest through pleasant scenes and people, with a gleam of light here and a touch of shadow there, till the faces grow definite and the places familiar, and we follow willingly, and the end comes too soon. This is all true of 'For Percival.' The title is awkward, but the title is always a difficulty, and this is not unfit as representing the tendency of the various interests in the book to gather round Mr. Percival Thorne. Tall, dark, handsome, like a foreign bird on an English lawn, the son of a disinherited father, caring chiefly for personal independence and absolute personal rectitude, but engaging himself to a woman chiefly because *she* loves him; then losing every penny of his own fortune, and barely supporting himself by lawyer's copying, Percival somehow fills the canvas. The scene is laid chiefly at Brackenhill, a delightful old place belonging to Percival's grandfather. The estate is not entailed, and to dangle the succession before the eyes of his two grandsons, Percival and Horace, is the chief pleasure of old Mr. Thorne's life. And yet he is not a bad old man, he is only English—just as much the result of laws and customs affecting the transmission of land as any bit of parchment covered with crabbed writing, and locked up in a solicitor's office. The whole book is English, dyed in grain; all the habits, amusements, what they do and what they do not do, the enduring frame of established conventions within which life moves, the quiet persistence of habits, all are harmonious as a good picture, low in tone. There are a variety of characters: Sipsy—sweet soul! who does what she shouldn't, to be sure, but all "for Percival," and is such a pure, delicate, charming creature; Aunt Middleton, steadiest and best-bred of old ladies; Mrs. James, like a bad actress in the midst of the quiet finish of Brackenhill; Horace, weak and false; Godfrey Hammond, the clever London man who is always sent for at family crises, etc., etc. Also there is Miss Lisle, who makes all the running, is the successful lady, but who rouses in ill-regulated minds a feeling of antagonism quite refreshing. There is a death-bed scene, full of pathos; and there is something perhaps not pathetic but surely depressing in the final picture of Percival, wandering over the world with his chosen companion, without duties, enthusiasms, or, apparently, hopes—the typical modern man. We do not tell the plot, we recommend our readers to buy the book, which is credited in the English papers to a new name—Margaret Veley.

'John-a-Dreams' is a graceful trifle which describes the dreamy childhood and restless youth of an English boy—Irvine Dale—an orphan, but surrounded by affectionate relatives, with an ample property and the best of social opportunities. He has the appropriate modern discontent with the world and himself, but does nothing more desperate than travel in Italy—a little off the beaten track—and rejoice in the company of a young English girl training herself for an opera singer, and her pleasant *shady* father. His cousin is sent to bring him away from these dangerous people, and Irvine mildly goes back to England, where he finds an old friend and companion the reigning beauty of the season. He offers himself to her in a hasty and half-insulting manner, is naturally refused, does some work in a working church, where he is comfortable for a little while, but is disgusted with the poor architecture of the church and the cheap finery of the congregation; so he flings it all up and goes to the opera. That night happens to be the début of Miss Archer, the young lady with whom he was in Italy; and the beauty, Miss Adare, is one of the audience. This is too much for Irvine; he leaves the house and rushes violently to Sunleigh-on-Thames. Within a few hours his faithful cousin looks him up, finds that he is very ill, lays the case before Miss Adare, who, with the natural instinct of a carefully brought up young Englishwoman, says she will go down to his lodgings and take care of him. This she does, taking a foolish aunt of Dale's as chaperon. Here she meets Miss Archer, who comes to enquire for Mr. Dale, and after some mutual observation the two ladies fall into friendship. Irvine gets well, and the book closes with a grand tableau of Irvine in an easy-chair, his friends in easy attitudes on the lawn about him, and Katharine Adare appearing from the house in the background. Nothing can well be slighter than the thread of this story. The attraction of the book—for it is attractive—is in its airy style, the clever episodes, the minor characters. The tea-party at Oxford is delightful; Miss Harefell is a new kind of fool; and the writer's tone is that of a man of society who sees and knows whatever is new and lively. Might but some of our docile ladies be startled into consciousness by Miss Harefell's "procession of gray-green geese on a green-gray background"! The author's name does not appear on the title-page, but we believe it is no secret that the same writer has contributed sundry clever stories to *Blackwood*. We are not sure that we do not like one of these stories, 'Bee or Beatrice,' better than 'John-a-Dreams.' We wonder who is responsible for the alteration of the motto on the title-page. The English copies have a line or two from Hamlet, which indicates the origin of the title; whereas the present motto would suit any other book as well as this one.

'The Haunted Hotel' has such a charming title and is such a won-

* 'For Percival.' A novel; with illustrations. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1878.

'John-a-Dreams.' A tale. Appleton's New Handy-Volume Series. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878.

'The Haunted Hotel: A Mystery of Modern Venice. By Wilkie Collins.' Toronto: Rose-Belford Publishing Company. 1878.

derful mixture of ghosts and hotel-keepers, of mediæval magic and modern English families, that those who find modern life unromantic must hail this book as a noble effort in the right direction. In fact, it is a mixture of the impossible and the commonplace, and it calls out from vague vistas of memory a romantic ballad which we seem to have heard in our cradles, and which began with a precision worthy of Mr. Collins, *e.g.*:

> "The clock was striking two
> By the monastery bell,
> And the lamp was burning dimly
> In the court of the hotel;
> The Chevalier was weary,
> But, as he said his prayers"—

and so on and so on. Dumas wrote one very effective story, which showed how old magic affected modern life; but not everybody can write a 'Monte Cristo,' and Mr. Collins had better let it alone.

Edward Garrett has not always the gift of being readable, but 'The House by the Works' is a pleasant story, one of those in which sins are retrieved and misfortunes faced, and goodness is not too immaculate, nor sorrow too hopeless to be endured. Miss Barbara Pendlebury returns in middle life to Perford, where she was born and where she is her brother's partner in the "Works" which produce the family fortune. Instead of establishing herself in a fashionable region she goes back to the House by the Works, where she had lived in her childhood, makes it orderly and bright, and then, without posing as crusader or missionary, does what her hand finds to do in that place and for her neighbors. There are a charming mother and daughter in the village, German by descent, Moravian in creed, bakers by trade; and the daughter, Lois Enticknapp, is delightful in her bright, pure, active life. We recommend the book as pleasant, helpful reading for young folks and old folks.

If we can root out of our minds the notion that Henri Gréville's stories are peculiarly fitted for the reading of young people we shall soon settle on a sound basis of estimation, and nobody will be shocked to hear that 'L'Aimée' is a clever, disagreeable story, which traces the rise and progress of an odious sentiment with the skilful use and not abuse of detail which is one among the author's good literary gifts. She turns a strong light on certain crises in her stories; the reader sees every item that makes up the whole, and carries through the more generalized portions a vivid impression far more effective than the weight of incessant detail with which some modern realists load the limited human faculties. The *locale* and the personages in 'L'Aimée' are French, and all the conditions of French life amongst rising professors, sober old *rentiers*, and aspiring officials are very well described by a person who knows all about them.

How superfluous it seems to say anything about that true, clever, painful little story called 'Daisy Miller'! Certainly no American book of its size has been so much read and so much discussed, as far as our memory runs back. It is the best thing that Mr. James has ever done—*i.e.*, the completest and the least touched by his mannerisms or limitations. It is a perfect study of a type not, alas! uncommon, but it is not offensively anatomical; the dry bones live, are clothed, the joints do not rattle, the smaller bones are not separate against a dark background, but cohere and move in a human fashion. It is true that poor Daisy is sacrificed to Mr. James's incapacity to get his *dramatis personæ* off the stage in any way except by killing them; but that is comparatively a small matter in a sketch like this, and in other respects we have Mr. James at his very best. No American who has not been abroad can really appreciate this story. One must have shuddered at the approach of Randolph C. Miller's type to understand the full horror of that child seen in a land of well-trained children. One must have listened in a railway-carriage to the confidences of a young lady (seen for the first time at the station), poured out for the benefit of all chance fellow-travellers; one must have painfully struggled between a sense of snobbishness in not acknowledging one's country-people and a conviction of untold miseries consequent on the other line of action; in short, one must have suffered in order fully to understand the fine quality of this story. We hope it will be published in "Tauchnitz," be in the bookcases of all the ocean steamers, be so presented to the "moral consciousness" of the American people that they, being quickwitted, may see themselves here truthfully portrayed, and may say, "Not so, but otherwise will we be." It is hard on Mr. James to make him a moral reformer, but he must console himself with the modern dogma that whatever is clever *enough* is necessarily moral.

There is a story with regard to the literary success of the author of the 'Wreck of the Grosvenor' for the truth of which we cannot vouch, but which is *ben trovato* if not true. It is to the effect that he (it is definitely ascertained that he is not a woman) has been writing anonymously for a number of years, during the course of which he has been severely reviewed by a well-known English weekly paper. On the appearance of the 'Wreck of the Grosvenor' he was as usual handled without gloves; but the 'Wreck of the Grosvenor' made a hit and opened the eyes of the weekly in question to the fact that its author was not the man it had taken him for. Consequently, when 'Auld Lang Syne' came out with its avowed authorship there appeared in the weekly a most flattering notice of the book. The moral of this tale, of course, is the folly and unscrupulousness of critics and weekly newspapers; but that which we deduce from it is the folly of the particular weekly newspaper at whose expense the story is in circulation; for the truth must be told and justice must be done though the heavens fall, and truth and justice compel us to say that 'Auld Lang Syne' is as poor a novel as we have read for a long time, and that the best thing for the author to do now would be to come out with a statement to the effect that it is an "early" novel, which he had "put away in his drawer" years ago, and was now published merely as a sort of juvenile "study." We say this with a great deal of disappointment, and in the hope that the fact may be as we have suggested; for if the book is really a successor of the 'Wreck of the Grosvenor,' it shows that the author, to use aquatic slang, has no "staying" power and is rapidly "going to pieces." The story itself is simple enough, and might be made the groundwork of a novel either good or bad. A young man, secretly married, is carried off by a press-gang (the scene is laid in England in the early part of this century), and, after strange adventures at sea, comes back with plenty of money, to be reunited to his wife, who thinks him dead, and who (owing to the clandestine character of the marriage) has had her terrible sufferings too. It is one of those plots of which Charles Reade at his best would make a charming tale, half play, half novel. But in the pages of 'Auld Lang Syne' it is treated with a stiffness and an unnaturalness that are very depressing. The style is forced and ambitious too; while the characters are not drawn with any vividness of touch. The opening sentence will show what we mean with regard to style; it is a "specimen brick":

> "In the embrace of a curvature of this noble island of Britain, where the coast beheld by the passing mariner shines before his eyes with the pearly gloss and delicate shimmer of marble; where the land shoots out into the sea, scorning, with its iron heel stanchly planted, the thunderous shocks of the hurricane or the more deadly tooth of the lipping calm, and bearing on high at night its flaming beacon, like the fabled giant defying the stars with uplifted torch; stands a town whereon no man with a mind into which soft thoughts may enter readily can gaze without stopping to reflect."

A school-boy could point out the glaring faults of this rhetoric. We do not remember anything of the sort in the 'Wreck of the Grosvenor.' There were, to be sure, many strained situations and melodramatic incidents in that powerful story; but the style in which it was told was in character with the person who told it. Usually it is much more difficult for a novelist to put his story into the mouth of one of his characters; only the best writers of fiction have done it thoroughly well. That a writer should do it more easily than tell a story himself, and in fact tell a story badly himself while making a fictitious character tell one well, seems to us contrary to nature. If the fact were that 'Auld Lang Syne' was really written before (and a good while before) the other, it would furnish a key to the puzzle.

The reception which, as we observe, Mr. Black's new novel has met with in England is an excellent illustration of the variations of criticism. It is spoken of in one journal as the culminating effort of his genius, the ripest fruit of his powers; from another it elicits the remark that the author had for some time been suspected to be in his decline, and that now the evidence is clear. One critic commends it for its freshness, and another snubs it for its trickiness; one reviewer cannot find words to express his sense of its high finish, and another finds words without difficulty to record his opinion of its carelessness. The truth, to our mind, lies where it very often lies—in the middle way. 'Macleod of Dare' has not the freshness and charm of the 'Princess of Thule' and the 'Adventures of a Phaeton'; but it is better than 'Madcap Violet,' and very

'The House by the Works. By Edward Garrett, author of 'Crooked Places,' 'Occupations of a Retired Life,' 'Premiums Paid to Experience,' etc.' New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

'A Friend (L'Aimée). By Henri Gréville, author of 'Sonia,' 'Savéli's Expiation,' 'Gabrielle,' 'Marrying off a Daughter,' etc. Translated by Miss Helen Stanley.' Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers.

'Auld Lang Syne: A Novel. By the author of 'The Wreck of the Grosvenor.'' (Franklin Square Library, No. 24.) New York: Harper & Bros.

'Macleod of Dare. By William Black.' New York: Harper & Bros. 1878.

much better than 'The Three Feathers' and the singularly ineffective tale which Mr. Black published a year and a half ago. The author has had the good fortune to lay his hand on a very picturesque and striking subject, and the story has the further merit that it takes him back to the scenery of the Scotch coast, of which he has so evidently keen a relish, and which he is never weary of describing. A thoroughly good subject is a fine thing and a rare thing, but 'Macleod of Dare' may boast of possessing it. The story relates the fortunes of a gallant and simple-minded young Scotch laird, the last of an ancient fighting line who dwell in their legendary castle in one of the islands of the west coast of Scotland. The action takes place at the present day, and the author brings his hero up to London and introduces him to the complexities of contemporary manners; but he has nevertheless succeeded in keeping up the romantic tone of the story, and in flinging over it a corner of that dusky pall of fatality in which Scott has draped his 'Bride of Lammermoor.' Macleod falls in love with a London actress, a young woman of irreproachable life and with the prospect of a brilliant career, and induces her without difficulty to listen to his suit—which is purely honorable—and to promise to become his wife. She comes to pay a visit to his mother on the island of Mull, and otherwise induces him to believe that she intends to keep faith with him. But she breaks faith, throws him over, becomes engaged to a member of the theatrical world. The young man, who has loved her devotedly, takes her infidelity so terribly to heart that it finally affects his reason. He sails down from Scotland to London in his yacht, induces the young lady, by false representations, to come on board; then, closing the hatches, puts out to sea with her and hurries away northward. The most violent recriminations naturally ensue between the love-crazed Caledonian and the bewildered and outraged actress, which are finally eclipsed by the fury of the elements themselves. A terrible storm overtakes the yacht, which goes down in darkness and thunder. This catastrophe may be called melodramatic; but we should content ourselves with calling it dramatic simply, if Mr. Black had been more completely on a level with his opportunities. It was perfectly competent to him to attempt the portrait of a deep and simple nature, with an hereditary disposition to brutality and violence, wrought upon by a grievous disappointment and converted into the likeness of one of his high-handed ancestors. Macleod is meant for a man of strong and simple passions, a hero quite of the kind so highly appreciated by Stendhal, who loves, if he loves at all, with consuming intensity, and for whom a sentimental disappointment is of necessity a heart-break. The author has evidently done his best to foreshadow his catastrophe and to strike at intervals, through the tale, the note of his hero's formidable sincerity and dangerous temper. If this endeavor fails of its effect, it is for more than one reason. Mr. Black's method of narrative strikes us as rather lax and soft—rather unbusinesslike. He introduces too many scraps of song—this has come to be the earmark of his stories—and though his descriptions of coast scenery and of boating incidents have a great deal of color and brilliancy, we are treated to them in season and out, and they contain overmuch repetition. We end by conceiving an aversion to all that Gaelic geographical nomenclature with which the author's page is so liberally studded, and which in the 'Princess of Thule' appeared so picturesque.

But the weak point of the tale is the figure of the heroine; for here, as it strikes us, Mr. Black has passed beside the mark; and done so with a deliberateness that requires some special explanation. Gertrude White is not in the least the study of an actress, nor indeed, as it seems to us, the study of anything at all. The author had an admirable chance; nothing could have been more dramatic than to bring out the contrast between the artistic temperament, the histrionic genius and Bohemian stamp of the *femme de théâtre*, and the literal mind and purely moral development of her stalwart Highland lover. But the contrast has been missed; Gertrude White, in so far as she has any identity, is almost as much a Puritan and a precisian as her lover; she is nothing of a Bohemian, and we doubt very much whether she was anything of an actress. It was a very gratuitous stroke on Mr. Black's part to represent her as one. Her profession plays no part in the story, and the hero greatly dislikes the theatre and goes to see his mistress but two or three times on the stage. The reader involuntarily thinks of the very different manner in which two or three French novelists he could name would have attempted the portrait of Gertrude White—of how minutely they would have studied it, how different a type they would have suggested, and how many details and small realities they would have given us. The merit of 'Macleod of Dare' is in its grace and picturesqueness, and in the romantic portrait of the hero.

Memoirs of Anna Jameson. By Geraldine Macpherson. (London: Longmans; Boston: Roberts Bros. 1878.)—This brief account of Mrs. Jameson's laborious career is very interesting and touching—we use the latter word for two reasons. In the first place, Mrs. Jameson's life was one of effort and labor, although at the same time it was, in many ways, a life of enjoyment. Secondly, this volume is the composition of a much-loved niece, who spent the greater part of her own career in Rome. This lady collected the materials for her work and performed her task in the midst of sad personal tribulations—poverty, illness, and bereavement; and she died while the little monument that she had erected to her aunt's perhaps slightly waning celebrity was on the point of being made public. The reader will not fail to regret that she should not have reaped the reward of her piety; for the thing had been a labor of love, and, as Mrs. Macpherson conceived, of justice to a memory cruelly disparaged by that very heavy-handed genius, Miss Martineau, in that lady's own lately-published memoirs. The book is written with a great deal of grace and skill, and strikes us as a model volume of its kind. It is the brief history of a long life devoted to art, literature, and friendship—one of those frequent women's lives which are occupied, to the public sense, with the production of charming things, but which are in fact pervaded by sharp private trouble.

Mrs. Jameson's writings have, in these days of strongly accentuated literature, lost something of their point, and the most interesting pages in Mrs. Macpherson's volume will perhaps be found to be those which treat of her aunt's marriage and her singular relations with her husband. This was a very odd and unhappy episode, but the oddity almost exceeds the misery. Mr. Jameson died in Canada in 1854, and there had been no children of the marriage, so that one is able to speak of the husband, who occupied a post in the Canadian administration, with some frankness. He must have been a profoundly exasperating person—a fact that became evident only four days after his marriage, when, on a certain rainy Sunday, he went out to spend the day with some friends and left his wife at home, in lodgings, to meditate on the situation. What we mean by calling the latter odd is that the incongruity of the union revealed itself within a week after the wedding. One wonders how this ceremony came to take place at all. Mrs. Macpherson relates an episode which is far from provoking smiles—it is, in fact, almost tragical. We allude to Mrs. Jameson's journey to Canada, in the year 1836, to join her husband, who had been for some time established there. She spent the winter at Toronto, half frozen, and acutely regretting and missing the occupations and the society she had left. Her husband, who had promised her a warm reception, gave her none at all, and there is something extremely pathetic in the account of her lonely arrival, first at New York and then, after a winter journey of many days, made as winter journeys were made in America in 1836, on the snow-bound strand of Lake Ontario. In New York she had not found even a letter to welcome her, and at Toronto she made her way to her husband's house on foot, alone, and in tears. It is almost, from a very comprehensive point of view, to be hoped that Mr. Jameson was not at home when she arrived. The ill-assorted pair separated at the end of the winter and never met again, Mrs. Jameson returning from the Canadian snows to the more congenial circles of Rome and Weimar.

Mrs. Jameson certainly had a gift for loving and being loved in other relations of life. No one had warmer or more constant friends among women and men, and her family appear to have folded their hands and expected her to support them with a serenity which her life justified. Her friendship for Lady Byron made a great portion of her happiness while it lasted, and the pang of its abrupt termination, in her own words, "broke her heart." We think the causes of that lamentable breach are not quite accurately stated. As we have heard the story, there was more excuse than is here implied for Lady Byron's torture of wounded feelings, but none for the pitiless quality which justly named her "The Implacable." Mrs. Jameson's generous self-sacrifice in sundering completely her relations with Major Noel, while her affection for him was unchanged, because she considered that he owed duty to Lady Byron and that he could no longer be the friend of both, was a noble decision made in an hour of bitter suffering. We are speaking of the woman rather than the authoress, which is quite the tendency of the Memoirs, but Mrs. Jameson deserves honorable remembrance from the many who were gently led along the storied entrance halls of art by her graceful and reverent touch. Books more learned, more searching, more strictly organized have been written since, but Mrs. Jameson made it clear to the narrowest capacity that the meaning of a picture was as much to be studied as its beauty, and thence followed, naturally, many things that have been

specialized since her time. Nobody who is susceptible to the artistic atmosphere, who feels the blessed refuge it affords from the "chances and changes of this mortal life," will speak slightingly of Mrs. Jameson. Hers were not the days of "severe studies from the nude pursued by mixed companies of men and maidens," nobody had said that "an angel was a nonsense," and her amiable draperies float easily over limbs anything but anatomical. Life had more drapery in those days, analysis was not held to include all healthy mental action, hope and belief had not been reduced to a caput-mortuum, and Mrs. Jameson was of her time. Her tablet in the temple is neither massive nor sculptured in alto-rilievo, but is wrought all over with graceful outlines, and stands in memory of a true believer.

Children's Books.—We cannot recommend Mr. C. C. Coffin's 'Story of Liberty' (Harpers) as a book for young people. Its merit is that it contains the heroic and entertaining incidents which illustrate the history of liberty, from Runnymede to Plymouth Rock, collected in one volume, told with vivacity and provided with a great abundance of illustrations, which are generally graphic and instructive, if not always new or even relevant. But the vivacity is strained sometimes to the point of jerkiness, and marred throughout by a constant use of the present tense. Many of the illustrations, too, are such as no careful parent would like to put into the hands of his children; such a parent will certainly take his penknife and cut out pages 84 to 90, which contain a detailed account of the tortures of the Inquisition, illustrated by a multitude of frightful pictures such as would be a veritable nightmare to children of any sensitiveness. But even this is not so bad as the distorted view of events, characters, and parties which will be got from so one-sided an account. Let us by all means instil reverence for the men and the movements out of which our Protestant and republican institutions have grown; but a proper appreciation of these is not to be derived from the sensational pictures and stories contained in this book. They are fitted to make fanatics, not calm and earnest champions. The author takes pains, for example, to tell his readers that there were good and holy monks, but he gives pictures only of gross and sensual ones; and so far does he go in his caricature of history as to depict the ascetic statesman, Dunstan, as a fat and drunken barefooted friar (p. 34). In a book made up in the way this is it is not worth the trouble to search into special inaccuracies, but we should like to know the authority for the story (p. 18) of Richard Cœur de Lion feasting upon the bodies of his Saracen prisoners. By the way, the number of prisoners slaughtered by his orders in cold blood was not sixty thousand, but two thousand seven hundred—and those not prisoners, but hostages.

Miss Kirkland has composed her 'Short History of France, for Young People' (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.) in the way in which a history for young people ought to be written. That is, she has aimed to present a consecutive and agreeable story from which the reader can not only learn the name of kings and the succession of events, but can also receive a vivid and permanent impression as to characters, modes of life, and the spirit of different periods. The author has that rare quality among writers of history, knowing what to omit; and appreciates to the full that fundamental rule for a writer of children's histories—never to give a proper name or a date in the narrative which is not indispensable. The book is, therefore, admirably adapted to its purpose. Only the author has neglected a rule which is the complement of that given above, that the names and dates omitted in the narration should be given in abundant lists and tables. The reader should not be distracted, and the student confused, by such an infinity of detail as most writers of school histories seem to consider necessary; but he wants to have this matter at hand when he needs it. We advise Miss Kirkland, therefore, to expand her very brief table of contents into a summary of the matter contained in each chapter, and the list of kings into a complete chronological and genealogical table, and to add an index and two or three historical maps. This system of omissions has, moreover, its dangers; one must be on the watch to see that really necessary items are not passed over. For example, in this book we have an account (p.188) of the marriage of Henry of Navarre with Marguerite of Valois; we have no notice of their divorce in 1599, and his new marriage, but the reader is left to suppose that the queen crowned (p. 207) and the weak and unprincipled queen-mother (p. 210) are this same Marguerite of Valois, and to guess, as best he can, who is the Mary de' Medici mentioned at last on page 217. The statement (p. 393) that "M. Thiers was made President of the French Republic for a term of years" is incorrect. The effort to do this was made in August, 1871, but failed, and he remained what he had been before, "nothing more than the servant of the House, a first minister charged with executive powers."

Parents who have read 'The Cuckoo Clock' will take on trust Mrs. Molesworth's 'Grandmother Dear' (Macmillan), and will not be disappointed. It tells of some English children going to live with their grandmother in France. The *scene* of the story has not much to do with it; the author's concern is with the development of character, and seldom does one meet with the wisdom, tact, humor, and good-breeding which pervade this little book. Thoughtful girls in their teens, and even their rude brothers, will have their moral sense quickened by perusing it, and it has the rare merit of being suggestive to parents without becoming a story *about* children instead of *for* children. There are many indications that the personages are copied from real life; and whether they are or not, Mrs. Molesworth has given them an individuality and consistency which prove her literary art to be not inferior to her kindly insight and sound judgment in the management of the young.

In spite of an undue reverence for Prof. Max Müller and acceptance of the sun-myth theory in all its length and breadth—and thickness, we are tempted to add—Mr. John Thackeray Bunce's 'Fairy Tales: Their Origin and Meaning' (Macmillan) must be pronounced a useful book, fairly down to the level of childish comprehension, and simply and entertainingly composed. Nothing but good can come of the comparisons here instituted between the mythology and folk-lore of the several Aryan nations. Norse, Gaelic, German, Russian, Greek, and Indian fables are delightfully mingled, and their identity established with an effect quite broadening to the juvenile understanding. The book is beautifully printed and bound.

Mr. R. Caldecott's latest caricatures should not be overlooked by purveyors for the nursery. His 'John Gilpin' and 'House that Jack Built' (Routledge) are *sui generis*, and irresistibly funny as well as clever. One hardly knows which to admire most—the full-page color prints, or the outline sketches in the brown ink of the text. Happy the generation that is brought up on such masters as Mr. Caldecott and Walter Crane!

The Latin Speaker. Easy dialogues and other selections for memorizing and declaiming in the Latin language. By Frank Sewall, A.M. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1878.)—As far as can be gathered from the peculiar English in the preface of this book, the editor feels that the "deadness of our modern methods of teaching Latin" neutralizes all good results of its study, and fancies that a real classical renaissance can be brought about if pupils will only memorize and properly declaim their lessons. As a means to this end he has filled three-fourths of his book with selections from the Bible, Corderius, Erasmus, and the mediæval hymns, and the remaining fourth with genuine Latin from five standard authors—Horace alone furnishing the poetry. The extracts from the Bible and from Corderius are accompanied by an English translation; the remainder is the unadorned Latin text. The English of the Corderius is extremely bald, and would often be hardly intelligible without the presence of the original. The editor advocates the Continental method of pronouncing Latin, though by "Continental" he evidently means German. He deliberately proposes still further to "revitalize" Latin by giving its words the modern arrangement, and—ignoring the quantitative feature of the language—by having the poetry declaimed and sung with a strong accent. The spelling of the Latin words is simply scandalous in view of the results gained in this field by modern scholarship. The book bristles throughout with typographical errors, and the prevailing character of the editing leaves it doubtful to whom the hundreds of wrongly-marked quantities are due. As specimens of the style and scholarship of the work we give only these: "*Where will you be staid for*"? "*Father is returned out of France*"; "*It is good leisure that is consumed in honest business*"; "*meridiem*"; "*concio*"; "*coena*"; "*index*" (judge); "*prohiberit.*"

The aim of the author, if he had only intelligently recognized and pursued it, can be heartily commended, but the appearance of a book for educational purposes with such unscholarly and slovenly accompaniments must be earnestly deprecated.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 26, 1878.

The Week.

CONGRESS adjourned for the holidays on Friday. The Senate has passed the Pension and Postal-Car Deficiency bills, and a bill repealing the law which permits jury challenges on the ground of voluntary participation in the Rebellion. The House has passed the Indian Appropriation Bill without regard to the controversy now pending about the transfer. On Thursday Senator Burnside reported from his Joint Committee the voluminous Army Bill, whose preparation had been kept quite secret. Simultaneously the House Naval Committee has agreed upon a bill establishing a Board of Assistants to the Secretary of the Navy. The House Committee on Currency and Finance adjourned without being able to reach a conclusion, sane or insane, in regard to the wild measures that have been referred to it.

Southern outrage debates have come, since the practical settlement of the Southern question by the withdrawal of Federal interference, to have chiefly a theatrical value. If the Democratic leaders would once recognize the fact that a debate cannot be carried on by one side, these contests would come to an end. But this seems never to have occurred to them. Or rather, there is just enough left of the old sectional feeling, and of resentment at the process of reconstruction, to make it certain that if some one on the Republican side "arouses the passions of the war," some one on the Democratic will lose his head and "hurl back" the charges against "his people." There is no earthly reason why he should do so, for silence on the Democratic side would reduce Mr. Blaine's eloquence to mere sound and fury. But the Democrats learn slowly, and it will probably be some time before they discover how to baffle a sharp and unscrupulous adversary like Maine's "favorite son." In the late debate they got the worst of it, as usual; but they had their revenge afterwards. The Blaine resolutions were of course that gentleman's bid for the Presidency; but he apparently forgot in his eagerness that he had not only Democrats to deal with, but rivals within his own party. There are several other gentlemen in Congress who wish to be nominated in 1880, and they have no idea that Mr. Blaine shall run the "outrage-mill" as if he had proprietary rights in it. "Outrages" are no man's property, but are a common fund upon which all prominent party men have a right to draw. So when Mr. Blaine, after demanding an investigation of the recent alleged interferences with the freedom of elections in the South, refused point blank to go upon the committee, his behavior struck everybody as slightly unfair. To have two or three of his rivals placed on a specially appointed committee to grind out "capital" for his Presidential campaign while he retained control of the floor (he is by all odds the best speaker, so far as effectiveness and readiness go, in the Senate) was too much to ask. When, therefore, the debate was over, and the time for the appointment of the committee came, a most comical scene took place, in which Mr. Blaine tramped about the Senate trying to get members of that body to serve on it. No one would serve. Entreaty and exhortation were unavailing, and the Maine statesman finally had to content himself with a committee composed of the feeblest Republican material, with Mr. Teller at its head, and one or two very strong Democrats on the minority.

The first meeting of the Committee had some of the characteristics of a popular comedy. Only six of the nine members were present, and the proceedings began by an attempt on Mr. Bayard's part to get some of the "rudimentary facts," as the *Times* calls them, by moving that the President be requested to furnish the documents and testimony on which he based the "outrage portion" of his message. This seems harmless and rational enough, but the Republicans defeated it by a tie vote. Mr. Bailey then moved that Mr. Blaine be requested to furnish a few "specifications" on which the Committee might base their enquiry and carry out the instructions given in his resolution, and this was carried, and three members, two of them Republicans, then started for their homes to spend Christmas. Mr. Teller, the Chairman, then tried to "serve" a copy of the resolution on Mr. Blaine, who might naturally have been supposed to be watching eagerly the progress of this momentous inquest; but, strange to say, he could not be found. The Committee then determined to ask Mr. Thurman for a few "specifications," and afterwards adjourned until January 9. The truth is, be it painful or agreeable, that although it is the correct thing in the party for a politician to profess to be horrified by the outrages, and to storm about them in public, and threaten that he will not rest quietly in his bed another night without finding a remedy, after writing his fierce article or delivering his indignant philippic he smiles privately over the whole affair, and goes to bed and sleeps as sound as a top.

In the debate in the House on the bill referring the remaining claims in the Geneva award to the Court of Claims, Mr. Frye, of Maine, took a prominent part, showing that the insurance companies ought not to get anything, either because they made too much money during the war or because some of them have since become bankrupt, and he denounced the press which supports their claims as "hired." But his statements, even if true, are wholly irrelevant. The sole question Congress has to ask itself on this matter is, For what purpose or for what reason did we say we were entitled to this money, and for what purpose and for what reason was it awarded to us? If we claimed it for the insurance companies and they were not entitled to it, we were guilty of fraud; if it was awarded to us for the insurance companies on this claim, and we now refuse to give it to them, we are guilty of fraud. There is no abstruse law or statecraft about this; it is elementary morality, and when Mr. Frye declares he cannot see it, and becomes abusive and seeks to grab the money for charity ("poor men" who had lost by the war), what he needs is not a logician, but a patient Sunday-school teacher.

The matter has gone over till after the holiday recess, when a vote will be taken. One of the curious features of the discussion as it now stands is, that the Republican opponents of the bill are endeavoring to create a party division on it. The minority of the Judiciary Committee, although headed by McMahon, an out-and-out Democrat, are mainly Republicans, and nearly all the New England representatives (mainly Republicans also) follow their lead. On the other hand some of the best of the Western Republicans are known to be in favor of referring all the claims to the courts; but they remain perfectly dumb, and are allowing the mass of their party to be dragooned by the energetic New England Republicans into voting against the bill. The result will be, unless a decided change sets in before the recess is over, that the bill will be carried, if carried at all, mainly by Democratic votes, and if defeated, defeated by Republican votes.

General Sherman is probably right in his opinion that the new bill to reduce and reorganize the Army "will pass as a whole or fail altogether." His desire is to see it pass, and, with a legislative body accustomed to defer to experts, this fact and the unanimity of the Joint Congressional Committee who have framed the bill would go far to ensure its passage. The bill is naturally a long one, and the larger part of it has little interest for the public, consisting, as it

does, of minute regulations for all branches of the service. The maximum of the Army is placed at 25,000 men, but the reductions among the officers of all grades are compensated by temporarily enlarging the Retired List beyond the limits now fixed by law, and by creating a Reserved List, to be maintained for three years or at the pleasure of Congress. The cavalry regiments are reduced from ten to eight, the infantry consolidated to eighteen, with five artillery regiments. The military organization has for its head a so-called Corps of General Officers, consisting of one General, one Lieutenant-General, three Major-Generals, and six Brigadier-Generals, to be reduced as vacancies hereafter occur to two Major-Generals and four Brigadier-Generals. The General Staff succeeds, formed by the union of the Adjutant-General's and Inspector-General's departments. The Quartermaster's and Commissary departments are left separate, with reductions in each. The Pay Department, the most "political" of any, is but slightly disturbed; the Medical still less. The organization of the Engineers is left intact, but the manufacture of ordnance and ordnance stores by the Government is prohibited, and they must hereafter be purchased by contract or in open market. The chiefs of bureaus are to "act under the immediate direction and control of the Secretary of War, in all matters of accountability and administration not connected with military operations," and also as chiefs of staff to the Commanding General, and as such "report directly to him, and act under his immediate orders in all matters pertaining to the command of the Army." Promotions hereafter will be by seniority throughout the several lines, and not regimentally as now; and no promotion from below the rank of field officer will be made except after passing an examination. Among the changes affecting the Military Academy we notice that but one professor and one assistant professor of modern languages are allowed.

Mr. Albert Fink, one of the most, if not the most prominent railroad manager in the country, has been questioned by a reporter of the Chicago *Tribune* about the Reagan Inter-State Commerce Bill regulating railroad traffic. While believing that legislation can cure some of the evils of the existing situation, and that it is needed to cure them, he comments in strong terms on the wildness of attempting legislation with so little enquiry and consideration as were given to the Reagan Bill, which, as we showed last week, was passed with *ninety* minutes' debate. It is safe to say that in no other civilized country would an attempt to interfere with the management of $4,000,000,000 of capital have been made without a year or two of laborious enquiry, in which all interests would have received a careful and patient hearing. Mr. Fink, therefore, remarks that American railroad companies dislike legislative interference, not because they think it would do no good, but because "legislative enactments are not sufficiently well considered to reach the abuses." He gives one striking illustration of the haste and imperfection of the Reagan Bill: it would subject the Erie Railroad to a host of serious restrictions, but would not reach its great competitor, the New York Central, at all, because the latter lies wholly within the State of New York. He adds that what is most needed is to give legal force to the agreements between the great competing lines as to rates, the present trouble being largely due, in his opinion, to the fact that these agreements are broken and unjust discriminations made by subordinate agents. The difficulty with the average, and even with the superior, Congressman seems to be that he cannot be got to understand what a complicated and delicate piece of machinery the commerce of a country like this, in this age, is.

Silver-men are not, as a rule, strong in argumentation, but every now and then one of them exposes himself to some simple correction which can be brought home to him, and which it is therefore worth while to make. Thus, the Chicago *Tribune* the other day crowed over our comparison of the proposed legislation against the National Banks for using their legal right of option between the various legal tenders, to the doctrine about the powers of legislatures over the railroads produced during the Granger agitation at the West, because, says it, "the *Nation* cannot be so ignorant as not to be aware that this interference was approved as lawful by the Supreme Court of the United States." The *Nation* has never maintained or suggested that the proposed legislation against the banks would be unconstitutional or would not be approved by the Supreme Court. The Constitution permits almost immeasurable folly and mischief on the part of Congress. What we said, and thought any silver-man could understand, was that the attack on the banks would be unjust, immoral, foolish, ignorant, and inexpedient, whether it was lawful or not. One of the worst features in the silver mania is that its victims cannot distinguish between what is wise or right, and what an uproarious crowd of themselves choose to embody in a law. But there *is* a difference. The Silver Bill is law, but it is a mischievous and reprehensible law.

A curious conflict in Virginia between the State and Federal authorities was set forth last week in a message from the Governor to the Senate. Two negro defendants in a trial for murder in Patrick County had asked the court to reconstruct the jury so as to place on it some of their own race and color, duly qualified according to the laws of the State, on the ground that they could not expect an impartial trial by a white jury. The court refused this request, and they thereupon filed a petition for the removal of their cause to the United States Court; but this, too, being disregarded, after two trials a conviction was reached and sentence passed in the case of one of them. Their counsel then petitioned Judge Rives, of the United States Circuit Court, who issued a writ of habeas corpus, by which the prisoners were surrendered to the marshal of the district, and now await trial in the custody of the Federal authorities. Judge Rives depends, for justification of his action, on the Fourteenth Amendment, and on those sections of the Civil Rights Act which provide for removal in civil or criminal prosecutions wherever the party "is denied or cannot enforce in the judicial tribunals of the State, or in the part of the State where such suit is prosecuted, any right secured to him by any law providing for the equal rights of all citizens, or of all persons within the jurisdiction of the United States." The Attorney-General, reviewing this position, asserts that the right to be tried by a negro jury is not one of the rights conferred by the Constitutional Amendments or by the Civil Rights Act; that the offender against State law "can only demand to be tried as other citizens of the State charged with similar offences are tried"; that the removal provided for in §641 of the Revised States must relate to some right secured by the Amendments or the Civil Rights Act which has been denied or cannot be enforced; that "the trials of the Reynoldses in the Circuit Court of Patrick County were made to conform in every respect to the laws of the State. They were denied nothing which any white citizens could have rightfully claimed." He adds that the proper course for the defendants was to take a bill of exceptions to the Supreme Court of Appeals of the State, and thence, if need be, to the United States Supreme Court. As a remedy for the wrong which he conceives to have been done the State, he recommends application to the Supreme Court for a mandamus. Judge Tredway, whose jurisdiction was invaded, also favors this step, but thinks it possible that the Department of Justice, if applied to through the Executive, may take cognizance of the matter and afford redress.

The language of the Fourteenth Amendment being explicit in its inhibition to *States* and not to individuals, Judge Rives was forced to maintain that the denial of a right by any one of the three departments of a State is equivalent to a denial by the State, in the sense of the Amendment. This is certainly novel doctrine, and asserts a responsibility to the Federal Government for their judiciaries which the Southern States have heretofore supposed pertained to their leg-

islation alone. An "irreconcilable" judge accordingly might nullify all the virtue of enactments purporting in good faith to ensure perfect equality. In the second place, Judge Rives derives the right to a mixed jury from the very ample discretion allowed a judge, under the laws of Virginia, in determining the composition of juries, though not the remotest allusion is made to color in any part of them. As the Virginia papers well point out, an express provision for mixed juries would have perpetuated those distinctions of race and color which the South is endeavoring to blot out; and, as it is, nothing could be more grotesque than the employment of the Civil Rights Act to revive these distinctions in opposition to its own spirit and letter, and to the wishes of the white population of Virginia, where "*all* male citizens between the ages of 21 and 90, who are entitled to vote and hold office," are liable to jury duty.

The New England Dinner on Tuesday night had an unusual number of political dignitaries among the speakers—Mr. Sherman, Mr. Evarts, and Mr. Blaine among them. Mr. Evarts drew an amusing but not grossly exaggerated picture of the commercial future of this now united country, apparently making little account of "outrages," and predicted that before many years every inland town on the prairies would be a seaport, and swarm with sailors' boarding-houses. Mr. Blaine repeated the story of the settlement of New England, and of the influence which the population of that region had exerted on the rest of the country—which has a strangely familiar sound. Mr. Sherman spoke, as it was proper he should, mainly on finance, and in doing so paid Mr. McCulloch, who was present, the well-merited compliment of saying that if the policy instituted by him had been strictly pursued "we should have arrived at specie payments sooner, but the distress might have been sharper and the labor more severe." It is but fair to observe, however, that it is also probable that had Mr. McCulloch's policy been pursued from 1867 the frantic speculation which ended in the panic of 1873 would never have sprung up, and hundreds of millions of capital would not have been sunk in unproductive or only partially productive enterprises, and the various crazes about the greenback through which we have passed would probably not have broken out. In fact, there is plenty of reason for believing that Mr. McCulloch's road was the easiest after all.

The week, so far as financial and commercial events are concerned, has been a quiet one. Gold has ruled at par, the sales having been at par and a small broker's commission, varying from $\frac{1}{16}$ to $\frac{1}{64}$, and all classes show confidence in the successful beginning of specie payments. There is no reason now for believing that the transition from suspension to resumption by the Treasury will be accompanied with any more shock than is the transition from night to day. The Treasury gave notice early in the week that it will redeem, out of the proceeds of sales of 4 per cents, all the remaining 6 per cent. bonds of the issue of 1865. While all has gone so smoothly and satisfactorily in this country, financial and commercial affairs in England have been disturbed and agitated, but there have been no large failures. The Bank of England reserve has been reduced to less than 29 per cent. of liabilities. Discounts outside the Bank have advanced to 6 per cent., and advances on securities, corresponding to call loans in Wall Street, have been as high as 12 per cent. The Bank of England, however, has not advanced its posted rate for discounts above 5 per cent. Its receipts of gold from Paris and the Continent have been large, and the specie it has lost has not gone out of the country—a circumstance that probably accounts for the Bank rate being unchanged. The condition of the London money market has had the effect of advancing the rate for demand bills on London to 4.89, or within one-half a cent of the point that takes specie from us. This is the one unfavorable feature of the situation here respecting resumption. Silver has taken another tumble in London—to 49½*d.* per ounce—and the bullion value of the 412½-grain standard dollar here has fallen to $0.8391. Mexican dollars, which contain fully one per cent. more silver than do our standard dollars, but which have no legal-tender value, have sold in New York during the week at 85 to 84½ cents.

There appears to be no doubt any longer that Shir Ali has fled from Cabul, and that all regular resistance to the British advance is at an end. But the result is, of course, a sort of anarchy, tempered by the semi-independence of the various chiefs or sirdars, and upon the invader will devolve the task of setting up another government. In short, things have thus far run very much the same course as in 1839, when the real trouble only began after Dost Mahomet had run away. Doubtless the Indian Government will not attempt, as it did then, the mad enterprise of putting a puppet of its own on the throne, but there is great danger that any one who takes Shir Ali's place at its instigation or under its protection, or as a consequence of its attack on him, will be fatally discredited from the outset, and will have to rely more or less on foreign assistance for the enforcement of his authority. Should this prove true, it will dispose in a curious way of one of the leading Jingo arguments for the maintenance of the Sultan—namely, that if he was overthrown there would be no substitute for him. This is, in fact, the strongest objection to attacking any Eastern despot. If he is beaten the conqueror has to take his place. Jalalabad has been occupied without resistance, and even with a welcome from the inhabitants. The latest news is that Yakub Khan, the Amir's persecuted son, has been set up in his father's place by some of the sirdars, but he will need a British guarantee to hold his own.

The Russian mission lingered at Cabul after the Minister had withdrawn, but it is now announced that the mission has been withdrawn also, in obedience to orders from St. Petersburg, where friendship with Great Britain is the order of the day; and it is also reported that a definitive treaty with Turkey is at last on the point of completion, and that 100,000 of Todleben's troops will soon be on their way home. This pacific turn is, however, ascribed to internal troubles and the vague fear of Nihilism, which appears to grow stronger, and of late is supposed to have its principal seat in the universities, the students of which are at present at loggerheads with the police, and there is talk of closing the whole of them for a year. Of the hostility of the students to the constituted authorities there seems to be no doubt, and just as little that the universities are a hotbed of revolutionary ideas; and revolutionary ideas in Russia are radical in the strict sense of the word. This antagonism began in the reign of the Emperor Nicholas, who treated the universities very much as he did his regiments, and governed them through military and naval men. Under the present Emperor this régime has been greatly modified; but, on the other hand, the student class has been largely increased, and it is exposed to influences and ideas of which nothing was known in Nicholas's time.

The policy of the present Minister of Public Instruction has been to discountenance the study of natural science, as the source of mutiny and insubordination, and encourage that of the classics, as favorable to discipline and authority and to the state religion; but, of course, science being in the air, the principal result of this has been to make the dead languages seem the symbol of tyranny and reaction, and give a sort of conspirators' zest to the cultivation of all scientific ideas which seem to belittle the existing social organization. General Perfilieff, the chief of the gendarmerie at Moscow, says that so far back as 1874 7,000 young men were expelled for radicalism, and he gave it as his solemn opinion that the Nihilists were mainly recruited among the collegians. The remedy for the trouble seems to be in giving up the classical régime and letting science have its way. If it were plain that the Government was not afraid of it, the students would probably care less about it. The universities, too, have been deprived of the limited amount of self-government they once enjoyed, and this, of course, is another source of hostility to the Government.

RESUMPTION.

THE United States will have resumed specie payments before our next issue reaches our readers, after seventeen years of suspension. We shall not then be wholly clear of trouble, because the Government will have after January 1 entered on the performance of an entirely new function—that of a bank of issue, which is, we believe, a novelty in the history of finance. To what degree the Treasury is fitted for the proper discharge of such a duty, and what will be the particular dangers to which it will be exposed in the discharge of it, it is useless as yet to discuss. It is enough for the present to say that if specie payments be maintained even for three months, in company with a continuance of the improvement in business which everybody acknowledges, it will ruin utterly the argument of impracticability, which is the strongest the opponents of resumption have had to offer. Their attempts to show that we ought not to resume have not been half as effective as their attempts to show that we could not resume. Whatever may be the dangers which, after three months of resumption, may be still ahead, owing either to the possibility of a turn in the balance of trade or the increasing abundance of silver, people will refuse to trouble their heads about them, and will settle down into the belief that the Treasury will for ever hereafter pay one hundred cents on the dollar, and they will insensibly adapt their business and their way of thinking on all business matters to this belief. Contracts and transactions of all sorts will grow up on it, and thus create a powerful body of influence against any other change, which will be very effective in preventing any other change, just as the growth of transactions on the irredeemable currency created a powerful body of influence hostile to resumption, which furnished a strong obstacle to resumption. The way in which business is reviving, too, is likely to prove very favorable to the growth of steady and sound views about the currency. The revival does not really consist, according to all the best accounts, in a great increase of demand for commodities so much as in a restoration of confidence between dealers—that is to say, sellers have again begun to believe that they can safely give credit to buyers, and buyers have begun to show the caution which is one of the most marked characteristics of men who mean to pay what they promise. The speculative class, who were heavily encumbered with the *débris* of the good old times before the panic, and who really furnished the strongest element to the inflationist agitation, have been almost entirely ruined and have disappeared from the markets. Inflation now would come too late to save them. Even two years ago a good many of them were still struggling and clamoring for relief, but few if any now survive. In short, in the figurative slang of the street, "we have touched bottom," or rather "we have been walking on the bottom for some time." So that those whose rise will now begin, and whose opinions about financial matters will be most powerful during the next ten years, are either steady-going persons who have, through their prudence, avoided shipwreck during the last ten years, or beginners who start with the lessons of disaster fresh in their minds. Both classes will be opposed to speculative finance and to a fluctuating currency. Though last not least, resumption will have the support of that readiness to accept accomplished facts which forms so prominent a feature in the American temperament, and works such wonders in American politics. There is no country in which so little time is spent in vain regrets, and in which it is so hard to get up a movement in favor of undoing the done, and in which there is so little interest in the things that might have been. It is this which has really proved the greatest difficulty in the way of the opponents of the Resumption Act since its passage; and it will prove a still greater in the way of those who will still sigh for irredeemable paper.

The mode in which we have reached resumption is worth study. A history of the fluctuations of opinion about it, and of the various legislative attempts to deal with it since the close of the war, would be a contribution of considerable value to financial literature. It would illustrate both the great difficulty there is in bringing the experience of mankind to bear on legislation and the effect of legislation in debauching public opinion. Every debate in Congress touching the currency since 1862 contains several speeches in which there is no trace of knowledge that any experiments in money had been tried before our time, or that any nation had wrestled before us with the problems we had to solve. Many more, while exhibiting this knowledge, treat it as of no value, and deal with the whole matter on the assumption that the people of the United States are a "chosen people," who need not pay one hundred cents on the dollar if they do not wish to do so. We all remember how rapidly the theory grew up that in the greenbacks we had stumbled, by a happy accident, on a new mode of acquiring wealth and avoiding financial convulsions, and how rapidly, as the years went by, the remembrance that they were ever looked on as promissory notes began to fade, and how rapidly, too, in many minds, they began to wear the air of weapons of war, like a grandfather's sword or musket, hallowed by associations, and unfit subjects for scientific examination or treatment. In fact, there is hardly any species of delusion or aberration about money, or its nature or functions, which might not be illustrated from the legislation or articles and speeches of the last seventeen years. No matter in what age they may have worked ruin, or in what condition of darkness or ignorance they may last have appeared, or how long it may have been since they were buried, out they came in the fierce light of American politics, and stalked about calmly under the fire of thousands of newspapers, pamphlets, and sermons.

The story is interesting, too, perhaps most interesting, as an illustration of the way in which under a popular government the rational, reflective, remembering element in society protects itself and civilization against folly and ignorance. The combat is carried on not by compact battalions, bearing down everything by sheer weight and volume, but by swarms of skirmishers, each pegging away from whatever position he deems best, now advancing and now retiring, as the nature of the ground may dictate, but all the while keeping up a steady fire, sometimes on a visible but more frequently on an invisible enemy, and for the most part without knowing until near the end what impression has been made. It may be said, in truth, that the victory in this case has been almost wholly due not to any political party or to any body of financiers, but to the unfaltering exertions of newspapers and ministers, acting without concert and addressing audiences which might, for the most part, be called hap-hazard. As a general rule, throughout the whole country, the ministers in all discourses in which they touched on public affairs (and such discourses recur now with increasing frequency) have treated financial heresies as a form of sin—as, in fact, disguised attempts to cheat, and thus helped greatly to keep the steadiest-going and most influential portion of the population sound on the main question. As a general rule, too, the qualities which made men editors or proprietors of leading newspapers kept their heads clear on the currency question, and enabled them to pursue with unsparing rigor the various fallacies which made their appearance in it. Without the powerful, subtle, and all-pervading opposition which emanated from these two sources to schemes of folly or knavery, it is all but certain that the active politicians of both parties would early in the struggle have tried some huge financial experiment which would have ended in wreck and repudiation.

THE SITUATION IN AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

THE ministerial crisis on both sides of the Leitha, brought about by the occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, is slowly drawing to a close. In the Hungarian half of the dualistic monarchy, Count Andrássy's foreign policy has obtained the qualified support of both houses of the national legislature, and on December 7 a royal rescript announced the definitive continuance in office, with some changes, of the Tisza Cabinet, which for a number of weeks had been acting only provisionally. In Cis-Leithan Austria, the Assembly of which is much less favorably disposed toward the common Minister of Foreign Affairs, the remains of the Auersperg Cabinet, under the leading influence of Baron de Pretis, will pro-

bably continue their provisional administration to the end of the deliberations, now held at Pesth, of the delegations for common affairs of the Vienna Reichsrath and the Hungarian Diet. In the Austrian delegation, as a telegram of December 7 has it, Andrássy obtained a victory in the rejection of the report of its Budget Committee, which recommended postponement of the discussion of the supplementary estimates demanded for the occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina until the Reichsrath had given the delegation an opinion on the Treaty of Berlin; a proposed motion, on the other hand, for a vote of confidence in the Common Administration was quietly dropped. An expression of opinion on the part of the Hungarian Diet had been obtained by its delegation, and consequently, on December 14, after three days' stormy debates, it voted by a large majority twenty million florins for occupation expenses of next year. This large majority suffices to overbalance, on joint ballot, an adverse majority of the Austrian delegation, if any such should declare itself; for in the latter the supporters and opponents of the Foreign Office are nearly equal in number. Thus Andrássy is sure of being sustained; but a glance at the parliamentary discussions preceding this stage of affairs will show the extraordinary embarrassments under which he labors. His position, in fact strongly resembles that of a captain of a badly-shattered ship, who, in tempestuous waters, is not only doomed constantly to ward off collisions with stronger craft, but is generally at the most critical moments harassed by the dissensions and mutinous clamors of his own crew.

When the Hungarian Diet and the delegations were convened the successful issue of the unexpected military contest in Bosnia was achieved, but the victory was far from satisfying any considerable portion of the people in either half of the monarchy, excepting, perhaps, the Croats. The five diverse draughts of an address to the Crown presented in the Pesth House of Representatives show, in a striking way, how differently the Bosnian enterprise is judged by parliamentary groups belonging to different nationalities and parties, and how little favor it has found even with the supporters of the Government, the Liberal Magyar majority. Let us begin with the draught emanating from the weakest group, and presented by three Serb members of the Diet. It regards the Austrian intervention from a purely South-Slavic, more properly Servian, standpoint (which means, Bosnia ought to be Servia's), and condemns it as hostile to the interests and aspirations of the Slavs delivered from the Turkish yoke; as likely to convert them into bitter enemies of Austria-Hungary, ready to throw themselves into the arms of Russia; as the outgrowth of an internal policy consciously directed against the Slavic populations of Hungary, and destined—it is threateningly added—to lead to convulsions in the latter kingdom as dangerous as those which have just rent Turkey. The address presented by the Croat members of the Diet is, of course, equally dictated by Slavic sentiments, but it speaks approvingly of the occupation, provided it is to be converted into annexation, and the annexed provinces are to be incorporated with the Croato-Slavonian Kingdom—and thus to strengthen the latter for a future severance of the ties binding it to Hungary.

The address of the United Opposition, composed of the Conservatives and a fraction of the former Liberal party, condemns the policy of the Government from a properly Hungarian stand-point, as venturesome and aimless, and lacking national initiative. The occupation depends upon a mandate of foreign powers, and is limited by foreign interpretations. It wastes and misdirects the resources of the country. It has been undertaken and is carried on without the two parliaments having been consulted, or even frankly informed about its expediency or aims. This policy is thus neither constitutional nor national; the present advisers of the Crown have lost the confidence of the nation; a new Cabinet must be formed, the principal object of which is to be the counterbalancing of the Russian predominance in the Balkan Peninsula. The address and a separate resolution presented by the members of the Extreme Left or Party of Independence—aiming at the reduction of the connection between Hungary and Cis-Leithan Austria to a merely personal union, and often, as in this case, receiving its inspiration from Kossuth—denounces Andrássy's policy in much more violent terms, declaring it to be the result of an intimate understanding with Gortchakoff, sanctioned at a meeting of the Emperors of Russia and Austria at Reichstadt in 1876; fatal to the national independence of Hungary; perfidious toward a friendly state, the Turkish; and, as carried out, regardless of constitutional limitations. For illegal subserviency to this unnational foreign policy of the Common Ministry the impeachment of the Hungarian Cabinet of M. Tisza is demanded in the resolution.

The address of the Liberals—which *was* adopted—though intended to uphold both Andrássy and Tisza, and to shield them against attacks based on illegality and lack of patriotism, is yet strongly guarded in its expressions referring to the Bosnian enterprise. It acknowledges the duty of the Hungarian Cabinet to account for the foreign policy it supports, independently of the common Government's defence of it before the delegations. It directs his Majesty's attention to the great anxiety created in the country by the late military enterprise. It cannot suppress the enquiry whether, in the most favorable case, the aim attainable can be proportionate to the heavy sacrifices demanded. It does not dare to doubt the temporary character of the occupation. It emphasizes the conviction that his Majesty's loyalty to the constitutionally expressed wishes of his nations will prevent any attempt to transcend the line of occupation and administration marked out by the Treaty of Berlin. It points out the financial burdens and political difficulties connected with the trust received, however brief the term of its execution may be. It protests against all desire for external expansion. The nation wants peace; and, though ready to sacrifice it, as well as its last drop of blood, in defence of the monarchy, it is anxious to hoard its strength for the moment of real peril.

The enemy who threatens that peril—none of the Magyar fractions of the Diet disguises it—is Russia, in her onward march toward Pan-Slavic rule. The Extreme Left declare the enemy *ante portas*, triumphant through Austro-Hungarian treason or imbecility, which neglected the recent opportunity of crippling him for a time and strengthening a bastion now crumbled. The men of the United Opposition see the danger more slowly approaching, and announce their readiness to fight it, if the command is placed in their hands, more energetically and more directly than those now in power, whose only arms seem to be ambiguity and procrastination, and whose present doings betoken as little wisdom as their former masterly inactivity. The Liberals see the situation in nearly the same light, but the command is in the hands of their chiefs, whom they pity rather than condemn, attributing the neglect and blunders committed to the fatalities of a position created by internal antagonisms of race, financial exhaustion, and powerful pressure from above and without. Andrássy is better than his policy, and his successor's—who is not likely to be a Hungarian—would probably be much worse than his. Andrássy must be kept at his post, and what is his own in the policy he is forced to pursue must be sustained. The Serb and Croat members of the Diet alone are not afraid of the Russians. Hungary must fall before Croatia is threatened, and Servia hopes both to profit by that fall and to escape the grasp of the conquerors.

In the Vienna Reichsrath the want of unity is still greater, and so also is the dissatisfaction with the foreign policy of the Government. The supporters of Andrássy are in a minority in the Lower House, though he is timidly sustained in the Upper; but both his opponents and supporters form numerous fractions, none of which seems to be capable of creating a definitive Cis-Leithan Cabinet, or giving weight to a definite policy. The groups of Constitutionalists, Progressists, Federalists, etc., are divided and subdivided, and agree only in a feeling of languid discontent, bred of utter powerlessness to cope with the difficulties of the situation. The fear of Russia is general, but the sacrifices required for checking her advance with the aid of foreign Powers appear out of proportion to the imminence of the danger, and the ways of doing it are widely diver-

gent. To follow the lead of the Magyars would be precipitating the crisis; a Slavic policy in opposition both to them and the Russians would deprive the Monarchy both of its main internal strength and of the advantages of a neutral attitude abroad. The Czechs of Bohemia abstain from participation in the Reichsrath, in which, if present, they would play a part similar to that of the Croats in the Hungarian Diet. Their Moravian friends now and then abstain from voting. The Polish members are divided among themselves, the bulk of them voting in favor of Andrássy from fear of a less anti-Russian successor in the Foreign Office, after hearing the eloquent denunciations of his vacillating policy by their colleague, Hausner, made in the most glowing language of Polish patriotism.

THE INFLUENCE OF RECENT INVENTIONS ON CREDULITY.

THERE is a certain reaction against the conservatism of scientific men at the present time, and the uneducated man believes that chance and genius outweigh years of the careful accumulation and sifting of facts. The practical man says that the telephone and the phonograph were not discovered by scientific men, and rapidly concludes that a blacksmith can by a lucky discovery in magnetism overturn the science of a century. This credulity is largely due to the wonderful inventions of the telephone and the phonograph. Both of these instruments, however, were developments of what was already known to science, and did not involve any new form or principle. It is, to say the least, improbable at this stage of the world's progress that an ignorant or a merely practical man should discover a new force in Nature. That dame certainly does not put a premium on ignorance. It is true that an ignorant but observing man may, with the command of a drug-store, mix together substances, and after several years discover a new glaze for pottery, a new non-conductor of electricity or heat, or a preparation of rubber. Great practical discoveries may be made in this way; but they are limited to materials, and do not extend into the domain of forces. We hear much at the present time about new magnetic motors. One inventor professes to have made a great discovery in magnetism—that of the neutral line—and builds a machine which converts magnetism into motion without the expenditure of any energy. In other words, he asserts that perpetual motion is possible. Newspapers in good standing publish editorials on this new motor, and repeat the assertion of the friends of the inventor without contradiction, that he is about to lift himself by his boot-straps. In a room where ten college graduates are present there will be at least five who are willing to listen to arguments on the possibility of perpetual motion, and it would not be difficult to convert the other five. There are many ingenious mechanics who are wasting their lives at the present moment because they have not imbibed the principles of the conservation of energy and the dissipation of energy. One might read a long lecture upon the proper study of the "New Physics" in schools, but we forbear.

It is said that a new magnetic motor is about to be given to the world by Miss Hosmer. Statements are made of the stupendous effects which this motor is to produce—that twenty horse-power is to be obtained by the use of four or five voltaic elements; which conclusively proves that all scientific men are noodles, and that the makers of the new motor are afraid to touch it off lest the new engine cannot be controlled. This reminds one of the mechanic who once repaired to a vacant lot, built a shanty, and constructed a perpetual-motion machine. After it was finished he feared that he could not control it when it was once started; he therefore spent many months in deep thought over the problem, and devised various forms of brakes, but none completely satisfied him. Finally, an impatient stockholder in the enterprise advised him to take the consequences of starting the engine, and having repaired to a safe distance awaited the result—which the world never heard of. We do not say that Miss Hosmer has not invented a magnetic motor; but we maintain that she will not get one hundred and one per cent. efficiency out of it, as many are ready to believe. And if she succeeds in getting an economical motor which will develop enough power to run a sewing-machine even, she will be more fortunate than the brightest inventive minds in America or Europe have been.

Magnetism is a mystery to the common mind, and is, indeed, to a certain extent to the man of science; but, taking for granted its presence, one has only to deal with opposing forces which are completely in the domain of mechanics. Why is it that there is no mystery in the popular mind in regard to the force of gravity? This force is more mysterious than all others, for we have never got beyond what Newton knew, and we have far greater knowledge of magnetics and electricity than Faraday had in his time. It is because the force of gravity acts everywhere, and its results are matters of daily experience. If new discoveries are to be made in magnetism, one can safely affirm that it will not be by the employment of tenpenny nails and pocket-magnets. The most delicate and refined apparatus must be used at the present time to detect a manifestation of magnetism or electricity which has escaped the observation of a generation of skilled observers. We have heard during the past five years of several new forces. The Etheric Force of Mr. Edison was readily proved to be a manifestation of induction. The new Mechanical Effect of Light which Prof. Crookes thought he had discovered is found to be an effect of heat, and supports instead of detracting from the molecular theory of heat; and the Psychic Force is still left to the phonetic spellers of the spirit-land. It is perfectly safe to assure the inventive talent of this country that flying-machines may have a future; that human speech may be transmitted beneath the ocean or around the globe; that a steam-engine may be made of double the efficiency of the best compound engine in present use; that a member of the City Council may be able to perceive or detect the odors of his favorite city at twice the distance now possible to him. But that results which prove that the force of gravity acts in the direction contrary to its present direction; that Ohm's law is wrong; that heat can be converted into one hundred and fifty per cent. of work—or, in other words, that perpetual motion is possible—are assertions all contrary to possibilities in this world. Many lives are misspent from ignorance, and will continue to be until the New Physics are carefully taught to the multitude in secondary schools. Our leading papers announce in semi-editorial form that Mr. Gary proposes from the power obtained from permanent magnets, which he states will run a small motor without the expenditure of energy or loss of magnetism, to run a dynamo-electric machine and produce the electric light at no expense. In the best dynamo-electric machines of the present day only about one-seventh to one-sixth of efficiency is obtained, and nearly one horse-power is required to produce each electric lamp in the present system of lighting. Truly, this new motor will revolutionize the world, for here is horse-power without horses or their equivalent. The editor of a paper should evidently have a training in physics, at least so far as to disbelieve in perpetual motion and its correlatives.

An English writer in *Nature* denounces what he is pleased to term "the effervescing nature of the American press" in relation to new so-called scientific discoveries, and in due honesty and self-respect we must cry, "Peccavimus!" But the growth of the evil, side by side with marked improvement in other directions, is to be ascribed in a large degree to the effects of the "interviewing" system on the "reportorial corps." When interviewing first came into use—that is, about a dozen years ago—the public confidence in the reporter himself was nearly exhausted, and his own accounts of signs and wonders found but little market. The doctrine that what one "saw in the papers" must be untrue was beginning to take fast hold of the public mind. If this state of things had lasted a little longer, editors would almost certainly have been driven into exercising more strict supervision over the reporter, and he would have been driven into sobermindedness and veracity in order to get employment. At this juncture, however, it was discovered, almost in a night, that by going to somebody of note and having a talk with him, and reporting what he said in the form of a dialogue, as if his exact words had been taken down, the popular curiosity might be stimulated to an extraordinary degree, and the sorriest penny-a-liner that ever drew pencil could produce stuff which would form the town-talk for a week. By a judicious use of both flattery and intimidation—that is, by converting the interview into a puff or a means of ridicule and annoyance, as each case might seem to require—submission to the reporter's questioning has gradually come to be regarded as one of the unavoidable incidents of American life, like taxation or jury duty. Hardly any one has now the courage to refuse it, so that there is rarely a report of an interview which has not *some* foundation, or which is capable of being flatly contradicted, or of being clearly and neatly explained away. The consequence is that every interview attracts some attention and credence. Charlatans, as well as statesmen and philosophers, make it a medium for gaining access to the popular ear. Discoveries in science and new theological theories find their way to publicity through this channel, along with views of the political situation, and defences against charges of fraud, and expositions of the feelings of women whose husbands are going to be hanged. Nearly everything, in short, except descriptions of natural scenery, which the reporter has to say to the public is sooner or later thrown into the form of conversation with somebody who is supposed to know all about it, and thus gets an

air of authenticity which newspaper statements have never had before, and which really makes it almost useless for any paper to cultivate sobriety of judgment or accuracy of statement. An editor who did so would probably find himself discredited every other day by a rival who had got the very thing he threw doubts upon from the lips of Sir William Thomson or Professor Baird or the Amir of Afghanistan. To be sure, it might be possible to show afterwards that the reported conversation was a sorry hoax, but the public would have got its impression and would not trouble its head much about the refutation or explanation.

The popular credulity may be greatly fostered in this way, and has been greatly fostered. The interview has persuaded people there is "something" in nearly every wonderful story, and when a man once gets in the twilight of semi-belief, by bringing him plenty of strange news the amount of absurdity he may be made to swallow in the course of a year is very great. Then the scientific man proper has never stood nearly as well with plain people as the inventor, and has never been looked upon as nearly as capable a person. Of two scientific men, the one who produces something that a joint-stock company can be built upon will be more readily listened to than the mere promulgator of laws, because he has submitted himself to a test that everybody can understand. There is, too, a sort of popular presumption that a very successful man in commerce or industry could be a great scientific man if he turned his mind to it. There are multitudes among us who would not have been at all surprised if the late A. T. Stewart had discovered a law of nature which the Academy of Sciences had heard nothing of, and Miss Hosmer's success in producing salable-statues is an invaluable preparation for the announcement that she has hit on perpetual motion. If Newton had gone to work and made a paying "gravity railroad," for purposes of transportation, he would stand higher with a great many as a philosopher than he does to-day.

THE EARLY MEETING OF PARLIAMENT.

London, Dec. 11, 1878.

POLITICALLY speaking, we are in the midst of a season of recrimination. Parliament met, for a short and extraordinary session, upwards of a week ago, and both for some time before it and ever since the air has been dark with mutual inculpations. The Afghan war has begun in earnest, and has thus far been substantially successful. Whatever opposition may still await the English advance, there has been none, as yet, of a formidable character. Parliament has been called to be put *au courant*, as it were, of the affair, and for some nights past has been actively discussing it. It was only a few days before the Queen's speech that the very voluminous papers relating to the whole Afghan episode were made public; but though the Opposition has bitterly complained of this delay and of the insufficient time allowed for looking into them, I cannot perceive that they have been oppressed by these bewildering documents or have overlooked any choice morsels of evidence that might serve to feather their arrows. I cannot pretend to have even partially kept an account of the charges and counter-charges that have been extracted from this rich repository, and I must confess that the whole spectacle seems to me a not particularly edifying one. It is, perhaps, of the absolute essence of an Opposition to make an arrow, as the French say, of any wood—to invent occasions when none offer themselves, to cultivate agitation for agitation, just as people nowadays cultivate art for art. If this be the case, the Liberal party, in so far as it is represented by most of its official spokesmen, may flatter itself on conforming to its ideal. It is certainly true that there are a good many natural occasions for criticising the Government, but I suspect that, to the country at large, they are not such completely happy ones as they appear to Mr. Gladstone and his friends. Mr. Gladstone has, apparently, a very good case against the present Cabinet, in fixing upon them the responsibility of that change in the attitude of the Afghan ruler which has led to the actual complications. The Government has attempted, with a good deal of resolution and ingenuity, to rebut, or, rather, to anticipate, the charge of having put the Amir off—of having thrown him into the arms of the Russians. Just before the Afghan papers were published Lord Cranbrook, the present Secretary for India, issued a despatch, nominally addressed to Lord Lytton, but in reality addressed to the newspapers. This document contains a summary of the intercourse between the Amir and Lord Lytton's predecessor in office, and in a certain 9th paragraph—it is always spoken of now as the "famous" 9th paragraph—Lord Cranbrook attempted by insinuation to establish the fact that Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet refused in 1873 to give Shir Ali those assurances of protection against Russian aggression which were necessary for keeping on good terms with him. This intimation was promptly and indignantly refuted—first by the Duke of Argyll, who was Secretary for India during a large part of the last Liberal administration, and then by Mr. Gladstone, in the powerful (not to say the violent) and characteristic speech which he delivered to his Greenwich constituents a few days before the opening of Parliament. The late Government appears to have given Shir Ali rigidly reasonable satisfaction on the subject of his liability to Russian approaches; this comes out clearly enough in the papers submitted to Parliament. If a change took place in his feelings and conduct, it coincides with the coming into power of the present Administration and the adoption of a new and aggressive policy by Lord Lytton. Such, at least, is the contention of the present critics of the Government and the charge brought with vehement elaboration by Mr. Gladstone. According to this theory Lord Lytton, as soon as he got to India, began, in harmony with the tendencies of an "imperial" policy, to bully Shir Ali and to urge that demand to which the latter had always consistently refused to give a moment's hearing—the admission into his dominions of permanent British representatives. The Amir had made it clear that concession on this point was hopeless; is it, therefore, true that Lord Lytton's purpose was simply to pick a quarrel—to drive the Amir, by insisting on the impossible, into an offensive act which would offer a pretext for an invasion? It is not necessary to adopt this hypothesis, which has become one of the commonplaces of Liberal criticism. If Lord Lytton had been in so truculent a mood it is probable that he would have been better prepared to carry out his policy than the incident of three months ago found him.

By the terms of the Queen's speech Parliament has been called to discuss the Afghan question alone; her Majesty makes no mention of anything else, not even of the great distress prevailing throughout the country, and which in the manufacturing districts, at the beginning of a winter which threatens to be a much severer one than either of the two that have preceded it, has reached terrible proportions. This reticence has been made a reproach to the royal address, but it is highly probable that it springs from an amiable cause. The Government had a natural desire to conciliate the large body of gentlemen whom it has brought up to town at a period at which town is extremely unpleasant to the mind of the governing classes, deprived suddenly of the recreations and luxuries in which their rural retreats are so prolific. It shrank from laying before them a long list of *agenda*, and confined itself to what was necessary for the moment. Later in the winter, when Parliament reassembles, there is to be another Queen's speech, when other questions more or less embarrassing will be presented. The present lively episode will very soon come to an end; as far as the House of Lords is concerned it has already practically done so. The Lords divided last night on the vote of censure on the Government which had been moved by Lord Halifax, with the result of 65 in the Opposition against 201 with the Cabinet; thus giving the latter a majority of 136. The amendment moved in the House of Commons (that it "disapproves the conduct of her Majesty's Government which has resulted in the war with Afghanistan") is still under discussion, but it is not to be expected that it will have a very different issue. In writing six weeks ago I said that the theory that the Liberal party was "coming up" seemed, on the whole, to be premature; and it is probable that the fate of the present attempt to discredit the Cabinet will confirm this impression. This is the more remarkable because the conduct of the Government appears in several particulars distinctly discreditable. Mr. Gladstone charges them with duplicity of the deepest dye, besides the misdemeanor of having prevented the country from speaking its mind about the war. This, however, is only part of the duplicity—the charge being that Lord Beaconsfield had set his heart upon taking a slice of Afghanistan long before the last session was over, and that in spite of these criminal designs he wore an innocent face and never gave a hint of Lord Lytton's little game. If he had given such a hint and the country could have spoken earlier, would it have spoken very differently? I must incline to doubt it; I suspect that the country is most disposed just now to make the best of what it has. The Government has a word which is not perhaps of absolutely magical influence, but which is still a better name to conjure with than anything in the possession of its adversaries. The Government can always say "Russia"; the Opposition can say nothing so good as that. The Government does not tell a straight story, nor does it act, by any means, a straight part. There have been in its deportment half a dozen of those flagrant contradictions to which it is easy to call attention. Lord Beaconsfield, in his Guildhall speech, five weeks ago, announced that his purpose in proceeding against Afghanistan was to secure a "scientific frontier." The expression, like several other

of Lord Beaconsfield's expressions, has become classical, and is a very good specimen of that gift of plausible phrase-making by means of which he renders a not strikingly intellectual band of followers the brilliant service of supplying it with formulas after the fact. In other communications of the Government, however, and notably in the Queen's speech, we hear nothing whatever about a frontier, scientific or otherwise; her Majesty declaring that she has gone to war with the Amir simply because he was hostile, and because he repulsed a friendly mission. In the same way the Government affirms at one time that they have never departed from the line of the late Administration in their relations with Shir Ali; and at another time they make it a virtue that they *have* so departed, in order to keep off the Russians.

The most damaging inconsistency, however, of which the Cabinet has been guilty is the disparity between its course in holding Shir Ali to account, and its acceptance, as against Russia directly, of the Czar's mission to Cabul. Lord Salisbury applied to the Russian Government for an explanation of this step and received an almost ludicrously insufficient one. He was told that it was merely a mission of courtesy, and he made the best of this piece of irony, but at the same time the Cabinet prepared to fall upon the Amir for having received the delegation. The strong, active power enjoys impunity, and a penalty is to be extorted from the weak, passive one. This is a fact of which even a feeble opposition could easily make capital, and I am surprised that it has not actually been turned to account by the Liberal leaders. It figures effectively in Mr. Gladstone's passionate diatribes, but one is a little startled at its finding even moderate tolerance with an English public. It involves the sort of accusation of which the English spirit is, justly, least patient — the charge of choosing an adversary with an eye to his size, and striking a blow only where it is safe. But the patience I speak of here is doubtless less real than it appears; the country takes very little pleasure and finds very little glory in the idea of getting the better of poor Shir Ali. It has not the least desire to obliterate or annex him; it only believes, in a general way, that sentimental considerations should not allow him to interfere with the safety of India. The Government for the time believes, or affirms that it believes, that it is in his power so to interfere, and the country is willing to assent. The fierce discussions of the last month—the papers have been flooded with letters on the subject—must strike a good many reasonable people as to a considerable extent a mere beating of the air. Whether Mr. Gladstone's Government were a little more or a little less alive to the dangers of Russian expansion—a little more or a little less ready to listen to Shir Ali's fears on this subject; whether Lord Lytton has pressed the Amir overmuch and occasionally been too emphatic in his diction—all this seems ancient history.

Mr. Gladstone's taunts about truckling to Russia and bullying the Amir lose part of their force from his failure to convey any inspiring, or even definite, notion of what, given the circumstances, he himself would do. Would he demand satisfaction of Russia? Mr. Gladstone is far from saying so. Given the circumstances, I say; for the country perforce accepts the circumstances. The question of who produced them may have a psychological interest, but cannot be said to have any practical bearing. If one is not pledged to look at the matter through partisan spectacles one may perhaps be free to conjecture that, like many other disagreeable things, they came about very naturally. Like Topsy in the novel, they "growed." One may safely believe that Shir Ali was never very fond of his English neighbors, and that it required no great bungling to put him out of conceit of them. It would have required great positive tact and liberality to keep him consistently well disposed, and it is certainly evident that neither under the last Administration nor the present did these virtues superabound. If Lord Lytton has been too harsh, as incontestably he has, his predecessors were curiously meagre and stingy. There is a real "imperial" policy as well as a false one, and from the point of view of the former strictly it is not consoling to see, in retrospect, Mr. Gladstone's Government bargaining and haggling over their assurances of support to the Amir—or, at least, measuring them out with such almost pedantic minuteness. That Russia even now is acutely sensible of a check at this point I very much doubt; but since the Russian question was always looming larger Shir Ali was worth spending some ingenuity upon. It would have been so much gained. Now that decidedly he is being treated in another fashion there is a natural dread of making any more mistakes. Therefore, though the treatment allotted to him is not at all popular, there is an equally natural feeling that it is most patriotic not to interfere with it; and it will be from a vague, shapeless, not especially self-complacent reason of this sort that the Government will escape any degree of censure that it needs to take into account. It will not perhaps have been strengthened by the calling of Parliament, but it will certainly not have been weakened.

Correspondence.

MR. G. H. LEWES AND THE *LEADER*.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Is it worth while to correct an error in the very justly appreciative notice of George Henry Lewes in the *Nation* of December 12?

The writer says: "In 1849 he founded the *Leader*." The *Leader* was founded by Thornton Hunt and myself; or say originated, if the shareholders who formed the company for its establishment are to be considered as founders. Those shareholders were the Rev. Edmund Larken, M. Morgan, W. E. Forster, Hunt, Lewes, Thomas Ballantyne, W. J. Linton, and our paper-maker and printer. Thornton Hunt was general manager; Ballantyne and myself were joint editors, the foreign department being exclusively mine; Lewes was literary editor only.

W. J. Linton.

'JOHN-A-DREAMS.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit us to set you right in one small matter. In your notice of the novel 'John-a-Dreams,' in your number of this date, you say:

"We wonder who is responsible for the alteration of the motto on the title-page. The English copies have a line or two from 'Hamlet' which indicate the origin of the title, whereas the present title would suit any other book as well."

The motto on the title-page of our edition is the same as that on the English copy from which it was printed. We appended to our *advertisements* the line from "Hamlet" to which you refer—"Like John-a-Dreams, unpregnant of my cause"—as indicating the source of the title, but did not venture to tamper with the title-page. If this line appears in English copies, it must be in later editions.

We beg leave to take this occasion to say that the author of this novel is Mr. Julian Sturgis, an American.—Respectfully yours,

D. Appleton & Co.

549 and 551 Broadway, New York, Dec. 19, 1870.

MISS POLLY BAKER'S SPEECH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: By mischance, the *Nation* of Nov. 7 failed to reach me, and I did not until this evening see your note (page 285) on Mr. John Morley's charge against Franklin and Silas Deane of "untruthfulness concerning the speech of Miss Polly Baker." Mr. Morley, it appears, relied on a statement in *Hall's Law Journal* (Philadelphia, 1813) that the speech was "delivered before a court of judicature in Connecticut." You have pointed out the fact that the speech in the *Law Journal* is an exact copy from one printed in the first volume of the *American Museum* in 1787. It appeared *forty years earlier* in the (London) *Gentleman's Magazine* for April, 1747 (vol. xvii., p. 175), where it was introduced as "The Speech of Miss Polly Baker, before a Court of Judicature at (*sic*) Connecticut, near Boston, in New-England, when she was prosecuted the fifth Time for having a bastard child: Which influenced the Court to dispense with her Punishment, and induced one of her Judges to marry her the next Day."

In the next (May) number of the same magazine (p. 211), "Mr. Urban" was gravely informed by a writer who signed the name of "William Smith," that when he was in New England, in the year 1745, he "had the pleasure of seeing the celebrated *Polly Baker*, who was then, though near sixty years of age, a comely woman, and the wife of *Paul Dudley*, Esq., of *Roxbury*, about two miles from *Boston*, who marry'd her, as is mentioned in the papers, and had 15 children by her." Mr. "Smith" was moved to "send this information, because it has been insinuated that the speech publish'd in her name was entirely fictitious; that it could not be the speech of any woman (in which many females, for different reasons, concur), but was entirely the invention of some Templer or Garretteer."

Good Sylvanus Urban seems to have had as little doubt of the genuineness of the speech (and of the fifteen post-nuptial children) as had, afterwards, the Abbé Raynal and the Encyclopædists, or as Mr. Morley has of the authority of the *American Law Journal*. But in the June

number of the magazine (p. 295) another correspondent, "L. Americanus," writes that Mr. William Smith had been "egregiously imposed upon; for 'tis well known that *Paul Dudley*, Esq., never acted in any judicial capacity in Connecticut, but is Chief-Justice of the province where he has always resided, and has long been married to a daughter of the late Gov. *Winthrop* [a mistake; he married Lucy Wainwright], by whom he never had any children. As they are of very good families, and he one of the first rank in the country, 'tis pity their names should be ignorantly or wantonly used for support of *a fictitious speech*."

Thirty-four years afterwards, in the same magazine, August, 1781 (p. 367), a writer recalled to notice "the speech said to have been spoken by Mrs. P. Baker at Connecticut," and enquired "who was the real author of this ingenious composition, which has been so highly honored as to have been translated into French and incorporated in their great work, *L'Encyclopédie?*" The question elicited no response.

The Abbé Raynal's translation was made, probably, from the *Gentleman's Magazine* direct, from which also Mathew Carey seems to have taken, at first or second hand, his copy for the *American Museum;* but he added, in a note, that "another account says [the woman's] name was Sarah Oliter." Before 1800 the speech was several times reprinted in newspapers and almanacs, but I cannot just now give the dates or places of publication.

If Mr. Jefferson's recollection of the conversation with Franklin was accurate, and the latter really claimed the authorship of the speech, and said that he wrote it for a newspaper, a search of a file of the *Pennsylvania Gazette* between 1733 and 1747 may result in fixing the date of its original publication. J. H. T.

HARTFORD, CONN., December 21, 1878.

Notes.

ROBERT CLARKE & CO. have in press 'Personal Memories, Social, Political, and Literary,' by E. D. Mansfield, the well-known Ohio "Veteran Observer" of the New York *Times*. The volume will contain numerous sketches of noted personages.——D. Appleton & Co. are preparing a sumptuous limited and "privately-printed" edition of the 'Memorial of Fitz-Greene Halleck,' edited by the late E. A. Duyckinck, and adorned with new portraits of the editor, the late Messrs. Bryant and Taylor, Holmes, Whittier, and others, besides nine effigies of Halleck himself.——G. W. Sheldon's 'American Painters,' just issued by Appleton, is our authority for stating that William H. Beard, the artist, is preparing a volume of drawings designed to suit the peculiar vein of each celebrated American poet, to be accompanied by original poems written expressly by the several authors represented.——The remarkable collection of works relating to chess belonging to the late Prof. George Allen, of the University of Pennsylvania, has been catalogued for sale with great care and elegance by his executors, Francis A. Jackson, of the University, and Gregory B. Keen, of 3227 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia. These gentlemen offer the collection *en bloc* for a price that does not seem too high for some of our public libraries, or for their public-spirited benefactors. The printed volumes number some 3,000.——The *Atlantic's* portrait for 1879 is of the poet Lowell, and possesses the same degree of merit as its predecessors—not the highest, certainly, but it is externally faithful.——The Twelfth Annual Exhibition of the American Water-Color Society will be opened at the National Academy of Design on February 3, 1879, and close on March 1. The usual conditions for exhibitors will be enforced. The Secretary's address is J. C. Nicoll, 51 West Tenth Street, New York City.——Salem, Mass., the cradle of the lecture system in this country, takes up the task anew in a series of Free Scientific Lectures to be delivered in Plummer Hall, during January and February. Plant Life, the Simplest Animals, the Human Body, and Heat are the chosen topics.——The current number of the *Army and Navy Journal* contains the entire text of the new bill to reorganize the army just reported to Congress by a Joint Committee.——The Bola, Mulan, and other Afghan passes are mapped in the *Geographical Magazine* for December. With this number the magazine terminates its useful career, giving way to a virtual successor in the *Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society and Monthly Geographical Record*, to appear immediately on the first of every month. The editor, Mr. Clements R. Markham, in his valedictory, does not overrate the services to science rendered by his own labors and those of his zealous associates.——Baker Pasha, says *Vanity Fair*, has written a narrative of his personal experiences in the Turkish war, which will be shortly published.——Le Monnier's Successors, Florence, have undertaken to publish for Prof. A. de Gubernatis a 'Dizionario biografico della Letteratura Contemporanea' now in course of preparation.

—We have received 'Marlowe's Tragical History of Doctor Faustus and Greene's Honorable History of Friar Bacon and Friar Bungay,' edited by Adolphus William Ward, M.A. (Macmillan). It contains a copious and excellent introduction of over one hundred pages, and the plays are annotated to excess. No two plays could have been chosen better fitted for an introductory study of the conditions of the drama amid which Shakspere learned to write, and if the book should direct the attention of readers in this country to the lesser-known dramatists of that time, it will do great service in bringing about that competent knowledge of English literature which is widely lacking in our high-schools and colleges, as well as in affording instruction in the language of the Elizabethan period.——From Houghton, Osgood & Co. we have the two volumes upon New England in Mr. Longfellow's 'Poems of Places.' They are more interesting than previous volumes, both from the subject-matter and from the fact that many well-known American poems, which have no internal evidence to show the locality to which they refer, are assigned to the various cities and towns to which they belong (for example, "The Old Oaken Bucket," "The Old Clock on the Stairs," etc.), and this gives the volume a peculiar and original value.——James Miller sends us 'Evenings with the Poets, a Collection of Favorite Poems by Famous Authors.' The volume is in holiday binding, heavy paper, red line, etc., but the poems are not by famous authors, as a rule, nor are they favorites with any class of readers known to us. Often they are uncredited, when not anonymous, and there is no index of authors. The illustrations add but little to what value the book possesses in literature.——The one hundredth volume of the Leisure Hour Series, 'A Century of American Literature,' edited by Henry A. Beers (Henry Holt & Co.), is fatally defective in plan. It was not possible in a space of less than ten small pages, on the average, to each author to illustrate to any purpose the literary work in prose and verse of the last century, even where selections were made only from authors no longer living; and what adequate notion of the work of the last hundred years can be given when Lowell, Emerson, and Longfellow, to mention no more, are not spoken of? The main value of the collection is in its containing some few clever things from writers who are becoming obscure, and we are glad to have them brought to the notice of the public.——We have received a reprint from the Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society of a translation of some 'Letters of Christopher Columbus and Americus Vespucius, with an Introduction,' by George Dexter, A.M. (Boston). They are from a volume of *Cartas de Indias*, previously inedited, which was issued by authority of the Spanish Government and "contains a large number of hitherto unpublished letters and reports, relating to the discovery and early history of America," drawn from the National Historical Archives of Spain. The first letter of Columbus exhibits a scheme of regulations for the colonization and commerce of the islands in America. This letter is assigned in the volume to the year 1496 or 1497; but Mr. Dexter, with a plausible account of his reasons, assigns it to 1493. The second letter consists of certain observations on the art of navigation. The third letter is by Americus Vespucius, who gives his opinion about the regulation of the trade to the Antilles. They will be of much interest to special students of the time to which they refer.——Dr. Theodore Jasper's 'Birds of North America' is at length completed by the issue of the fortieth part, with titles, etc., of the two volumes in which the whole is designed to be bound. The illustrations maintain the character which was none too favorably commented upon by the *Nation* on the appearance of early parts, but the text of the North American portion of the treatise, at least, has been improved by greater reliance upon standard modern sources of information. The technical portion is much less satisfactory. As a whole, the work is really a notable contribution to the popular literature of the subject, and one which seems judiciously adapted to the general public's capacity for deriving entertainment from ornithology.——The Misses G. E. Jones & E. J. Shulze, of Circleville, Ohio, have issued, as a specimen or trial number, Part I. of a beautifully-illustrated work, entitled: 'Nests and Eggs of the Birds of Ohio.' It is announced to be completed in about thirty parts, of three plates each, with a sheet of letter-press to each plate. The work is in large folio, the objects being represented of natural size, with their usual surroundings; the plates are printed on Whatman's antiquarian drawing-paper, and colored by hand. The three plates we have seen are no less true to nature than tasteful in design and artistic in execution; should the work be completed with the same high standard of excellence, it will make a series of exquisite illustrations. The enterprise commends itself to the recognition and support of all

lovers of birds who may wish to see their favorite objects represented with technical accuracy in a very superior manner. The letter-press is quite worthy to accompany these attractive illustrations.

—Dr. John S. Billings, U.S.A., and his assistant, Dr. Robert Fletcher, propose to continue the former's unpublished 'National Catalogue of American Literature' (which awaits the certain *imprimatur* of Congress) with a monthly classified record of the current medical literature of the world. The first number of the *Index Medicus* will appear next month, with Mr. F. Leypoldt, 37 Park Row, for its publisher. Under these auspices the high character of the periodical is assured. Dr. Billings's share in the work is perfectly disinterested, and the books sent him for record will go to complete the magnificent library of the Surgeon-General's Office at Washington. Dr. Billings, by the way, has recently sent an official communication to the Surgeon-General, urging that morbidity statistics be procured in connection with the next national census. The queries suggested are (1) as to the number of days lost by illness or injury during the year; (2) the number of persons ill on the 30th day of June, with a specification of the disability; (3) the method of treatment, if any, by charity or otherwise; (4) whether each individual has had during the year any one of a dozen specified acute diseases; (5) the estimated cost of the sickness in loss of wages, payment of physicians, etc. The medical profession and scientific societies have united in cordially recommending these suggestions, and Surgeon-General Barnes has sent them to the chairman of the Committee on the Census, with the very strongest endorsement. It is needless to say that such information would be of incalculable value to the physician, sanitarian, statistician, social economist, and, indeed, to every one interested in promoting health and preventing disease.

—The January *Atlantic* contains a number of short stories which, together with the continuation of "The Lady of the Aroostook," give it a prevailing tone of pleasant entertainment; besides these, Mr. Warner writes of some "Aspects of American Life," in which he rehearses our extravagance, indebtedness, and other plain characteristics, but with too broad and often exaggerated statement. The anonymous contributor whose recent articles have attracted so wide notice supplements his last month's "Typical Workingmen" by a description of what he has observed in the character and habits of "Workingmen's Wives," which is interesting and instructive. Prof. Goldwin Smith prints his recent lecture at Cornell, "Is Universal Suffrage a Failure?" and Miss H. W. Preston sketches very briefly a part of the work of the English poets in illustration of the last period of the romantic lyric schools, under the title of "The Latest Songs of Chivalry." Mr. Whittier's poem, "The Dead Feast of the Kol-Folk," also deserves to be mentioned, and the account of "Recent Literature" is unusually full and interesting.

—There is not much in the January *Lippincott's* that calls for comment. A writer who was a gir of thirteen at the time of the siege of Paris by the Germans describes, in a manner which quite revives the terrible reality of those days, the poverty and distress of her own family, and the bloody scenes she witnessed in the final combat at the barricades between the Commune and the *Versaillais*. She testifies in general, and in one shocking instance, to the superior fury and cruelty of her own sex among the former. Our recent feeling towards the Newfoundland fishermen for their summary executions of local law on our fishers should be somewhat mollified by a Canadian's "Notes of a Trip" to that picturesque island, where life has to be taken very seriously. This is a well-written account of fishing habits and character, of interior coast scenery, of sport by land and sea, including the capture of a school of bottle-nosed whales caught napping in the waters of a bay. Mr. Bruce's "A Western Town" is agreeable reading, but does not wholly meet the expectations excited by the elaborate introduction. Still, his readers will probably gain from it some knowledge of Southern Illinois; and his remarks on the Western passion for experiment and innovation, as leading on one side to the equal recognition of all schools of medicine (or at least to the putting of the orthodox on the defensive), and on the other to frequent divorces, for which a free-and-easy legislation has paved the way, are suggestive if not particularly new.

—The death of Mr. Bayard Taylor, United States Minister to Germany, occurred in Berlin on the afternoon of Thursday, December 19. The immediate cause of it was dropsy; the ultimate, that physical overtasking which so often hurries men of letters to the grave. Mr. Taylor had nearly completed his fifty-fourth year, having been born in Chester County, Pennsylvania, January 11, 1825. He was the son of a farmer of that region, and was not only of Quaker but of South German descent. His education and training were little superior to those of most country boys, but embraced a smattering of French, Latin, and Spanish. At the age of seventeen he was apprenticed to a printer in West Chester, and began his career with the writing of verses for the magazines. In 1844, assisted by the editors of two Philadelphia newspapers, he undertook a pedestrian tour in Europe, maintaining himself by sending back letters for publication, and on his return combining them in a book called 'Views Afoot.' In 1847 he failed in the attempt to establish a weekly newspaper in Phœnixville, Penn., and the next year obtained a position on the staff of the New York *Tribune*, where his work was of the most multifarious description. In 1849 he was sent out as a special correspondent to the new Eldorado on the Pacific Coast, and on his way back added Mexico to the foreign lands he had visited. In 1851 he made the grand tour of Egypt and the East, revisiting Europe also, and in China joining Perry's expedition to Japan. In 1874 his journeyings included Egypt and Iceland (on the occasion of the latter's millennium), and as usual, but for the last time, they ended in a book. In 1862 Mr. Taylor was, by appointment of President Lincoln, made Secretary of Legation at St. Petersburg, but he did not long retain the position. He had resumed his editorial relations with the *Tribune* when, last spring, as is well remembered, he received the flattering mission to the court which, above all others, had attractions for him, as enabling him to execute a work for which he had been many years collecting materials, a new Life of Goethe.

—Mr. Taylor was a man of versatile intellect and a ready pen, and has left behind him, signed and unsigned, a prodigious amount of printed matter in prose and verse. As a journalist, except as a travelling correspondent, his identity is lost in the *Tribune*. In fiction he made four ventures, of which none proved to be the "great American novel," and none is probably read to day, though the latest, 'Joseph and His Friends,' appeared in 1870. His poetical works fill a number of volumes; and doubtless to be remembered first and above all as a poet was the desire of his heart. Time will hardly enhance his reputation on this side, since it cannot impart to his verse either brilliancy or profundity of thought: but he has acquired a sure if not a solid title to remembrance by his translation of 'Faust,' which is a metrical *tour de force* of undoubted merit and as yet unsurpassed excellence. Poems like the 'Prophet' (1874) and 'Lars' (1873) are, among his longer efforts, the best samples of his poetical gift. One of his fellow *littérateurs* and intimate friends says, in his reminiscences, that Mr. Taylor fancied "there was something in his genius which was allied to that of Shelley," so that we were not so wide of the mark the other day when we recommended the readers of his 'Prince Deukalion' to turn back to 'Prometheus Unbound.' We were not, however, thinking of Mr. Taylor as an imitator; and it is to be said for him that, capable and fond as he was of taking off the mannerisms of older and better poets, like Browning for example, his own verse wears his personal stamp. Surveying the whole round of his intellectual activity, we incline to think that the quality of it is suggested in the encomium of his brother editor, Mr. Congdon, when he says of Mr. Taylor: "He had the faculty which every newspaper writer should possess, of writing fairly well upon any topic confided to him." In his private relations Mr. Taylor won the highest esteem of those who knew him intimately for his unfailing amiability and goodness of heart. He leaves a wife and daughter to mourn his removal in the fulness of his hopes and plans, and before he had repaired the estate which his earlier years of unflagging industry had acquired.

—"Epping Forest, and how best to deal with it," is an article by Mr. Wallace in the *Fortnightly Review* for November, also separately issued, which should not be passed over as a matter of local concern. All Mr. Wallace's writings, even the most casual, will be found to touch and to illustrate some interesting question. A recent act of Parliament having decreed that one of the ancient woodland wastes, Epping Forest, which lies upon the very borders of London, shall be preserved for ever as "an open space for the recreation and enjoyment of the public," the question what to do with it becomes a very practical one. It is not enough to say rejoicingly: "Here at length every one will have a right to roam unmolested, and to enjoy the beauties which nature so lavishly spreads around when left to her own wild luxuriance. Here we shall possess, close to our capital, one real forest, whose wildness and sylvan character is to be studiously maintained, and which will possess an ever-increasing interest as a sample of those broad tracts of woodland which once covered so much of our country, and which play so conspicuous a part in our early history and national folk-lore." Unfortunately much of it has been spoiled, in all senses of the word. But Englishmen know

how to plant, and the native trees which once covered the domain, with the undergrowth which of old accompanied them, could be made to flourish again. Probably the ancient forest could be essentially reproduced in all its former vigor, and former monotony. Mr. Wallace has something better than this in his mind, and his inspiration is caught from Professor Asa Gray's Harvard lecture on "Forest Geography and Archæology," which was published last summer in the *American Journal of Science*, the ideas of which he adopts, happily summarizes, and applies to the case in hand. In reforesting the open waste portions of Epping, he proposes to establish several distinct portions or broad tracts, each composed solely of trees and shrubs belonging to some one of the great forest regions of the temperate zone. A climate of which it has, we believe truly, been said that it can grow treble the number of species of trees which the Atlantic United States can, and in which so many trees have been individually tested, offers favorable auspices for an undertaking of this kind upon a scale that may give a good idea of the features—not of this or that tree or shrub—but of a forest of the Alleghanies, of the Sierra Nevada, of British Columbia, and of Japan. Even the southern temperate zone may contribute from New Zealand its Kauri pines and beeches, under which Macaulay's overworked New-Zealander may encamp on returning from his excursion to view the ruins of London bridge by moonlight.

—When Mr. Wallace declares that "there is really no difficulty in producing in England an almost exact copy of a North American forest, with all its variety of foliage, with its succession of ornamental flowers, and with its glorious autumnal tints," we must agree that the experiment as a whole is hopeful, and much of it is already a success in piecemeal plantation. But we are not sure about autumnal tints under London skies, considering how much these differ between one season and another in New England. And, though every tree will grow in England, being put to no severe stress either in winter or summer, yet not every tree nurtured under our climate—so fierce in both seasons—will blossom in England, as witness our handsomest leguminous tree, Cladrastis, or Yellow-wood. But a climate which will fairly nourish on one soil the forests of the Atlantic and the Pacific forest, those of Japan and Mantchuria, of Siberia, Himalaya, and the Caucasus, along with that to the manner born, deserves to possess them all. We, alas! can seldom grow on one side of our continent the trees and shrubs of the other. Moreover, there is very little forest east of the Rocky Mountains which an act of Congress could preserve; and, over that little, Congress and the Secretary of the Interior have lately been at loggerheads. Yet in California we have forests, still public domain, which are the veritable wonders of the world, which for the most part are doomed to irremediable destruction, but of which specimens ought to be preserved now when they may, now when it will cost nothing, and injuriously affect no man's interest. For the Redwood it is almost too late; yet a square mile, or half that area, of redwood forest might still be reserved in Mendocino or Humboldt County. And from all accounts a square mile or two of true Big-tree forest, on or south of King's River, could well be set apart as a perpetual memorial. The Mariposa Grove is indeed such a reservation. But this is only a grove of a limited number of trees, many of them sadly injured by fires. Farther south this great tree is said to be the main constituent of extensive forests. A mile or two of Big-tree forest should be set apart before this district is invaded.

PERCY BYSSHE SHELLEY.*

THE natural charm by which Shelley fascinated his familiar friends lives after him, and has gathered about him for his defence a group of men whose affection for him seems no whit lessened because they never knew him face to face. The one common characteristic prominent in all who have written of him with sympathy, however meagre or valuable their individual contributions of praise, criticism or information, is this sentiment of direct, intimate, intense personal loyalty which he has inspired in them to a degree rare, if not unparalleled, in literary annals. Under the impulse of this strong love, which an unenlightened world calls the Shelley madness, they have championed his cause, until his fame, overshadowed in his own generation by the vigorous worldliness of Byron, and slightly esteemed by nearly all of his craft, has now grown great and fair, so that of his two most powerful works one is acknowledged the highest sustained lyric flight in English song, and the other is widely believed to be the most perfect English drama since Shakspere. With the enthusiasts, however, who have aided in bringing about this result, admiration for Shelley's work is a secondary thing; its virtue is blended with and transfused into the nature of Shelley himself, who is the centre of their worship. To reveal the fineness and lustre of his character, his essential worth throughout that romantic and darkened career of thirty years, is their chief pleasure, and in this too they have now won some success, and have partially reversed the popular estimate of the poet as merely an immoral atheist; yet, although Robertson has made some amends for the harsh contemporary criticism of Milman, Shelley's name is still for orthodoxy a shibboleth of pious terror and of insult to God, and not long ago there was found an American, himself a man of letters and one of the poetic craft, who, in what he called an 'Anecdote Biography,' sneered at "the morals of the divine poet and his divine mistress," and gave us as the *vera effigies* of Shelley a crazy youth and a false husband. It seems strange that room was left for such a piece of sensationalism as that biography; but, in spite of many narratives of his life, it is agreed that no adequate biography has yet been written, and meanwhile every one may try his hand. Yet we are very fortunate in the abundance of information we possess in regard to Shelley. His story, as it was read in his outward acts, has been told by many of his intimate acquaintances, who have given us a series of very diverse portraits of him from early boyhood to his last days; on the other hand he has himself written the history of his secret spiritual growth in that ideal, for ever refining and etherealizing itself, of which the poet in 'Alaster' is the first fragmentary suggestion and 'Prometheus' the most heroic incarnation. By diligent study of these sources a patient and charitable reader may make for himself a provisional biography, may have a vivid sense of Shelley's boyhood and manhood, his temperament, manners, and daily life, and, if he be touched at all by that contagious enthusiasm of which we began by speaking, he may learn the secret of that moulted eagle's feather which Browning put within his breast. Such a course will be much better than reading Mr. Symonds's book alone, which has attracted our attention, although it is an excellent, brief compendium of facts, and is pervaded by sympathetic and rational criticism. There are in it a very few minor misstatements, due probably to haste in composition, and it errs in giving too great credit to Hogg's veracity, and thus bringing into too bold relief the grotesque element undeniably present in much of the poet's early life. It states with admirable clearness and fairness the main lines of attack and defence on the part of the poet's enemies and apologists. Here we are not concerned with the issue of that conflict; it is still too early to decide whether the modification of the harsh criticism once almost universally bestowed upon Shelley will go on permanently or whether it is not in some measure due to peculiar results of culture in our own time. Without attempting to prejudge this question, especially in regard to poetic fame, there seems to be, as the cause passes out of the hands of those who knew Shelley personally into the guardianship of the new generation, a tendency toward greater unity of judgment in regard to the larger phases of his character and conduct.

Shelley, as Mr. Swinburne said of William Blake, was born into the church of rebels; he was born, also, gentle, loving, and fearless. The dangers to which such a natural endowment would inevitably expose him were aggravated by a misguided and ignorant education, and by the temper of that feverish and ill-regulated age in which modern reform began. He was in early years first of all a revolter; he would do only what seemed to him best, and in the way which seemed to him best; he took nothing upon authority, he acknowledged no validity in the customs and beliefs which past experience had bequeathed to men; he must examine every conclusion anew and accept or reject it by the light of his own limited thought and observation; he carried the Protestant spirit to its ultimate extreme—all legal and intellectual results embodied in institutions or in accepted beliefs must show cause to him why they should exist. He was, moreover, in haste; he could not rest in a doubt, he could not suspend his judgment, he could not wait for fuller knowledge. Finding only incomplete or incompetent answers to his questioning, he leaped to the conclusion that there was no answer. Had he been contented with allowing this spirit to influence only his own private creed and conduct, mischief enough was sure to be wrought for him, error and suffering were in store for him in no common degree. But he was not merely building an ideal of life and formulating a rule of living for himself; he had, as he afterward confessed, a passion for reforming the world. He was early in print, and aspired to teach the world before he was well out of his teens—took in his hands, indeed, the regeneration of Ireland through pamphlets and public eloquence and personal agitation and supervision. It is easy to dismiss this as the foolish conceit of a boy of talent much given to

* 'Percy Bysshe Shelley. By J. A. Symonds.' (English Men of Letters.) New York: Harper & Bros. 1878.

dreaming; yet it must be remembered, in estimating his practical sagacity, that the measures of reform he proposed were afterwards carried in the precise way he had suggested. It is easy, too, to dismiss his exile from his home and his expulsion from Oxford as childish obstinacy, disobedience, ingratitude, and presumption; but if there was anything of these faults in him there was also much more made evident in these first trials of his character: there was the capacity for sacrifice, the resolution to be faithful to the truth as he saw it, although at the cost of wealth, academical education, social position, and love even. The beginning of manhood found him in the full sway of immature conviction, and already suffering the penalty. It is not necessary to follow out in detail the development of a life so entered upon. It led him to attack Christianity and to disregard the laws of marriage, and this is the sum and substance of his offence. Yet no sign, perhaps, is so indicative of the increased liberality of the prevalent religion in our time as the attempt which has been made to show that Shelley was essentially Christian, an attempt so common and vigorous that Mr. Trelawney, in his republication of his most instructive and graphic account of Shelley's last days, has felt called upon to protest against it. In this spirit Mr. Symonds writes from one extreme: "It is certain that as Christianity passes beyond its mediæval phase and casts aside the husk of outworn dogmas, it will more and more approximate to Shelley's exposition. Here, and here only, is a vital faith adapted to the conditions of modern thought, indestructible because essential, and fitted to unite instead of separating minds of divers quality"; and Mr. F. W. Robertson, from the other extreme, writes: "I cannot help feeling that there was a spirit in poor Shelley's mind which might have assimilated with the spirit of his Redeemer—nay, which I will dare to say was kindred with that spirit, if only his Redeemer had been differently imaged to him. . . . I will not say that a man who by his opposition to God means opposition to a demon to whom the name of God in his mind is appended, is an enemy of God; . . . change the *name* and I will bid that *character* defiance with you!" A candid examination must show, however, that Mr. Trelawney is right; there is no doubt that Shelley rejected altogether what is properly known as Christianity, in youth violently and with hatred, while in later years he came to care less about it. At the same time it is to be remembered that all he had seen of Christianity was its debased forms whose prominent characteristic is defect in charity and love, which Shelley believed to be the central virtues. Probably he never dissociated the Christian God from the Jewish Jehovah, and his feeling towards him is well illustrated in the terrible indictment he makes against him in reference to Milton's delineation of Satan as one (we quote from memory) "who, in the cold security of undoubted triumph, inflicts upon his fallen enemy the most horrible punishment, not from any mistaken hope of thereby reforming him, but with the avowed purpose of exasperating him to deserve new torments." It is, therefore, impossible to deny Shelley's atheism; the most that can be contended for is that in all that constitutes a religious mind, in natural piety, in purity of life and motive, in conscientious and unselfish action, Shelley was exceptionally conspicuous.

It is here that the second charge against Shelley has its place. How, it is indignantly asked, was he unselfish, loving, and conscientious, when he left his youthful wife to circumstances which resulted in her suicide, and transferred his devotion to another? The extent and blameworthiness of the moral defect in Shelley's action at that time it is unjust to attempt to determine now, because judgment should be suspended until the promised publication of the Shelley family papers relating to his separation, which Mr. Garnett has so definitely said will clear Shelley of all censure. Meanwhile nothing more can be done than to point out with Mr. Symonds the fact that Shelley acted in obedience to his convictions of social duty; that the first marriage was the result of knight-errantry rather than affection, and had long been destitute of any pleasure; that Shelley did not desert his wife in such a way as to make her suicide chargeable to him, but that it appears to have been the result of another attachment which she had formed, and which had brought disappointment to her. These considerations do not, it is true, relieve him of condemnation or remove the seeming great defect in his moral perception of the responsibility which rested upon him in consequence of a thoughtless and foolish marriage. Yet it is not doubtful that in his life he atoned for his error, if suffering is atonement; from that time a shadow fell upon him which never was removed. We know, too, how intense was his grief at the removal of his children from his care by order of Lord Eldon, in consequence of what the Lord Chancellor considered his immoral conduct and atheistic opinions. It is hard to find heart for reproach when one, whose whole gospel was love, is so cruelly entangled in the unforeseen consequences of his acts that he seems to have wrought the work of hatred; and the patient and charitable reader of his story will not find it hard to wait, without condemning the poet, until the long-delayed and much-needed defence of him shall be given to the world.

What, then, under this presentation of the case, remains to be said for that ideal character which those who love Shelley believe to have been his possession? That, beginning life with a theory which left every desire and impulse free course, which imposed no restrictions except those of his own honor and self-respect, which acknowledged no command not proceeding from his own reason, he yet served the truth he saw with entire loyalty and sincerity of heart; that, making many errors throughout a darkened life, he did not strive by lightness of heart or logical sophistication to avoid their penalties of misery and remorse, but kept them in memory and bore his burden of sorrow courageously: that by intense thought and bitterest experience he came at last to find the laws of life and to obey them; to find how impossible it is for the individual to solve the problems put before him, so that he himself grew content to leave many of these in doubt; to find how ignorant it was in him to make his own experience the measure of the conditions of general human life, and attempt to reform the world's motives and standards by reference to that experience alone; to find how little the individual counts for in life, so that the youth who with fervid hope took up the regeneration of a whole nation in confidence came to doubt whether it was worth while for him to write at all, and rated himself far less than his friend Byron—came at last, too, to recognize the laws of art and obey them, so that all his work seemed to him mere studies, trial flights of genius, without worth except as modes of self-training. These characteristics are the evidence of his strength, sincerity, and rightness of purpose; and through these he worked out an ideal of life and rule of living which differ so much from those of his early days that they are the most powerful in influence and most exalted in virtue which have yet been offered to men who, like himself, found the old familiar standards rationally inadequate and morally weak. These are the essential elements in Shelley's career, and to them his personal qualities and his daily life give form and color. This, too, is the work of a man framed for self-destruction, against whom circumstances did their worst throughout. The marvel is not that his life was so broken in private happiness and his public work so unequal in the worth of its results, but, taking all into account, that he saved so much of his life and work through his perception of the valuable objects of living and his clinging to them. He had worked out unaided the fulfilment of the prayer which closes the early 'Hymn to Intellectual Beauty':

> "The day becomes more solemn and serene
> When noon is past: there is a harmony
> In autumn, and a lustre in its sky,
> Which through the summer is not heard or seen,
> As if it could not be, as if it had not been.
> Thus let thy power, which like the truth
> Of Nature on my passive youth
> Descended, to my onward life supply
> Its calm, to one who worships thee,
> And every form containing thee,
> Whom, Spirit fair, thy spells did bind
> To fear himself and love all humankind."

This, too, was the result of the imperfect years of preparation. He had given him only the traditional thirty years which belong to every genius for trial and training before the finished work can be required. He had just recognized the conditions to which he must conform, and was only ready to begin when he died. His ceaseless and intense intellectual toil, his varied scholarship, his acute critical power, his practical sense, had rectified his sight, and the dreamer was becoming more and more the seer. So at least it seems to the students of Shelley, and while they are grateful for the excellent work which, notwithstanding his unfavorable conditions, he was able to do, and while they are grateful, too, for the example of his life, which they believe was one act of love without any essential flaw of selfishness, the overpowering impression left upon the mind is that which Mr. Symonds repeatedly expresses, a sense of the inexplicable, vast, and prodigal wastefulness of nature.

HAYWARD'S ESSAYS.*

THE five volumes into which Mr. Hayward, at three different times, has gathered his contributions to the *Edinburgh* and *Quarterly Reviews*, are less known to the reading world than their great merits would have indicated. They had, we believe, but a narrow circulation, and they have ceased for some time to belong to things actual. The author was well advised, however, in undertaking a partial reissue of these unjustly

* 'Selected Essays. By A. Hayward, Esq.; Q.C.' In two volumes. London: Longmans; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1878.

neglected essays; and we are greatly mistaken if, at present, he does not find the public more alive to their very entertaining qualities. Mr. Hayward enjoys, it may not be impertinent to observe, a high degree of celebrity in the London world as a talker and a *raconteur*, and his essays bear the stamp of a man who, during half a century, has been familiar with the most noteworthy people and most interesting English society, and whose memory is an inexhaustible fund of anecdote and illustration. He has picked out here more than a dozen of the articles contained in his earlier volumes, and the readers of these will confess to a lively desire to make acquaintance with those he has omitted. Mr. Hayward's criticism is of the old-fashioned English sort—not especially æsthetic or psychological; not going into fine shades or the more recently-invented grounds of appreciation; but very wholesome, lively, vigorous, and well-informed, and very rich in interesting allusion. The author's allusions are indeed the chief part of his work; for the most part he regards a book or a writer simply as a pretext for a succession of amusing stories. His volumes fairly bristle with what are called "good things," and the reader will not be likely to complain of unfamiliar anecdotes suggested by such names as Sidney Smith, Samuel Rogers, Friedrich von Gentz, Maria Edgeworth, Stendhal, Lady Palmerston, and Sir Henry Bulwer; or by such topics as the history of English parliamentary eloquence, the vicissitudes of great British families, and the differences and contrasts in English and French manners and morals.

The article on Sidney Smith is very appreciative and discriminating, and full of reminiscences (many of them personal) of his witticisms and conversational oddities. In the days of his poverty he used to go to evening parties in an omnibus. "On hearing," says Mr. Hayward, "of the offence taken by his more fastidious friend, Jeffrey, at the appearance of a straw (emblematic of the more humble vehicle) on the carpet at Lady Morgan's, he exclaimed, 'A straw, a solitary straw! Why, I have been at literary parties where the floor looked like a stubble-field!" Sidney Smith's jocose impulses sometimes found expression otherwise than in words—as when, at his little place in Devonshire, expecting some visitors from London and wishing to impress them with the luxuriance of his vegetation, he caused a number of oranges to be tied to the shrubs in the garden. Mr. Hayward's article on Rogers is a singularly complete and perfect portrait of that famous *dilettante*—one of those sketches which leave nothing to be added and are felt to be the last word. It is a remarkable picture of a man who had spent his life in cultivating the qualities that make one fastidious, and yet had not outwearied his power of enjoyment. The author quotes from Byron a noteworthy allusion to Rogers's temperament: "This very delicacy must be the misery of his existence. Oh! the jarrings his disposition must have encountered through life." Mr. Hayward cites also a happily-expressed passage from a letter addressed to himself by the late Mrs. Norton: "I believe no man was ever so much attended to and thought of who had so slender a fortune and such calm abilities. His God was Harmony, and over his life Harmony presided, sitting on a lukewarm cloud. He was *not* the poet, sage, and philosopher people expected to find he was, but a man in whom the tastes (rare fact) preponderated over the passions, who defrayed the expenses of his tastes as other men make outlay for the gratification of their passions." It was, perhaps, his love of "harmony" that accounts for his low opinion and scanty enjoyment of Shakspere, as it certainly may account for the glassy polish of his own homogeneous verse. Rogers was the most luxurious of classicists, if he may not be ranked as one of the most brilliant of classics.

Quite the best of all Mr. Hayward's essays seems to us to be the long account of Maria Edgeworth, based upon the Memoirs of the lady's life, which, ten years since, were put into exclusively private circulation. This very entertaining biography, containing a great many of Miss Edgeworth's letters, which are capital reading, was made up by the last of her numerous stepmothers, and it is greatly to be regretted that family scruples should have hitherto withheld it from the general public. We strongly hope that these will presently give way, and we console ourselves meanwhile with Mr. Hayward's brilliant sketch. It contains a great deal of information about that singular character Richard Lovell Edgeworth, who was so often his daughter's inspirer and coadjutor, and who, in himself, was such a curious mixture of emotion and dry practicality. Perhaps, indeed, we assume unduly that his four marriages were the result of urgent sentiment; promptly as they followed each other, they were also very deliberate and circumspect unions, based upon a thoroughly reasoned scheme of domestic felicity, and amply securing it so long as they lasted. But Richard Edgeworth was such a remorseless utilitarian that it is a wonder his influence upon his daughter, which apparently was boundless, should not have dried up those qualities which made her an admirable story-teller. She was fifty years old when he died, and up to this period (she had commenced author very early) he had had a hand indirectly in all Miss Edgeworth's production; he had supplied them with those injudicious prefaces in which, by pointing, with a terribly stiff forefinger, the moral of the tale and scraping the pill of its innocent sugar, he did his best to frighten away the reader. He left his mark, indeed, upon all his daughter's work, and made it not only didactic, but narrowly didactic. Miss Edgeworth had little imagination, but she had great humor and great powers of observation, and it is probable that if she had grown up in a more æsthetic circle her tales would have had all the good sense which they actually possess, and in addition a certain charm in which they are noticeably wanting. Her father undertook to teach her to write stories as a young person might be taught the use of the sewing-machine or the art of a telegraph-operator. She was a very apt pupil; but her first tales—the admirable 'Parent's Assistant'—were written out on a slate, on subjects provided by her terrible monitor, and read aloud to him for correction. She was very docile; she speaks of his "allowing her" for many years to copy his letters. Whenever she thought of a subject she always told him of it, and he replied, "Sketch that, and show it to me." Then he gave or not, as might be, his *visé* to the sketch. "One of his friends, Dr. Darwin," says Mr. Hayward, "must have won Edgeworth's heart at once by his definition of a fool: 'A fool, Mr. Edgeworth, you know, is a man who never tried an experiment in his life.'" Judged by this standard, Miss Edgeworth's parent must have been a perfect Solomon. It is probable, to do him justice, that he should have credit for many of the good portions of his daughter's writings. Mr. Hayward makes a very sound and sensible estimate of these productions, of which the upshot is that they are still well worth reading—an opinion which quite tallies with our last impression of them. The most noticeable article in the second of the two volumes that lie before us is a rather irritated (but perhaps all the more entertaining) review of Taine's 'Notes on England.' Mr. Hayward affirms in conclusion that the English are of all people the most thick-skinned, the most indifferent to foreign opinion. We have for some time past thought this something of a fallacy, and the tone of Mr. Hayward's article is in contradiction with his theory. But the paper in question contains, like its companions, some very good stories, and the author makes some excellent points as against the too neat generalizations of the brilliant French critic.

Prince Bismarck's Letters to his Wife, his Sister, and Others, from 1844 to 1870. Translated from the German by F. Maxse. (New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons. 1878. 16mo, pp. x, 259.)—These letters, as a nearly continuous series, are of the years from 1844 to 1866, the thirtieth and the fifty-second respectively of the writer's life; and the present translation is authorized, being dedicated by permission to Princess Bismarck. They are classified by periods, in sequence, as letters of youth, of the early years of marriage, of the time of the Frankfort mission, the St. Petersburg and the Paris embassies, of the parliamentary struggle of 1862–1865, and of the Austrian war; besides which there is a supplementary or non-serial letter of 1870, one which was captured by *francs-tireurs* soon after the battle of Sedan, and first published in a French newspaper. One important omission of two years will be noticed among these periods—a time to which Bismarck alludes briefly in these letters, but with evident pleasure in the recollection, as "the fighting position" of 1848–9. Writing ten years later he says (p. 98) that some of his acquaintance still trembled at the reminiscences of 1848, and were "like a pigeon-cote that has caught sight of a weasel, so alarmed are they by democracy, barricades, parliament." Of course there is a sufficient political interest in the letters here given, though they are edited with judicious exclusions. But their main interest, at this distance of time from the events they mention, is not political: it is that which belongs to any correspondence that is quite sincerely written; and such, by the internal evidence, this is. This interest, indeed, for those who read at all between the lines, belongs only in a less degree to insincerely written letters: it is that of the intimate revelation of character. The "man of blood and iron," of direct rather than subtle intelligence, of mastering will, the world knew already; it is pleasant to find here, too, the man of humor, of melancholy sentiment, and of philosophic superiority to the pomps and vanities which, especially in Germany, seem to have tried his soul from the beginning. This is one among many passages in the latter tone. Bismarck is writing from Baden in August, 1863:

"The king is well, but besieged with intrigues. . . . I wish some intrigue or other would get another ministry in, so that I could turn my back with honor on this uninterrupted flow of ink, and live quietly in the country. It is no life for an honest country gentleman, and I see a benefactor in every one who seeks to turn me out."

Five years before that time he had written: "When I find that the parts of the diplomatist and the gentleman are no longer compatible one with the other, the pleasure or the burden of expending a high salary with credit will not mislead me in my choice." The impression conveyed throughout these letters is that Bismarck, in respect to his political life, is a Diogenes, who, in an hour of weakness, has been persuaded out of his tub, and who regrets the emergence as an error. But in its humor, its melancholy, its self-consciousness, Bismarck's is a thoroughly modern mind; in his lack of intellectual subtility and in his downright religious convictions he is less evidently of our time, orthodoxy being now in Germany, for the most part, at least among the *Hofwelt*, an anachronism. He writes thus in 1851: "It is incomprehensible to me how any human being who thinks about himself at all, and who is ignorant, or who chooses to remain ignorant, of God, can live under his load of self-contempt and *ennui*. I do not know how I bore it formerly." Fourteen years later he says: "He who calls me an unconscientious politician does me wrong; let him first put his own conscience to the proof." But he admits in the same letter (to André von Roman) that "there are undoubtedly a great number of Christians in the parties opposed to me by political necessity who are far ahead of me on the way to salvation, with whom, notwithstanding, I have to live in strife, by virtue of matters which are, on both sides, purely of this earth."

We have reserved but little space for passages that illustrate the tender, even the sentimental, side of the "iron" man's nature. In 1844 he writes to his sister from Norderney, where, already an invalid, he had gone to bathe, to fish, and to shoot seals. Of these he says, "I have only shot one; such a good-humored dog's face, with large, beautiful eyes, that I was quite pained about it." The letter of August, 1861, to his brother-in-law, Oscar von Arnim, comforting him on the loss of his child, is completely tender and real in its feeling. It has, too, the fresh touch which only personal knowledge can give to the ancient experiences, as where he says: "Another twenty or, in happiest case, thirty years and we are both of us beyond the cares of this life, and find with astonishment that the freshly begun life is going down hill." At the age of thirty-six, at least, Bismarck was not yet wholly a hard man. We find him describing, in a letter to his wife, one of his moods as "a soft touch of melancholy, a little home-sickness, a longing for deep woods and lakes, for a desert, for yourself and the children; and all this mixed up with a fine sunset and Beethoven." Writing to her a year later he quotes in English (not quite correctly, as our older readers may remark) the romantic song which English young folks hummed in many countries thirty years ago: "Where did I get that song from," he says, "which has been haunting me the whole day:

> "'Over the blue mountain, over the white sea-foam,
> Come, thou beloved one, come to thy lonely home!'"

Other traits which will have for many readers of these letters the charm of surprise are the strong domesticity of the writer, as shown in the many household commissions that he gives and accepts, and his hatred of ministerial work and of the annoyances which go with it. "Last night," he says, for instance, "worked till one o'clock, and then, instead of sand, I poured ink over the paper, so that it ran all over my knee." All these lesser traits help to make up a lively picture of this extremely real and human character. Complete vigor and genuineness of nature, combined with rare patience and good humor, rather than a profound insight, have given Prince von Bismarck his position in European affairs. These letters alone are enough to show that their writer was never destined to an inferior place.

Hygiene of the Brain and Nerves. By M. L. Holbrook, M.D. (New York: M. L. Holbrook & Co.)—This book is dull at the beginning, but interesting towards the end. It consists of two parts. The first is occupied by a few pages of anatomy and physiology, by the lucubrations of the writer—who is a "vegetarian," though not an uncompromising one—and by a collection of miscellaneous paragraphs from various physiological and quasi-physiological writers, from Brown-Séquard to Amariah Brigham, M.D. One need not concern himself at length with this olio, nor with such confirmation of the author's views of hygiene as may be found in the quoted letter, for instance, of "Dr. Abby Cutter, a thoughtful and earnest physician." Three sentences, even, are too many to come between us and the second part of the book, which is made up of original letters from "distinguished men and women" to the number of twenty-eight, and of various degrees of distinction, from Francis W. Newman to Julia Smith; *stella enim a stella differt in claritate.* These letters describe the various "physical and intellectual habits" of their writers. They illustrate, too, with but few exceptions—such, for instance, as Dr. Gleason's very judicious "Plea for Hunting" as the best recreation for the student, and Dr. Todd's praise of joiner's tools for the same purpose—the notions and crotchets of intelligent men; they call attention to the uncultivated places which remain even in highly cultivated minds, and which are never more likely to be revealed than when the lay scholar is betrayed into descanting upon diseases and their cure. These ingenious correspondents are, for the most part, considerably more interesting than they intended to be. Here, for instance, we find the distinguished author of the 'Phases of Faith' in trespass upon the domain of pathology. In the most *naïf* of letters about his health he mentions "a terrible fever" which he had at Aleppo in 1831, and says: "I now impute that fever entirely to my ignorantly continuing to eat heartily of flesh-meat in that climate. Five immense efforts of nature, by violent sweating, did but temporarily throw the fever off: a sixth was successful." Dr. F. W. Newman's views would be received well in Concord, if we may judge by the letter of Mr. A. Bronson Alcott. It is nothing if not luminous, and contains this account of the ideal or transcendental bill of fare, or, better, in his own phrase, "the full table of human innerments." "Fruits," Mr. Alcott says, "rank first and highest in the pyramid; bread properly next; and vegetables lowest, and last. The distilled juices are forbidden. Flesh, if entering but slightly, is to the fairest temperaments especially unfriendly, if not demoralizing: The less of it the better; the more genially the body answers to the mind: the more ideal, spiritual, nor the less practical." Dr. T. L. Nichols writes from London to celebrate his own dietetic example, which is based, apparently, upon transcendental principles, though we fear that he is pushing them to the extreme. He says that he is living on brown bread, milk, and American dried apples, at a total cost for "innerments" of ten cents per day; and writing, meanwhile, "from twelve to fifteen hours" out of the twenty-four. He adds, almost piteously, "my stomach has such light work that all life flows freely to the brain, and I can work on hour after hour." One might apprehend, in such a case, that a compensation would be set up between the quality of the writing and that of the food. But the experiment is an interesting one, and we are sorry to note that Dr. Nichols proposes stopping the milkman, and keeping, henceforth, to the brown bread and the American dried apples as a strictly "Pythagorian" diet; for on these terms we cannot be wholly without fear as to the future of the experimenter.

Less ethereal is the regimen of Dr. J. R. Buchanan, who proposes boldly, as suitable for the human brain, "a nourishing diet, abundance of blood, and a sufficiency of sleep." His letter seems, indeed, almost misplaced among the mild Brahminic ruminations of his fellow-correspondents, but at the end of it he quite confuses the neophyte by summing up, with what seems to us a certain want of light, as follows: "Under a proper cerebral hygiene," he says, "there should be a consciousness of vital action, a gentle warmth, and a slight tension over the head generally, and especially in the superior regions"; and one's embarrassment is increased by hearing from Mr. Frothingham that habitually in his case, on the contrary, at least during the evening, "the brain was allowed to cool, and the blood encouraged to circulate evenly through the frame." There seems to be, indeed, no accord among the practices and the theories of these teachers. The late Mr. Bryant, for instance, abjured tea and coffee and practised gymnastic exercises an hour and a half every morning; while William Howitt, his contemporary and rival in length of years, used tea and coffee all his life and abjured gymnastics. Mr. Bryant startles us by remarking that as a part of his daily exercise he employed a brisk motion of the arms "in such a manner as to open the chest." The Rev. Charles Cleveland goes even farther, saying, "I have found it a very important object to keep the body open." In the English style of Mr. Cleveland, at least, one might fear, perhaps, some inaccuracy of expression; but in any case we should not reject without due enquiry the hygienic methods, though they may seem ultra-Spartan in their severity, which enabled this long-lived clergyman to reach the age of ninety-nine and to surpass Mr. Bryant's age by the term of fifteen years.

We have said enough to indicate the unusual character of these confessions, which might be properly called medical letters by inexperts. It would be interesting to know by what ingenuity of compliment the compiler of this little book prevailed upon his more fastidious corre-

spondents to explain their bodily ailments to the public, and the limitations of their reading to the carping critic. The circular-letter by which this was effected must have been a masterpiece in its way. One glimpse of it, too brief, we get in Bronson Alcott's response: "You 'wish to know how I have trained my brain to such *fine* thinking.'" If one wished to generalize about this little book, he might say that it represented the Anglo-Saxon love of hobby-horses, and the Anglo-Saxon slowness in distinguishing between one's knowledge and one's guesses. We especially commend 'Mental Hygiene' to the recent critic in the *Rundschau*, as pregnant with material for his studies in "Halb-Cultur."

A History of Roman Literature; from the earliest period to the death of Marcus Aurelius. By Charles Thomas Cruttwell, M.A., Fellow and Tutor of Merton College, Oxford. With chronological tables, etc., for the use of students. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 8vo, pp. 503.)—Mr. Cruttwell has given us a genuine history of Roman literature; not merely a descriptive list of authors and their productions, but a well-elaborated portrayal of the successive stages in the intellectual development of the Romans, and the various forms of expression which these took in literature. The individual authors are not unduly subordinated to the whole of which they form a part; but their merit and value are much better appreciated by bringing them thus into organic relation to one another, as representatives of the successive phases of the Roman mind.

The literary part of the work—of course, much the largest part—is excellent. The analysis of the authors of the first rank, Cicero, Horace, Virgil, etc., is admirable; they are looked at from more than one point of view, and their careers are fairly appreciated in the light of the history and politics of their time. The treatment of the lesser authors has the same merit, with an elaboration proportioned to their importance. We are surprised that no more is said with regard to the partisanship of Tacitus. So many scholars have of late undertaken to defend Tiberius, at least, against his charges, and to show that the historian is prejudiced and unfair, that we looked for a careful discussion on this point, such as we have upon some matters of even inferior importance, touching earlier authors. Next in importance to the literary point of view comes the philological; and this, too, is excellent. The history of the language, the alphabet, and the metre, the notes, appendices, and remarks upon subjects connected with the language, are all very satisfactory. Points of antiquities are not always so well done; the account of the law-courts, for example (p. 119), is defective in many particulars. The people are said to have delegated their judicial power "in public matters to the senate, and in general legal cases to the praetor's court." Precisely what is meant by the first statement we cannot say. By "general legal cases" is no doubt meant civil jurisdiction, to which the regular judicial powers of the prætors were confined until the establishment of the *quaestiones perpetuae*. When the author says below that the prætor on coming into office issued an *edictum perpetuum*, which might become *tralaticium* by being "handed on," he follows the authority of the older scholars, who define *edictum perpetuum* as "standing edict," for the year, that is. But the latest authorities define it, as Sir Henry Maine does ('Ancient Law,' p. 60), as being in reality a code of laws, growing out of the *edictum tralaticium* of successive years. Again, the prætors are said to have taken their *judices* for the determination of cases from a body of *judices selecti;* but this body belongs to a later period, that of the *quaestiones perpetuae*. On the next page it is said that Sulla increased the number of prætors to ten (it should be eight—Cæsar made the number ten), and that each presided over one of the standing courts. But the *praetor urbanus* and *peregrinus* continued to be confined to civil jurisdiction, so that there were only six prætors to preside over these courts. He is said further to have had a "*quaesitor* or chief juror" as an assessor—a very surprising statement. The *quaesitor* was the title of the president of the court, and this was, of course, the prætor himself; but as there were fewer prætors than there were courts, other officers had to be found to act as *quaesitor* in certain cases. Thus, in the *quaestio inter sicarios* a *judex quaestionis* of ædilician rank often presided. The confusion of the statement in question appears to arise from the fact that in the *quaestiones sodaliciorum* and *de vi* the *quaesitor* was a chief juror or foreman of the jury, never a magistrate. (See Mommsen, 'Römisches Staatsrecht,' ii. p. 547.) On page 130 Quintus Scævola, the pontifex, is incorrectly called nephew of his namesake the augur. It was the grandfather of the pontifex and the father of the augur that were brothers.

There is a good chronological table, a list of editions (good so far as it goes, but not nearly full enough), and a very useful set of questions or subjects for essays, one hundred and sixteen in number.

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ERRATA.

Page 11, col. ii, line 4 from bottom. For "Lagrange" read "Lestrange."

Page 30, col. i, line 23. For "fancies" read "trances."

Page 56, col. i, line 14 from bottom. For "July" read "August."

Page 81, col. i, line 6. For "Sara Vassulitch" read "Vera Zassulitch."

Page 91, col. ii, line 5, and page 107, col. ii, line 29 from bottom. For "Wirteimberg" read "Würtemberg," and for "Grand Duke" read "Duke."

Page 99, col. ii, line 21. For "grandson" read "great-grandson."

Page 123, col. i, line 7. For "Deheczin" read "Debreczin." Line 8. For "Sepsiszent" read "Sepsi-Szent-György."

Page 125, col. ii, line 30. For "Consul" read "Agent," and omit comma after "United States."

Page 166, col. i, line 9 from bottom. For "terms" read "turns." Col. ii, line 23 from bottom. For "superjective" read "superjected."

Page 178, col. i, line 27 from bottom. For "Box and Cox" read "Cox and Box."

Page 233, col. i, line 25. For "Ali Musuud" read "Ali-Musjid."

Page 249, col. i, line 24 from bottom. For $20,000,000 read $100,000,000. Column ii, line 16 from bottom. For "Reichsrath" read "Reichstag."

Page 255, col. ii, line 10 from bottom. For "bushes" read "beeches."

Page 359, col. ii, line 13. For "1874" read "1876."

REGISTER OF BOOKS RECEIVED DURING THE HALF-YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1878.

Theology, Metaphysics, and Ethics.

Adams (Rev. C. C.), Life of our Lord Jesus Christ ..... (Chas. F. Roper) $2 50
Alzog (Rev. J.), Manual of Universal Church History, 3 vols. ..... (Robert Clarke & Co.) 15 00
Barzellotti (Prof. G.), The Ethics of Positivism ..... (Chas. P. Somerby) 2 00
Beal (Rev. S.), Texts from the Buddhist Canon Dhammapada ..... (Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 2 50
Bennett (D. M.), Champions of the Church: their Crimes and Persecutions ..... (D. M. Bennett)
Blunt (Rev. J. H.), The Annotated Bible: Genesis to Esther ..... (Rivingtons)
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Candid Examination of Theism ..... (Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 2 50
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Day (H. N.), Outlines of Ontological Science ..... (G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 75
De Rialle (G.), La Mythologie Comparée ..... (F. W. Christern)
Ewer (Rev. F. C.), Catholicity in Relation to Protestantism and Romanism ..... (G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 00
Farrar (Rev. F. W.), Saintly Workers ..... (Macmillan & Co.) 1 25
Gibbons (Rev. J.), The Faith of Our Fathers ..... (John Murphy & Co.) 1 00
Greg (W. R.), The Creed of Christendom ..... (Rose-Belford Pub. Co.) 1 50
Haug (Prof. M.), Religion of the Parsis, 2d ed. ..... (Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 4 50
Hodge (Rev. C.), Discussions in Church Polity ..... (Charles Scribner's Sons) 3 50
Kingsley (Rev. C.), Sermons for the Times ..... (Claremont Manuf. Co.) 1 50
Lange (Rev. J. P.), Commentary: Isaiah ..... (Charles Scribner's Sons) 5 00
Lea (H. C.), Superstition and Force, 3d ed. ..... (Henry C. Lea)
Lear (H. L. S.), For Days and Years ..... (Rivingtons)
Selection from Pascal's Thoughts ..... (F. W. Christern)
Lefèvre (A.), La Philosophie ..... (F. W. Christern)
Mallock (W. H.), The New Paul and Virginia ..... (Scribner, Welford & Armstrong)
Phelps (Prof. A.), Studies of the Old Testament ..... (Congregational Pub. Co.) 1 25
Putnam (Rev. G.), Sermons ..... (Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 1 75
Randolph (Rev. W.), Analytical Notes on Obadiah and Habakuk ..... (Pott, Young & Co.) 2 75
Raymond (R. W.), The Book of Job ..... (D. Appleton & Co.)
Ridgely (G. W.), Federal Relations of the Protestant Episcopal Church, swd. ..... (Claxton, Remsen & Haffelfinger) 50
Schaff (Rev. P.), Popular Commentary on the New Testament, Vol. I. ..... (Chas. Scribner's Sons) 6 00
Speaker's Commentary—Matthew, Mark, Luke ..... (Chas. Scribner's Sons) 5 00
Stoughton (Rev. J.), Our English Bible ..... (Scribner & Welford) 2 00
Sunderland (J. T.), What is the Bible? ..... (G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 00
Talmadge (Rev. T. DeW.), Night Sides of City Life, swd. ..... (F. O. Evans & Co.) 50
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Poetry.

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Auringer (O. C.), The Voice of a Shell, swd. ..... (Authors' Pub. Co.) 40
Bruce (W.), The Land of Bruce: Poetry ..... (Lee & Shepard)
Brunton (W.), Daisies: Poetry ..... (Lee & Shepard) 1 50
Bryant (W. C.), Thanatopsis: Illustrated ..... (G. P. Putnam's Sons) 2 50
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Clarkson (L.), Little Stay-at-Home and Her Friends ..... (F. W. Robinson & Co.) 2 50
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Coates (H. T.), Fireside Encyclopædia of Poetry ..... (Porter & Coates) 5 00
Cowan (F.), Southwestern Pennsylvania in Song and Story ..... (Frank Cowan) 2 00
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Fields (J. T.) and Whipple (E. P.), Family Library of British Poetry ..... (Houghton, Osgood & Co.) 6 50
Francesca of Rimini ..... (J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
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Jones (Julia C.), Valhalla ..... (Edward Bosqui & Co.)
Laighton (A.), Poems ..... (A. Williams & Co.)
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